

ISCTE BUSINESS SCHOOL

Department of Management

**A model for “Recreational Sport Tourism Events’
Experience” - A participant’s perspective -**

Teresa Palrão

Thesis specially presented for the fulfilment of the degree of

Doctor in Tourism Management

Supervisor: José António Candeias Bonito Filipe, Assistant Professor with Habilitation,

Instituto Universitário de Lisboa

October, 2018

ISCTE BUSINESS SCHOOL

Department of Management

**A model for “Recreational Sport Tourism Events’
Experience”- A participant’s perspective –**

Teresa Palrão

Thesis specially presented for the fulfilment of the degree of

Doctor in Tourism Management

Jury:

Professor Doutor Pedro Dionísio, Professor Associado com Agregação, Departamento de Marketing, (IBS), ISCTE-IUL (Presidente)

Professor Doutor Manuel Francisco Pacheco Coelho, Professor Associado, ISEG-
Lisbon School of Economics & Management

Professora Doutora Rosária Pereira, Professora Adjunta, Escola Superior de Gestão,
Hotelaria e Turismo, Universidade do Algarve

Professora Doutora Valerie A. Sheppard, Professora Associada, Universidade Europeia

Professor Doutor Manuel Alberto Martins Ferreira, Professor Catedrático-
Departamento de Matemática, ISCTE-IUL

Professor Doutor José António Candeias. Bonito Filipe, Professor Auxiliar com
Agregação, Departamento de Matemática, ISCTE- IUL (Orientador)

October, 2018

A model for “Recreational Sport Tourism Events’ Experience”
- A participant’s perspective -

Acknowledgements

When we start a journey like the one we face now, we cannot predict the multitude of situations we will be confronted with. We listen very carefully to everything related to similar stories which occurred to other colleagues who made the same route. In my case, this path exceeded the expectations. I will not say that it was easy or that discouragement didn’t knock at my door sometimes, but I have learned that persistence, method and hard work are the only way to reach the finish line.

To this end, the guidance of my thesis supervisor, Professor José António Filipe, was fundamental and for that I will be eternally grateful to him. He always believed in me and was there for me in critical moments, giving the necessary assistance whenever I was pursuing an answer among crossroads.

I should also like to thank all the professors I met for three and a half years. In one way or another they were decisive in this journey.

The same gratitude goes to my classmates and some other colleagues from the years in front who I made friends with; the road we have travelled together has been rewarding, with its moments of sharing, despair and laughter.

It is not easy to go through the list of all the people I repeatedly contacted during this journey and who kindly provided all their help without knowing me and took their time to contribute to this thesis with relevant information. To all of you, thank you very much.

Some friends were always close by and supported me unconditionally, whom I must name: Gilberto Góis, Sofia Costa, Elsa Evangelista, Ilda Fonseca, Ana Maria Ribeiro, Carla Pereira, Ricardo Góis, not forgetting Zélia Afonso, Inês Almeida, Bernardete Couto and Catarina Vivaldo.

Finally, and in a very special way, my family: to my children, Afonso and Carolina, for the many times I was not so present, they patiently respected my lack of time. To my husband, Vasco, with whom I also shared this journey. To my dear mother, who was always with me, today as ever; and to my father, although he is not with us I know he would be proud.

To everyone, thank you!

A model for “Recreational Sport Tourism Events’ Experience”
- A participant’s perspective -

Sumário

Este trabalho pretende estudar os eventos turísticos desportivos de prática recreativa e a satisfação da experiência que os participantes obtêm neste tipo de eventos em Portugal, país que reúne excelentes condições para a sua prática. Até agora a investigação sobre os praticantes recreativos tem sido escassa porque só nos últimos tempos, devido sobretudo a questões associadas aos benefícios da saúde e bem-estar resultantes da prática desportiva, começaram a ser desenvolvidas. Portanto começa a ser possível encontrar novas infra-estruturas espalhadas pelas cidades, o que leva ao desenvolvimento deste tipo de eventos.

Após uma revisão teórica minuciosa acerca destas temáticas e assente particularmente em Getz (1998), Gibson (1998), Gammon and Robinson (2003), Weed and Bull (2004), Aspás (2000) e Nogawa, Yamguchi and Hagi (1996), foi desenvolvida uma escala que permitiu medir o nível de satisfação da experiência de um evento turístico desportivo de prática recreativa e permitiu definir 4 hipóteses e respectivos constructos, os quais contribuíram para perceber as variáveis preferenciais na referida experiência respeitante a este tipo de eventos.

Para tal, recorreu-se ao estudo de alguns destes eventos em Portugal e, numa segunda fase, a entrevistas em profundidade a gestores de eventos turísticos desportivos no sentido de perceber quais as possíveis variáveis que constituem os constructos “Actividade”, “Pessoas” e “Lugar” (baseados no modelo teórico de Weed & Bull, 2004) para este tipo de eventos, sendo complementados depois com inquéritos aos participantes a fim de avaliar e classificar essas referidas variáveis.

Este estudo permitiu perceber que dos constructos do modelo teórico de Weed and Bull (2004), o “Lugar” tem um maior peso explicativo na percepção da experiência comparativamente com os outros dois constructos “Actividade” e “Pessoas”.

Os resultados obtidos permitiram ainda perceber que para as duas primeiras hipóteses (se a avaliação da experiência altera de acordo com o tipo de evento e tipo de participante), nem o correspondente ao tipo de evento nem ao tipo de participante são validadas em função da amostra obtida e dos pressupostos do estudo. Com efeito, a percepção da experiência de um evento turístico desportivo de prática recreativa não é

alterada nem com o tipo de evento nem com o tipo de participante. As hipóteses sobre o género e grupo etário foram validadas, tendo em conta que a experiência de um evento turístico de prática recreativa varia de acordo com a avaliação do participante na experiência de um evento desportivo de prática recreativa, nos moldes apresentados. Também se pode constatar no estudo que a “Actividade” tem um maior número de variáveis consideradas mais significativas para uma experiência positiva que os outros dois construtos, tendo sido seguida do “Lugar” e por último do construto “Pessoas”.

Foi aplicada uma série de técnicas estatísticas para os dados qualitativos, muito utilizadas em ciências sociais, com o intuito de poder proporcionar contributos válidos para posteriores análises da mesma natureza.

Em suma, do estudo em si, podemos dizer que a ideia chave passa pela construção de um modelo que nos permitiu identificar a interacção das variáveis determinantes na experiência em eventos turísticos desportivos de prática recreativa na perspectiva do participante.

Palavras-chave: Turismo desportivo, eventos turísticos desportivos recreativos, participantes, experiência, actividade, lugar, pessoas.

Abstract

This study aims to study recreational sport tourism events and the experience satisfaction of participants in this type of events in Portugal. This country has excellent conditions for practising these sports. Until now, the research on recreational practitioners is scarce because only recently have the issues associated with health benefits and well-being brought about by sports started to be developed. Thus, it is now possible to find new infrastructures scattered around cities, allowing the development of these events. Following a thorough theoretical review of this subject and based on Getz (1998), Gibson (1998), Gammon and Robinson (2003), Weed and Bull (2004), Aspas (2000), and Nogawa, Yamguchi and Hagi (1996), a scale was created to allow the measurement of the experience satisfaction level at recreational sport tourism events. Four hypotheses were drawn together with the corresponding constructs that made it possible to perceive the preferential variables in the experience related to these events.

To this end, some of these events taking place in Portugal were studied and, in a second stage, in-depth interviews were conducted with sport tourism events managers to understand the possible variables representing the constructs "Activity", "People" and "Place" (based on Weed & Bull 2004) in this type of events. These were then supplemented by surveys with participants in order to evaluate and rank the above-mentioned variables.

The current study allowed the justification that from all the constructs of Weed and Bull’s (2004) theoretical model, “Place” has a stronger explanatory weight where perceiving the experience is concerned when compared to the other two constructs “Activity” and “People”.

Findings allowed it to be identified that in the two first hypotheses (if the evaluation of the experience varies according to the type of event and the type of participant), neither the type of event nor the type of participant is validated, because they do not change the experience perception of a recreational sport tourism event. Considering the hypotheses on gender and age category, they are validated as they vary according to the experience participant’s assessment of a recreational sport tourism event. It is also possible to claim that “Activity” holds a larger number of variables

which are considered more significant for a positive experience than the other constructs, followed by “Place” and, finally, by the construct “People”.

A set of statistical techniques available for the qualitative data most used in social sciences were applied to support analysis of the same nature.

Finally, it is important to show the relevance of this study, highlighting that a model was built to identify the interaction of determinant variables in the experience in recreational sport tourism events from a participant’s perspective.

Keywords: Sport tourism, recreational sport tourism events, participants, experience, activity, people, place.

Table of Contents

1.	Introduction	1
1.1.	General Considerations.....	1
1.2.	Goals and Methodologies	3
2.	Sport Tourism Events	9
2.1.	General Considerations.....	9
2.2.	Around a Definition for Sport Tourism Events	13
2.3.	History	21
2.4.	Some Complementary Notes	27
2.5.	Some Introductory Considerations for Portugal on Sport Tourism Events....	28
3.	Participants’ Motivations.....	33
3.1.	General Considerations.....	33
3.2.	Historical Developments on Motivation applied to Tourism	39
3.3.	Push & Pull Model	47
3.4.	Complementary Notes	51
4.	Experience of Recreational Sport Tourism Events.....	55
4.1.	Definition of “Recreational” in Sport Tourism Events	55
4.2.	Definition of Experience in Sport Tourism Events	64
4.3.	Measuring Scale of a Recreational Sport Tourism Events Experience	71
4.4.	Complementary Notes	78
5.	Conceptual Model	85
5.1.	Framework, Constructs, and Variables	86
5.1.1.	Framework.....	86
5.1.2.	Constructs	88
5.1.3.	Variables.....	96

5.2.	Objectives, Conceptual Model and Hypotheses	104
5.2.1.	Objectives	104
5.2.2.	Conceptual Model	106
5.2.3.	Hypotheses	109
6.	Recreational Sport Tourism Events in Portugal	113
6.1.	General Considerations.....	113
6.2.	Sport Tourism Events Evolution in Portugal.....	118
6.3.	Characterization of Chosen Events	126
6.3.1.	Land Event – All Nations Race	129
6.3.2.	Water Event – Up and Down the Guadiana River Sail Regatta	134
6.3.3.	Air Event – The National Paragliding Festival	137
6.4.	Data Analysis.....	140
7.	Methodology.....	149
7.1.	General Considerations.....	149
7.2.	First stage study – Data Collection Tools in Qualitative Research	151
7.2.1.	Methodology of the In-depth Interview.....	151
7.2.2.	Sampling and the Characteristics of the Sample	154
7.2.3.	Data Analysis.....	155
7.3.	Second stage study – Data Collection Tools in Quantitative Research.....	162
7.3.1.	The Methodology of the Survey	163
7.3.1.1.	Scale	163
7.3.1.2.	Other Items.....	164
7.3.2.	The Sample and Sample Characteristics	165
7.3.3.	Data Analysis.....	167
7.3.3.1.	Descriptive Statistics	169
7.3.3.2.	Type of Event	171

7.3.3.3.	Analysis of the Scale	178
7.3.3.3.1.	Exploratory Factor Analysis	178
7.3.3.3.2.	Reliability (Internal Consistency) of the Factors of the Scale ...	180
7.3.3.3.3.	Confirmatory Factor Analysis.....	183
7.3.3.4.	Comparative Studies	189
7.3.3.4.1.	Gender.....	190
7.3.3.4.2.	Age Categories.....	190
7.3.3.4.3.	Type of Event.....	191
7.3.3.4.4.	Sport Excursionists and Sport Tourists.....	192
7.3.3.4.5.	Attending the Event for the First Time	192
7.3.3.4.6.	Attending the Event Alone or With Others.....	193
7.3.3.4.7.	Intention to Return to the Event.....	194
7.3.3.5.	Logistic Regression	194
7.3.3.6.	Homals	205
8.	The Empirical Results and Study Conclusions	211
9.	Constraints, Recommendations and Conclusion	221
10.	References.....	227
10.1.	Publications	227
10.2.	Websites	253
11.	Appendix.....	257
	Appendix A – Questionnaire applied to Recreational Sport Tourism Events, specific for Portugal	257
	Appendix B – In-depth interview	263
	Appendix C - Questionnaire applied to tourists and excursionist in Recreational Sport Tourism Events in Portugal	269

A model for “Recreational Sport Tourism Events’ Experience”
- A participant’s perspective -

List of Figures

Figure 1 – Inbound tourism 1995-2016.....	1
Figure 2 – First conceptual model	13
Figure 3 – Standeven and De Knop’s (1999) “forms of sport tourism”	17
Figure 4 – Psychographic personality types	40
Figure 5 – A Social Psychological Model of tourism motivation	41
Figure 6 – Crawford and Godbey’s three types of leisure constraints	42
Figure 7 – A taxonomy of human motivation	43
Figure 8 – The psychological continuum model (PCM)	45
Figure 9 – Conceptual model depicting the relationship between motives to participate in sport tourism and events with controlled and autonomous motivation.....	47
Figure 10 – Push and pull framework of tourism motivations	51
Figure 11 - Relationship between leisure recreation and tourism	57
Figure 12 – Consumer classification of sport and tourism.....	63
Figure 13 – The tourist experience conceptual model of influences and outcomes.....	68
Figure 14 – The tourism experience model	69
Figure 15 – A model for understanding sport event tourism experiences.....	72
Figure 16 – Sport tourism consumer experiences: a comprehensive model OSL (Optimal, Stimulation Level).....	73
Figure 17 – The evolution of the extraordinary/memorable travel/tourism experience. 74	
Figure 18 – The aspects of meaning attached to a small-scale sport event experience by active sport tourists in the post trip phase through a qualitative analysis	75
Figure 19 – Representative model of participation type in Sport and Tourism	76
Figure 20 – Typology of events.....	82
Figure 21 – Literature review for “Recreational Sport Tourism Events”	83
Figure 22 – Major areas of the study in the Research Problem.....	87
Figure 23 – Conceptual Model I for Recreational Participation in Sport Tourism Events Experience	88
Figure 24 – Conceptual Model II for Recreational Participation in Sport Tourism Events Experience	108
Figure 25 – Research hypotheses	110

Figure 26 – Overnight stays concentration in 2015, regional asymmetries	115
Figure 27 – Registered tourist entertainment companies	116
Figure 28 – Ironman Logo.....	124
Figure 29 – TOP 10 best marks by nationality	124
Figure 30 – Jorge Pereira (Managing director at Ironman Portugal), Carlos Carreiras (President.....	125
Figure 31 – Adventure sports activities ranking.....	127
Figure 32 – Announcement of the event’s cancelation	131
Figure 33 – 2016 All Nations Race	132
Figure 34 – Survivors run logo.....	132
Figure 35 – Logo of Guadiana Naval Association,	135
Figure 36 – Promotion of the event 2016 Up and Down the Guadiana River	135
Figure 37 – Wind logo.....	138
Figure 38 – Paragliding festival promotion 2016.....	139
Figure 39 – Relevance in % attributed by the participants to the elements “Activity”, “Place” and “People”.....	143
Figure 40 – Percentage of relevance in the experience for the elements “Activity”, “Place” and “People”.....	144
Figure 41 – Conceptual Model III for Recreational Participation in Sport Tourism Events Experience	162
Figure 42 – Model I.....	185
Figure 43 – Model II correlated.....	187
Figure 44 – Model III with “Experience”	189
Figure 45 – Dispersion diagram – influence points in the in the model’s quality.....	201
Figure 46 – ROC curve for the final model without outliers	204
Figure 47 – Leverage points in the model’s quality	204
Figure 48 – Scree plot.....	206
Figure 49 – Correspondence analysis plot.....	209
Figure 50 – Final Conceptual Model for Recreational Participation in Sport Tourism Events Experience	219

List of Tables

Table 1 – Variables on constructs based on the literature review for the conceptual model	97
Table 2 – Relationship between specific objectives and hypotheses	110
Table 3 – Examples of Sport Events in Portugal	119
Table 4 – Number of participants in the Urban Trail Lisbon event (2012/2015).....	130
Table 5 – Number of participants in the All Nations Race event (2016/2017)	133
Table 6 – Number of participants in the Guadiana Regatta event (2012/2016)	136
Table 7 – Number of participants in the paragliding festival event (2012/2016).....	139
Table 8 – Number of recreational participants and respondents in the event (2016)...	140
Table 9 – Brief characterization of the interviewees.	155
Table 10 – Number of interview extracts considered relevant	156
Table 11 – Observation distribution by analysis codes	157
Table 12 – Words marked in the interview for the construct “Activity”	158
Table 13 – Words marked in the interview for the construct “Place”	159
Table 14 – Words marked in the interview for the construct “People”	160
Table 15 – Frequency and percentage of male and female participants (N = 401).....	169
Table 16 – Frequency and percentage of participants by age category (N = 401)	170
Table 17 – Frequency and percentage of participants by age category (N = 401)	170
Table 18 – Frequency and percentage of participants distributed by gender and age category (N = 401).....	171
Table 19 – Frequency and percentage of participants distributed by type of event and gender (N = 401)	172
Table 20 – Frequency and percentage of participants distributed by type of event and age categories (N = 401).....	173
Table 21 – Frequency and percentage of participants that responded ‘yes’ and ‘no’ to the question.....	174
Table 22 – Frequency and percentage of participants distributed by type of event and responded ‘yes’ and ‘no’ to the question “Was this the first time you attended this event?” (N = 401)	174

Table 23 – Frequency and percentage of participants distributed by type of event and whether they were attending the event alone (‘yes’) or with company (‘no’) (N = 401)	175
Table 24 – Frequency and percentage of participants distributed by type of event and the reason they were attending the event (N = 401)	176
Table 25 – Frequency and percentage of “Sports Tourists” and “Sports Excursionist” (N = 401).....	177
Table 26 – Frequency and percentage of “Sports Tourists” and “Sports Excursionist” by type of event (N = 401)	177
Table 27 – Summary of Factor loadings and communalities (h^2) of the scale (N = 401)	179
Table 28 – Items’ descriptive statistics (mean and standard deviation for the Factor 1 “Place”) (N = 401)	180
Table 29 – Item – total statistics for the Factor 1 “Place” (N = 401)	181
Table 30 – Items’ descriptive statistics (mean and standard deviation for the Factor 2 “Activity”) (N = 401)	181
Table 31 – Item – total statistics for the Factor 2 “Activity” (N = 401).....	182
Table 32 – Items’ descriptive statistics (mean and standard deviation for the Factor 3 “People”) (N = 401).....	182
Table 33 – Item – total statistics for the Factor 3 “People” (N = 401).....	183
Table 34 – Standardized regression weights of each item of its respective factor.....	184
Table 35 – Independent samples t-test results for the comparison between women and men’s mean scores on the total scale and the three factors of the scale (N = 401)	190
Table 36 – Analysis of Variance results for the comparison between age categories on the total scale and the three factors of the scale (N = 401).....	191
Table 37 – Analysis of Variance results for the comparison between type of event on the total scale and the three factors of the scale (N = 401).....	191
Table 38 – Independent samples t-test results for the comparison between sports excursionists and sports tourists on the total scale and the three factors of the scale (N = 401).....	192

Table 39 – Independent samples t-test results for the comparison between participants who were attending the event for the first time and those who were not on the total scale and the three factors of the scale (N = 401).....	193
Table 40 – Independent samples t-test results for the comparison between participants who attended the event by themselves or with company on the total scale and the three factors of the scale (N = 401)	193
Table 41 – Results for 5 initial models.....	199
Table 42 – First Outliers Diagnostic.....	200
Table 43 – The Model’s Logit Coefficients	202
Table 44– Résumé of results for the final model with and without outliers	202
Table 45 – Outliers last diagnostic	205

1. Introduction

1.1. General Considerations

Nowadays, tourism is a very important sector in terms of the generated revenue.

According to data from the World Tourism Organization website (UNWTO, January 2017) the demand for international tourism remained robust in 2016 despite challenges. It is impressive that about more some 46 million tourists (overnight visitors) travelled internationally that year when compared to 2015.

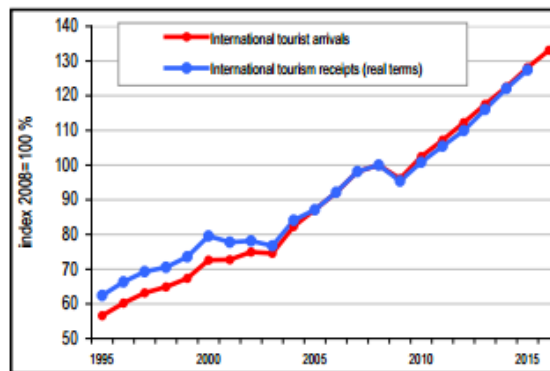


Figure 1 – Inbound tourism 1995-2016

Source: World Tourism Organization (UNWTO, 2017)

As regards Portugal, numbers prove that this country continues to set new top records and is increasingly catching the interest of a growing number of foreign tourists, who are choosing Portugal as a vacation destination. Data disclosed by the Portuguese National Bank, *Banco de Portugal* (BP) and the State Statistical Office, *Instituto Nacional de Estatística* (INE), prove new highs were reached in the number of overnight stays and visitors throughout 2016.

Tourism has brought significant levels of employment and wealth to Portugal, and it is the sector that contributed most to the growth in GDP in 2016. Also, through sustainable growth, it has restored confidence in the country and in Portuguese public institutions and private organizations to improve the conditions for tourists’ reception, as well as the promotion abroad of all potentialities it represents.

Nowadays, no other sector is as popular as tourism which, among other aspects, largely benefits from the progressive adherence of large tiers of populations to sport. The promotion of physical exercise was first addressed by the National Board of Health, *Direcção Geral da Saúde* as a nationwide necessity focused on illness prevention. This message has finally reached the population, which is currently aware of the benefits of exercising and is concerned with keeping fit. Nevertheless, when compared to other countries, Portuguese people are still considered less active. Taking advantage of the mildness of the climate, the increase in outdoor exercise led to a search for contexts to make it more accessible, easy and fun.

Considering the growth in tourism and sport events in Portugal supported by the recent trends (although there is no data supporting this growth in sport events due to the lack of studies on this subject), participant figures, which until recently were mostly Portuguese, started to include foreigners, albeit in a lesser magnitude. The organization of this type of events, which is constantly improving, provides the necessary conditions to promote Portugal as a very good destination for foreign tourists.

Considering the above-mentioned growth of both tourism and sports events, it is pertinent to approach sport tourism events and detail the importance of sport events for tourism. The effect of the events in the seasonality associated with this economic sector is also highlighted. Also relevant is the issue of deconcentrating popular places known for their tourism attractions. The idea is to avoid what is currently called *tourism-phobia*, as a consequence of tourism massification in the most sought-after centres, making people feel a certain threat to their daily life.

This analysis aims to reflect on the role of events in tourism and how they can act as an element of attraction to the destination place. Drawn by the event, sport tourists bring their families to enjoy a leisure experience together. Adding to the fact that Portugal presents a whole set of natural advantages such as the climate, geography, a long coastline and a highly diversified landscape, this may result in an advantage for the destination image.

Although there are still very few statistical data on sport events, there are relevant facts on this subject. In 2005 the Lisbon City Council, *Câmara Municipal de*

Lisboa, directly supported over 60 races with ca. 200,000 participants. Amongst the different categories assessed in this study, the “participation events” are the most interesting. They include events such as the half-marathon and marathon, which attracted ca. 70,000 participants, about 8,000 of whom were foreign. These sport events are increasing in number and rate, and might somehow collide with the interests of participants. Recent data point out that between 2012 and 2017, Lisbon City Council, *Câmara Municipal de Lisboa*, supported the city’s clubs with 4.2 million euros. This town hosted 309 large sport events between 2012 and 2016.

These numbers allow some questions to be raised, such as: is there any quality standard for the staging of this type of competitions? Can any entity hold a sport event? Is participant safety guaranteed? What does it take for such an event to be considered a tourism event? And how is the organization supposed to communicate with the potential athletes? Is there any competent entity regulating these events? Do all these events provide a unique experience for the participants? The issues which these questions concern are important for the suitable development of this type of events and should be addressed in such a way that efforts undertaken to promote the country as a tourism destination cannot be jeopardized.

Before ending this section it is opportune to state that a central objective in this study is to determine the variables which attract participants to willingly experiment practising their activity in a different place, for the sake of leisure and not to compete. Only by ascertaining the real motivations to participate can these events improve and adapt to the athletes, thus raising numbers of participants as well as those accompanying them, and thereby contributing to the development of the destination place.

1.2. Goals and Methodologies

Recreational sport tourism events are considered the central issue in this study, supported by an effort to gather information in different areas, such as events, sport and physical activity.

Thus, the aim is to analyse some events taking place in the three physical environments (water, land, air) from the north to the south of the Portuguese mainland. This option,

resulting from the bibliographical research, is associated with the possibility of studying the participants in a real-world context, regardless of the sport events type.

The in-depth research on the state of the art concerning sport tourism events shows precisely the low basis of consensus on several topics – active and passive participants, leisure, or competition athletes, for example – also due to the extent of this area. It also determined the interest in starting a research focused on recreational participants in order to acknowledge and perceive what produces a good experience while engaging in this type of events. Although the study of the experience of recreational sport tourism events participants has not been yet explored for Portugal, this is also true for many other countries. Effectively, studies so far have concentrated on the experience of competitors and fans.

Considering the aforementioned, the following general objectives were considered:

1. To contribute to the characterization of recreational sport tourism events.
2. To develop the construction and validation of a scale to measure the experience of recreational participants in recreational sport tourism events.
3. To conceptualize a model for the experience of recreational participation in sport tourism events, based on the model drawn up by Weed and Bull (2004).

In addition, concerning specific objectives, the following are presented:

1. To develop a conceptual framework to explain the concept of the recreational participant based on the *soft definition of sport tourism* given by Gammon and Robinson (2003).
2. To understand why participants engage in recreational sport tourism events.
3. To identify the implicit variables in the participant’s decision to experience recreational sport tourism events.
4. To determine the explanatory variables for each construct in the participant’s experience in recreational sport tourism events.

5. To determine which construct(s) (from among Activity, Place and People) has/have greater weight in the participant’s experience in recreational sport tourism events.
6. To give a theoretical contribution in order to achieve interrelationships among different variables of the constructs.
7. To assess what type of events (among those on air, land and water) provide a better experience to the participant in recreational sport tourism events.
8. To understand what type of participant (tourist or excursionist) gets a better experience from recreational sport tourism events.
9. To understand if the experience is perceived differently according to gender in recreational sport tourism events.
10. To understand if the experience is perceived differently according to the age category in recreational sport tourism events.

With the aim of reaching these objectives, 4 hypotheses were drawn up:

H1: The evaluation of “Experience” varies according to the type of event (water, land or air).

H2: The evaluation of “Experience” varies according to the type of participant (tourist or excursionist).

H3: The evaluation of “Experience” varies according to gender.

H4: The evaluation of “Experience” varies according to the age category (< 30, 30-60; > 60).

In order to reach some conclusions and to answer and validate the above hypotheses, it was necessary to build a suitable work methodology for the different stages in order to gather all the required information.

The methodology applied was mixed and composed by two phases following a preliminary survey composed by a total of 176 questionnaires applied to the participants in three specific sport tourism events held in Portugal. The participants in these events are the population of the research. They will provide important information about recreational sport tourism events in Portugal and test the profile of this type of tourists.

In the first phase, in-depth interviews were conducted with three managers responsible for sport events in companies in the different areas: land, water and air. These data were analysed using the software MAXQDA 12. This software intends to analyse contents and allows an understanding of which words are repeated more often and hold a higher degree of importance. The interviews were intended to confirm the variables compiled during the bibliographical review for the different constructs. Then, after the analysis of these variables, a few more, although limited in number, were added to the final research model, thereby obtaining a starting point to create the survey.

In the last phase, a scale was built to measure experience in recreational sports tourism events based on the three constructs, “Activity”, “People” and “Place” and corresponding variables. For that it was necessary to validate those variables suitable to explain the constructs, and therefore allow an understanding of their significance for the experience acquired during recreational sport tourism events.

Weed and Bull (2004) claimed that interaction between these three constructs is essential for experience of sport tourism events, and therefore it became necessary to understand which variables can be included in each construct. To this end, a compilation of the variables mentioned in the literature review was undertaken, particularly amongst the major researchers in sport tourism events whenever any of the constructs were mentioned, even if isolated.

Thus, for each construct, the following variables were collected:

- The construct “Activity” is composed by nine variables: improve one’s skills; participation; health; self-esteem; pleasure; adventure; risk; prestige; reward.
- The construct “Place” is composed by ten variables: escape; safety; weather; environment; infrastructure; destination image; travel; ability to learn; organizational components, proximity.
- The construct “People” is composed by five variables: audience support; team spirit; recognition, socialize; group affiliation.

The survey was conducted and 401 online responses were collected. The participants were selected among sport tourism event companies, one for each physical

environment. Thus, surveys were conducted on events held on water, by the group “Malta da Vela”, the air participants came from the company “Wind”, and finally for the land event participants, the company “We Run” was chosen. In this quantitative analysis, data were statistically processed with SPSS 20.0 software.

The statistical analysis and its interpretation were firstly made through exploratory factor analysis, with analysis of the main components with the varimax rotation method, followed by analysis of internal consistency using Cronbach’s alpha statistics. In this methodological stage, the scale model created to measure the participants’ experience satisfaction level in this type of events based on the three constructs was tested by Amos, thereby establishing its solidity.

This final phase allowed the validation of the hypotheses in place to be studied and the most important variables perceived for those taking part in the experience obtained in recreational sport tourism events.

This work is divided into two groups. A bibliographical review extends until Chapter 4, divided into the major subjects addressed. Chapter 2 deals with theoretical and conceptual aspects of sport tourism events, followed by a brief characterization and contextualization of the subject in Portugal. Chapter 3 is dedicated to the profile and motivations of the participants of this type of events and to the “experience” based on Weed and Bull (2004). Taking into account the different types of motivations, they may be distributed as follows: “Activity”, “People” and “Place”. In Chapter 4, the subject is more specific and deals with recreational sport tourism events, measuring scales that might assess this experience and provides a conclusion concerning what is already done and how it connects to the intended field of study.

Following the bibliographical review, the remainder of this work is dedicated to the empirical study, beginning with Chapter 5 which covers the framework, constructs and variables, and also the objectives, conceptual model and hypotheses. This chapter is of the utmost importance because it lays down the methodological path that will answer the central issues of this work.

In Chapter 6, a characterization and description of the evolution of events in Portugal are made. The preliminary survey of three specific sport tourism events is

carried out, deepening insights on this situation, which is still largely ignored in this country. In Chapter 7, the methodological aspects of this work are presented: data collection and analytical tools, as well as the methodology used during the information processing stages. After that, logistic regression method and homals analysis were applied. These data allowed further analysis and discussion with the empirical results and the study conclusions in Chapter 8. Finally, in Chapter 9, the constraints, recommendations and future investigation lines are presented, as well as a final conclusion.

Because of financial and time restraints, only one event in each physical environment was studied in three areas of the country, which prevented an exhaustive study of the events; without these restraints, a study for each physical environment could have been made in each zone. Moreover, the responses to the online inquiry reflect a disparity in number, less representative of the air and water events compared to land events.

However, and notwithstanding the restraints, the purpose of this study is to allow not only a wide perspective on this type of events in Portugal, but also to contribute to the suitability of the events for the participant profile, while trying to perceive which variables are the most important in the tourist’s experience. For this purpose, a scale was created to measure this type of experience, which was essential for obtaining relevant results.

2. Sport Tourism Events

2.1. General Considerations

In this chapter, different views of the theme *sport tourism events* are presented. Their growing importance up to the present is also seen. Their route and the different names attributed to them over time show an evident concern with the necessity of clarifying this subject. Currently, scientific research already contemplates a global dimension of the concept and also recognizes the various important impacts caused by this phenomenon. For this study, Jiménez-Naranjo et al.’s (2015) idea was adopted that the research on this subject understands “sport” and “tourism” as two complementary activities. Sports events generate tourism and tourists do different activities including sports while enjoying their leisure time.

In addition, to this introductory point, the concept of *sport tourism events* and its evolution are also developed, as well as the state of the art concerning this subject.

The tourism sector has witnessed a set of changes in tourists’ preferences, which gave rise to a different type of more active offers (connected to tourist entertainment) beyond traditional packages. According to Poon (1993), this new trend can be designated as “new tourism”. Yet Cunha (2003) states that by understanding the different motives that lead people to travel, it is possible to identify a large range of tourism types.

Given the characteristics of sport tourism and considering its current trends, it has great large potential as a complement to travel motivations. Weed (2009), in his meta-review of sport tourism research, outlined and highlighted it as a much-debated area, in which researchers have divergent routes.

The concept of sport tourism is not consensual and even the search for tourism as an autonomous subject is discussed. For example, for Tribe (1997, p. 20), “the search for tourism as a discipline should be abandoned. It is a sign of nostalgia (...) and insecurity (...) and would involve casting adrift important parts of tourism studies in the quest for conceptual coherence and logical consistency”.

Sport carries significant weight within tourism which, together with the act of travelling, is associated with a large range of sports, e.g. golf, tennis, sailing and skiing, among others, all of which clearly reflect the unique dimensions and particularities of each and the symbolic signals associated with each sport. The fusion of the sport and tourism concepts allows the consideration of a wide range of variations as regards sports and also the inherent destinations according to the perspectives of the various actors and/or persons interested in sport tourism.

In fact, sport events are a growing phenomenon which can move masses throughout the whole world. It is possible to notice in this concept a way to bypass seasonality and thus provide a different kind of offer with the search for participating in sport as the main motivation. As Weed and Bull (2004) point out, sport and travel have become vital aspects of people’s lives.

The inclusion of sports as a strength for tourism has become increasingly stronger, but a large number of variations has also come up concerning a larger number of sports practised in different destinations. Meanwhile, based on this, a whole set of nomenclatures has been developed, such as nature, active, radical, adventure and leisure sport, among others considering open-air sport activities practised in different destinations. Concerning this subject, Aspas (2000) raised the issue of adventure sports, sport tourism and active tourism terminology; however, this author considers that the phenomenon itself is more important than the discussion on terminology.

In the second half of the 20th century, there was a strong development of ideals leading to body care and the need to escape a life marked by inactivity every day. A more intense demand for physical activity appeared with an emphasis on the inputs given by public health policy itself, which started to encourage and promote a change of behaviour oriented to an open-air life style with physical activity during leisure moments.

Ottevanger (2007) reinforces Weed and Bull’s (2004) point of view that the tourism industry can support local sport facilities or give communities the chance to create them where that wouldn’t otherwise be possible. As stated, tourism can benefit

from sport because many sport activities take place during holidays. Accordingly, more co-operation would be positive for both sectors in order to use mutual advantages.

In fact, it is possible to notice an unusual growth of the sport phenomenon promoting the practice of all sports. In the current society, sport already assumes a dominant role in the population’s lifestyle due to its major contribution to individuals’ development, but also due to gaining and maintaining well-being. It is also possible to witness a rise in tourism, as mentioned above, which is not expected to slow down soon. When these two areas are united into a single one, a market niche with high economic potential is achievable, thereby initiating interest which is not only political or economic, but also academic.

Tourism now offers sports programmes with more active features, together with the existing “sun and beach” packages. These sports motivate people and are practised and/or attended by people of different age ranges and social classes, in different places, providing a different type of experiences associated with several active practices. Also, there is a cooperation that increases both sport and tourism, considering that sport allows tourism to be supported and finally develops sport and its practice, as noted by Standeven and De Knop (1999).

According to Hinch and Higham (2001), sport is an important activity within tourism in this area, as tourism is a fundamental characteristic of sport. Considering Portugal, tourism is very significant to the Portuguese economy. There are also excellent conditions for sports, such as the constant mild climate with natural conditions for sports in every physical environment. Often, sports can be practised only a few kilometres away from each other and all year round. Portugal’s geographic position and accessibility also allow it to compete with most other sport destinations. The success of a destination depends on its capacity to meet the demand based on the tourists’ motivations. Also, as Fern and Wey (2017, p. 29) say, “The impact of destination image on event image was significant as well. The sport event participants’ behavioural intention was predicted by the image of destination and event”.

Also adding to sport tourism success, and knowing that its economic return is of considerable interest, a tourism policy promoting a strategy for the development of

tourism products is in place. Considering that Portugal gathers the conditions and natural resources suitable for this type of activities, new areas connected to nature, golf, surf, health and well-being are emerging.

The document “*Turismo 2020 – plano de ação para o desenvolvimento do turismo em Portugal*”, drafted by the Tourism Institute of Portugal (Turismo de Portugal), sets forth the tourism development action plan by defining the guiding principles in tourism for 2014-2020, and underlines the ambition of making Portugal the most flexible and dynamic destination in Europe.

Kurtzman and Zauhar (2003) declare that sport is a multi-million-euro industry, mobilizing the life of millions of people worldwide and which took to sports shows to become a communication vehicle. By their turn, Jakovlev et al. (2017) looked into the experiences of developed countries and noticed the need to emphasise the development of sports tourism. This form of tourism is the connection for initiating a thriving new industry, which promotes modern world and global economy.

Taking in account the research of several authors’ who contributed to this nuclear theme – sport tourism events – two of them have become essential to this work and are pillars of this investigation into sport tourism: Gibson (1998) who, in addition to writing abundantly on the concept, divided it in its different segments; and Getz (2008), who developed this area of events and labelled it tourist sports.

Finally, in Figure 2 below, it is possible to visualize the initial themes, currently addressed throughout this study, which later evolved into sport tourism events and the experience of their participants. This process will lead to the need to perceive the inherent connections and how these themes can be established considering the different subjects and how to conceptualize them into a model.

This model entails the interconnection of three initial concepts (Sport Tourism; Sport Event Tourism; Tourists’ Motivations and Experiences) which will develop into subsequent models.



Figure 2 – First conceptual model

Source: Own elaboration

2.2. Around a Definition for Sport Tourism Events

Overlapping the two areas, sport and tourism, several academics wrote about the phenomenon of sport tourism, involving a set of simultaneous activities, including touristic and sporting activities. According to Weed and Bull (2004, p. 6), “two clear trends can be discerned: the development of sports requiring the participants themselves to travel and the development of sporting activity involving travelling spectators”.

Considering the concept advanced by the World Tourism Organization (UNWTO) (1994) and mentioned by Lew, Hall and Williams (2004, p. 29), “tourism is the set of activities engaged in by persons temporarily away from their usual environment, for a period not more than one year, and for a broad range of leisure, business, religious, health and personal reasons, excluding the pursuit of remuneration from within the place visited or long-term change of residence”. In this definition it is important to highlight the activities undertaken by people with recreational purposes, to can be added the definition of sport by the European Sports Charter (1992), posted on the website of the International Fair Play Committee, as any physical activity gathering both casual or organized participants, to express or improve physical fitness and mental well-being, thus establishing social relationships or getting results in competition at all levels.

These two definitions set the main pillars supporting the development of this work. Another major factor is that noted by Hinch and Higham (2001) who state that sport can be seen as a cultural representation of a certain country; a country may cultivate a specific sport according to its morphology and climate and promote it, not only domestically for representation abroad, but also as an investment with suitable infrastructures and take advantage of it for tourism. These authors give examples of ice hockey in Canada and Nordic skiing in Norway, although there are many more examples across the 5 continents which portray a culture.

Events are the last pillar of this study. Events are a motivational factor in tourism and frequently an initiator of development and competition in many destinations. According to Raj, Walters and Rashid (2013), organized events started in ancient history and provided the participants with the opportunity to share rituals and celebrations. In 2004 the Association for Events Management Education (AEME) established the creation of the events subject profile, taking into account that, as stated by Kirkup and Sutherland (2015), the increased sport attendance numbers in 2014 prove the steady growth of sports events participants.

Initially, Getz studied several types of events and in 1998 focused on tourism events. In 2008 he provided a historical and ontological review of *event tourism*. Getz (2008) quotes the New Zealand Tourist and Publicity Department (1987), mentioning that before 1987 this term was seldom used. Only in 1990 did sports events start to appear and from then on, it is possible to observe an exponential growth in this particular type of events. As Getz (2013) observed, sport events are now found everywhere, in rustic outdoor playing fields and in enormous luxury stadia. Sports events are found at all organization levels, from local to international. They are “infinite” in variety, and are frequently packaged as – or with – festivals, entertainment and spectacle. Many of them are produced as media events, involving a small number of participants or spectators. In fact, event sport tourism, as evidenced by Getz (2008), beyond being a significant manifestation of the relationship between sport and tourism, establishes the connection with another important field of analysis, event tourism.

Sport tourism, which is a wider definition of sport tourism events, conjugates what is considered tourism and sport, including the interconnection of both areas.

Investigators started studying this concept in the final decades of the 20th century, when the concept started to be designated as such. Kurtzman and Zauher (2004) also defended that the points connecting tourism and sport were increasing. In fact, this concept covers a set of sports activities in which tourists have an active role, or even a passive role, depending on whether they are participants or spectators. Anyway, in sport events it is not mandatory that the tourist has an active role in a physical activity, since he/she can be, for instance, only a spectator.

All these multiple activities and roles that can be developed in sport tourism events allowed many researchers to propose classifications for sport tourism, as will be seen later in this study. Van Rheenen, Cernaianu and Sobry (2017), after reviewing 517 publications relating to sport and tourism between 1933-2014, evidenced the five conceptual elements or dimensions central to definitions of sport tourism considered for about twenty years: sport as motivation to travel, time, space, participation experience and reference to an economic market. According to them, these dimensions require further analysis and epistemological clarification.

Even if the two areas, sports and tourism, are developed autonomously, both of them went through an organized progress and created their own values, although with overlapping areas. As stated by Pigeassou (2004), sport tourism is an economic and social activity at the intersection of sport and tourism. According to this author, sport tourism constitutes “a human experiment which is focusing on a set of services necessary for the realization of nonprofessional temporary journeys towards specific destinations to experience sport culture” (Pigeassou, 2004, p. 287).

In Pigeassou’s study, it is also mentioned that this is a market segment with a strong evolution in recent decades. However, this term appeared as a type of tourism economic activity before it was considered a sport cultural experience. This author also establishes a link between sport tourism resulting from two variables, space and time, which cannot be avoided and defends that this concept is the result of destination and decision-making process based on choice motivation.

Moreover Pigeassou, Bui-Xuan and Gleyse (2003) have stated the importance of answering three questions on this subject. The first question is related to the limits

defining the sport tourism domain; the second question is associated with the nature of the relationship between sport tourism and the other activities connected with either sport or tourism; the third question is connected to the analysis of the various processes and mechanisms from a broader economic and sociologic perspective up to the evolution characterized by innovation occurring in this domain.

Hinch and Higham (2001, p. 49) have, by their turn, adopted the following definition of sport tourism: a “sport-based travel away from the home environment for a limited time, where sport is characterized by unique rule sets, competition related to physical prowess, and a playful nature”. For Hall (1992), sport tourism is basically divided into two categories: travelling to participate in sport activities and to watch sport activities.

Yet, in terms of the definition of sport tourism, Standeven and De Knop (1999) understand sport tourism as all forms of active or passive involvement in sport activities, with a casual or organized participation for non-commercial or business/commercial reasons, involving travelling outside the place of residence or work. For these authors, the active sport tourist may get involved in holiday sport activities, with non-programmed sport activities, or a sport activity holiday, in which the sport is the major purpose. Additionally, sport tourists can also be classified as passive or active tourists, who can either be connoisseurs (who deliberately attend an event to watch it) and casual observers (having a low level of involvement) as seen in Figure 3.

A model for “Recreational Sport Tourism Events’ Experience”
- A participant’s perspective -

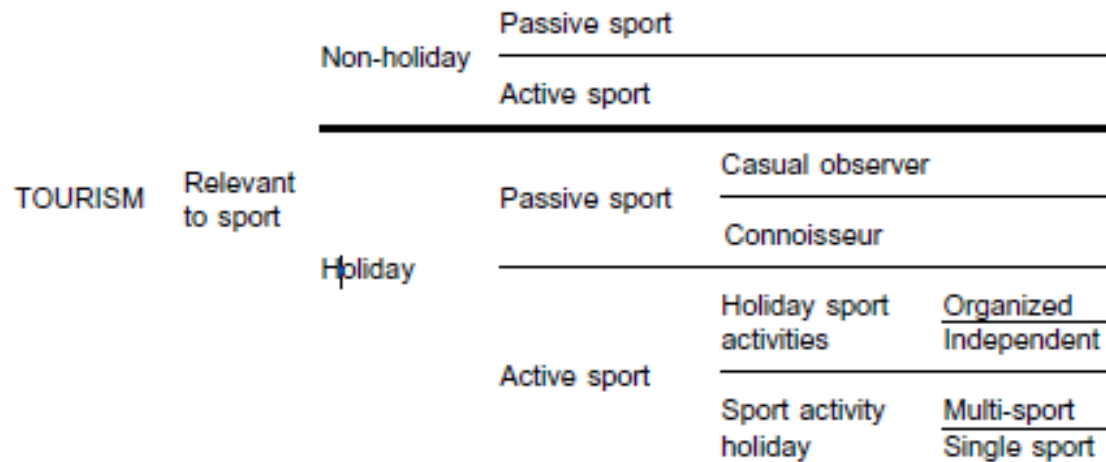


Figure 3 – Standeven and De Knop’s (1999) “forms of sport tourism”

Source: Weed and Bull (2004)

It is also important to note that the concept of sport tourism is always associated with a leisure component, in which sport practice within tourism allows the individual to have a different state of mind, thereby dedicating some of his/her time to different activities from those undertaken every day. Effectively, we have been watching an increase in the practice of sports of an entertaining nature, with recreational programmes as opposed to the former models applied until the mid-20th century, with the sole final purpose of competition. In modern societies, the connection between physical activity and leisure is very close. Thus, a virtuous combination can be observed between body culture and pleasure through the development of these leisure activities in open spaces.

According to Gammon and Robinson (1997, pp. 16-17) there is a difference between sport tourism and tourism sport:

- Sport tourism encompasses “individuals and/or groups of people who actively or passively participate in competitive or recreational sport, whilst travelling to and/or staying in places outside their usual environment”. For these authors, the deciding criteria concerning this statement are such that “sport is the prime motivation to travel, though the touristic element may act to reinforce the overall experience”.

- In terms of tourism sport, the definition is that “this comprises of persons travelling to and/or staying in places outside their usual environment and participating in, actively or passively, a competitive or recreational sport as a secondary activity. The holiday or visit being their prime motivational reason for travel. Tourism sports has been virtually ignored in the literature yet comprises a very important aspect of tourism and sport”.

The definition of Gammon and Robinson (1997) is very important in this work, considering that these authors provided their definition based on a motivational approach – according to the tourist and his/her motivations for this type of tourism – an where sport may, or might not, be the primary motivation to travel. They sought to promote the consumer’s understanding of sport tourism, creating references for the different services related to this type of tourism and experiences each tourist might have.

For Hinch and Higham (2001) tourism and sport are interconnected in a way that allow a new domain, sport tourism, which may be divided into three dimensions: sport, time and space.

It is particularly interesting to note three aspects of these authors’ work:

- First, different ways to compete may alter sportspeople’s perception regarding the place, just as their performance may influence that perception. The ludic nature of sport, with its uncertainty of results, exhibition and sobriety can also contribute to altering the participant’s perception.

- Second, the duration of stay and seasonality are essential to define the economic impact. Sport, as well as tourism, are seasonal in most tourist destinations, and may be countered with globalization, technology, and the change in the development pattern of tourism sustainability.

- Finally, location facilities are essential for the levels of sportspersons and spectators as well as to support equipment and teams. Local studies show that the size of the event and the activity impacts the destination. Also, the type of sport may also depend on the location’s natural resources.

Although the literature presents many different definitions, Gibson (1998, p. 49) – who is highly quoted and has many studies in this area – mentions sport tourism as a “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”. With this classification, sport tourism allows three types to be covered:

- Nostalgia sport tourism – concerning to travelling related to sports attractions (stadiums, museums, etc.).
- Active sport tourism – in which tourists want to participate in sports events which can assume a wide variety of categories such as golf, tennis, fishing, ski, surfing, running, etc. It is possible to have yet another subdivision: active participants and hobbyists. The first group is composed by amateurs, travelling to take part in competitions of their chosen sport, while the second group plays their sport as a mere form of leisure.
- Event sport tourism – this is regarded as remarkable events, such as the Olympic Games or the Football World Cup. The development of mega-events was a product that had a major influence on the growth of sports and tourism in the twentieth century. It is possible to consider people who travel intentionally to watch such an event or those who are in the area for a completely different reason and end up knowing about it and are curious to watch it.

Gibson (1998) often mentions that this segment experienced a significant growth in terms of academic studies and in terms of tourism products. However, this growth dimension is not consensual and made it difficult for academics to reach a consensual definition of the concept. Consequently, many discrepancies occurred when comparing different authors’ visions on this subject. Therefore, several questions have been raised around this issue, such as: what is the name of this type of tourism? Is it sport tourism, tourism sport or sports tourism? When did academics first start writing about tourism related to sport? These questions taken from Gibson’s (1998) literature review clearly show that a more thorough research on this matter was necessary. Later, Kurtzman (2005) would define sport tourism as the usage of sports to reach tourism endeavours and sets five categories:

- Sports Tourism Events;
- Sports Tourism Attractions;
- Sport Tourism Tours;
- Sport Resorts;
- Sport Cruises.

Concerning this topic, Weed (2006) would then mention that the subjects *sport tourism* and *event sport tourism* were far from being homogeneous phenomena. Recently, in Weed’s (2014) reflections about the major issues after 20 years of sport tourism research, this author summarizes all the written contributions on sport tourism throughout the past two decades and highlights three major issues using the following three big questions:

- Which is the state of the art on the subject?
- What do we still have to research?
- And what can we still contribute as regard to research?

Today there are still questions about how to deal with this issue, as addressed by Grabowska (2016) in his article about sport tourism, regarding the debate and controversies over the terminological discussion. In fact, this subject is far from being concluded.

Within this debate, there is the need for a particular evaluation of the situation concerning the current research. It is important to highlight that within the same expression, several terminologies are included: sport tourism; event sport tourism; active sport tourism. Often, they appear presented separately, depending on the authors who present them. After reading each author’s ideas and reflecting on which may be the best application – sport(s), tourism and event(s) – the most suitable and selected for the present work is considered to be *sport tourism events*.

This segment’s growth – sport tourism events – in economic terms, considering both the number of participants and the number of spectators, triggered several different studies with the purpose of pursuing the best strategies to adjust the product to the offer. This interest is not limited to the sport and tourism 'industries', but clearly includes all

published academic articles. In these tourism segments, Gammon and Robinson (2003) tried to explain the large interest based on five factors:

- a) the huge popularity of national and international sports events;
- b) the higher awareness of the benefits connected to active participation in sports activities;
- c) the higher recognition of the value of sport by government authorities, regarding both the economy and destination image;
- d) a concern with establishing a wider annual sport events plan for spectators and participants;
- e) the enthusiasm of the sport interest of the citizens due to new technologies, which allow swifter and broader communication.

According to Harris and Wise (2017, p. 193) “much work has addressed sport tourism or event tourism, but it is also important to acknowledge how sporting events, which are often the basis of much regeneration led initiatives and strategies, are in effect also part of wider tourism development”. This need to permanently update this concept and its evolution runs still today due to the complexity of this phenomenon, which integrates new practices and tourism forms. As will be mentioned later, this study will proceed based on Gibson’s definition of active sport tourism, as this is closer to what is intended to prove.

2.3. History

This study develops the issue of sport tourism events, considering the importance of this topic and highlighting the relevance of participants’ opinions and their own experience.

This section shows the ancestral importance of sports tourism. Sport tourism events are complex phenomena, with multiple interacting interests, such as political, economic and social, and have increasing relevance in our society. Getz and Page (2015) show the importance of this kind of events highlighting a review article by

Alexandris and Kaplanidou (2014), expressing that sport tourism is one of the fastest growing forms of special tourism internationally, and add that the pertinent literature on sport event tourism has certainly been expanding at a fast pace.

Going back to ancient times, as Bhatia (2002) states, historically it is possible to assert that man has travelled since the Palaeolithic. Although for survival reasons, at that time these voyages were motivated by a permanent search for food. Travelling has always fascinated men, even though making a journey in the past was not exactly and necessarily for pleasure. The wheel was invented ca. 3500 BC, and later, with the usage of currency, a new era of travelling was born; this became a synonym for commercial transactions, opening new nations and markets and was facilitated by the building of roads. In the past travelling implied no formalities, although only the idle rich could afford it. Typically, travellers were traders, pilgrims or academics with highly relevant roles which required them to take their journey.

The Romans were considered the first people to travel for pleasure, which originated from the appeal of leisure activities including sport. They would travel even during periods regarded as vacation periods, during the Olympic Games, considered the major sports events in ancient history and constituting by themselves an attraction causing the displacement of several populations to Olympia to watch it. According to Pereira (2007), the aforementioned situation resulted in a connection between sport and tourism. With the end of the Roman Empire there was a strong decline in travelling and its connection to pleasure which was only recovered in the mid-20th century, by which time engaging in physical activity had become as important as the pleasure of displaying a well-shaped body. Besides this reason, Pigeassou, Bui-Xuan and Gleyse (2003) noted some other additional associated reasons:

- Sport motivations across all segments of the population.
- The fact that people of all ages and social classes started to attend sporting events and to practise a wide range of activities (for example, tennis and golf, among many others). It is also relevant to notice the role of travellers who can take a passive attitude when they simply watch an event or an active attitude when they participate in sporting activities.

The concept of modern tourism appeared during the second half of the 19th century, with the development of industrial societies in Western Europe and North America. In the modern age, the ancient Olympic Games were recreated only in 1886, and today this is one of the largest sports events in the world.

It is important to note that until the 20th century, travelling was harsh due to various restrictions and limitations associated with mobility, especially due to transportation, which limited the chosen distance and destination. At that time, populations concentrated around urban centres and developed cities, which caused more limitations as regards accommodations and services. Finally, there was not much time to enjoy vacations. Shorter working weeks, vacations and holidays contributed to more accessible voyages for everybody.

According to Bathia (1983), tourism and the desire to travel evolved together with industrial, political and social developments. For this author, only by the end of the nineteenth century did working-class people feel the desire to enjoy holidays. He also says that by the year 1939, in the UK, some eleven million people were covered for holidays with the Pay Act (1938).

The first link between tourism and sport appeared in England with McIntosh (1963), who enhanced the importance of the introduction of paid vacations and free weekends, thus creating conditions which allowed a lot of people to enjoy a set of sports practices to which they could not have access before.

According to Standeven (1994), the first references made to the relationship between sport and tourism date back to 1827. This author also systematizes the reasons behind the interconnection of these two areas, which currently are expressed in the following terms:

- The popularity of large-scale events with worldwide projection and major economic impact.
- The new wave of awareness regarding the benefits of practising a physical activity associated with health.
- The search for new active touristic packages and new experiences.

- The need for proximity and contact with nature, due to the current increasingly sedentary lifestyle.
- And finally, the fall of geographical barriers opening access to all means of transportation.

However, for Zauher (2003) the ancient Greeks had already addressed sports and travelling considered as a theme. Nonetheless, this author also states that for most academics, this is a relatively modern concept as regards their studies.

It is also notable that the practice of sports is assumed to be an expanding phenomenon. Pigeassou, Bui-Xuan and Gleyse (2003) state that the connection between tourism and winter sports in the Alps was established in the 19th century, but the expression ‘sport tourism’ only arose in France in the 1970s.

The increase in publications on this subject on the second half of the 20th century followed the demand for physical exercise during leisure periods to escape the sedentary lifestyle and the growth of the sports phenomenon, which led to the operationalization of all its practice, thereby promoting sports events as a new lifestyle.

Major sports events gather spectators, practitioners and delegations travelling to a specific country and creating the need to build logistics for that short period. These events had a positive impact on the future of the destination by giving it a whole new type of infrastructures and projection.

As Weed and Bull (2004) pointed out, the tourism industry can contribute to the evolution of local sport facilities or even create the opportunity to build them. So, there is a synergy between tourism and sport because a lot of sport activities take place during holidays.

The type of study conducted at sports events during the ’70s presented a quantitative methodological research heavily focused on economic issues and the consequent boost to tourism. Today, given the number of existing events of a considerably smaller scale, the concern focused on quality, starting with the pre-event study that allows its benefits and participants’ satisfaction to be maximized. This academic trend was started in a paper by Ritchie (1984), who mentioned six positive

and negative types of impacts which should be analysed in a sports event: economic, touristic/business, physical, social-cultural, psychological and political.

A study carried out by Pereira, Mascarenhas and Pires (2012) notes that the impacts of events have, over the years, been addressed according to different perspectives in the literature, among which the more significant stand out:

- Conceptual frameworks, to understand and assess the events’ impacts.
- Assessment of the events’ impacts at an economic, physical, social, level, as well as on destination image, etc.
- Period of the impacts (pre-event, during or after); organizational perspectives and influence on the events impacts.
- Also in the scope of equity of event-related benefits.

Chalip (2004) highlighted that sports events during the ’90s concentrated on *sport and tourism*. However, Getz (1998) noted that this kind of events represent a major component of tourism events. According to Shifflet and Bhatia (1999), the tourism events industry is the element with the highest growth rate in the leisure trips market. While trying to separate sport tourism from events, Getz (1998) faced some difficulties in his research, although one can declare that sport tourism events are only a part of sport tourism; as Weed (2006) stated, sport event tourism is an essential part of sport tourism.

Although these records are not recent, there is still some difficulty in answering all questions related to these activities, considering that it involves a considerable number of subjects which deserve a more careful look. According to Gibson (1998), this study field still lacks sufficient definition and needs to be treated with more scientific accuracy.

Hinch and Higham’s (2001, p. 49) definition states “sport-based travel away from the home environment for a limited time, where sport is characterized by unique rule sets, competition related to physical prowess, and a playful nature”, and later, in 2005, these authors also mentioned that many events of this type are focused on the recreational and cultural component and this component is after all more significant in

economic and social terms than the competitive element. This issue will be addressed more thoroughly in Chapter 4, on the experience of recreational sport tourism events.

Deery, Jago and Fredline (2004, p. 244) claim that, due to rising interest in this subject and its complexity, sport tourism and tourism events might have the same meaning. They also argued that “sport tourism is sport event tourism and that it is focused on competitive sport, such as football, athletics, and orienteering rather than recreational activities, such as bush walking, and scuba diving”. These authors’ model for sport tourism covers six interconnected, somewhat related, themes: tourism, sport, tourism events, sport tourism, tourist attractions and finally recreational tourism.

As previously mentioned, during the 1960s and until the early 1980s, new trends appeared concerning leisure and holidays. The concepts for activity and pleasure started to have greater weight and people started to take part and actively enjoy their vacations; thereby sport practice on vacation became common. During this period and until the ’80s, hiking or running, swimming, and sailing or tennis were the most popular activities. In the ’90s it was already noticeable that the benefits of the connection between sport and tourism were mutual, and tourists started to look for sports-oriented programmes. Effectively, sport started to be practised in a tourism context, and this caused the appearance of the sport tourism concept proposed by Hinch and Higham (2004). Thus, sport started to be used as a way to generate and maintain forms of tourism.

According to Geffroy (2017), the rise of the sport universe started in the last quarter of the 20th century with the creation of a multiplicity of new sport disciplines, most of them outdoors, and bringing significant changes or innovations in the more traditional ones. There was a new emphasis on fun, sensations, nature and style, with sports based on the act of gliding through or riding on a natural element – mainly water, air or snow – or an artificial surface.

2.4. Some Complementary Notes

These days, tourists view sports practice as associated with a diversity of experiences, which are the base for the creation of a new touristic product, i.e. sport tourism events. Gibson (2017, p. 156) states: “with the recent focus on well-being and quality of life linked to experience, I argue once again, leisure scholars have been contributing to our understanding in these domains since the genesis of the field and still have much to offer”. And the author also added “I will once again return to champion leisure studies as providing us with a wealth of knowledge to understand experience-related issues in sport tourism work; leisure also has much to offer events research as well”.

When the tourist chooses his/her vacations destination, he/she often looks for information on the sport infrastructures of specific accommodation in order to be able to practise his/her favourite sport during that period. It may even be important that this accommodation offers better or different conditions as compared to those regularly used so that the tourist may experience new results.

According to Pigeassou (2004), sport tourism is a developing segment in the tourism industry, offering the tourist many different ways to practise a sport and contributing beyond any doubt to the selection of the destination, that is, one might declare that sport develops the construction of tourism infrastructures dedicated to sporting activities. Currently, the tourist is on the move, catches a plane and visits another country to participate in a race or any other sport event to have an experience built only for himself. Actually, the activities he/she develops allow the experience of different possibilities and the discovery of new horizons, and it is common to combine the sporting side with the travel or vacation destination.

There was a tourism paradigm corresponding to the idea of an inactive tourist, whose goals were to rest, relax and get away from the world. Meanwhile, new needs arose and the idea of active tourists emerged, aiming mostly at gaining an experience with strong, unique moments from the travel context, which might become an escape for the rest of the time. The active sport tourism market is additionally starting to be

affected by transformations in conventional society, associated with a larger intervention of the older female population in sporting activities.

According to Aspás (2000), active tourism is the tourism practised in contact with nature, mandatorily requiring the active involvement of the tourist in sports which require a special morphology and physical environment, such as mountains, rivers, or coast suitable for those sports.

2.5. Some Introductory Considerations for Portugal on Sport Tourism Events

With regards to Portugal, there are still no studies applied to this area due to the minor interests in sports other than football, in general terms. For many years football was the only sport that raised both fans and return on investment.

However, the efforts towards initiating internally the practice/attendance of other types of sports events and investing in other types of infrastructures allow the tourist to also enjoy different options while visiting the country and meets his/her wishes in some way to access sport activities. According to Page (2003), sport tourism is beginning to be considered as a major growing area within the tourism “industry”.

Some empirical studies on the existing number of sport tourism events in Portugal suggest that there is still a lot to be done and there is even some difficulty in classifying these events, because it is easy to set the field of study on sport events, but it is more complicated when it comes to understanding whether these sport events might be considered as tourism or not.

Often, these events are not communicated abroad, except for specific cases such as the *S. Silvestre* race in Lisbon, in its ninth edition. Some participants had to be rejected by the organization, which may prove that a good communication policy may be the key for an event’s success. In most events’ organizations, communication often lacks investment capacity and as a result there are not enough participants, who may not even know about the existence of these events in Portugal.

Most competition sport events involving several countries in which promotion is oriented to attract spectators and not to attract participants, with very good results. Examples such as marathons, the final of the Football Champions League, Euro 2004, the Ocean Volvo Race, Surf Championship events, the Rally of Portugal, Dakar, IronMan 70.3 and many other events either taking place entirely in Portugal or just a single stage of the route, are good examples of Portugal’s outstanding organizational capacity. Furthermore, it must be stated that Portugal has excellent natural conditions for sports, i.e., a large coastline extension and a widely diversified territory, allowing a considerable number of different sports events to be held all year round. According to Hinch and Higham (2004), the experiential value of these sports events depends widely on the landscape and weather conditions where they take place.

Staging a sport event including proper media coverage provides the city/country with the opportunity to project its image abroad and in the future it allows an assessment of the upstream and downstream event perception concerning a specific destination. According to Chalip (2004), it is not enough to host an event to feel the expected impact: it is necessary to previously set a plan with lines of action oriented to meeting the opportunities raised by the sport events; this plan must be built on a study based on a strategic vision, allowing the future benefits for the destiny to be perceived and optimized, considering investments made.

Having such conditions, Lisbon applied to become the 2021 European Capital of Sport, not only to show the world Portugal’s ability but especially to internally promote sporting activities as a way to improve the population’s physical and mental condition. As discussed by the mayor of Lisbon, Fernando Medina, in the official application in 2016, it is the programme until the year 2021 to expand access to sport activities. He also said that the municipality intends to duplicate recreational sporting activities and promote sport instead of competition.

In November 2017, Lisbon was chosen as European Capital of Sport 2021 by the Evaluation Commission, and the effort to raise awareness of physical activities, especially outdoor activities, and also the improvement of sport fittings for the population, is notable. This type of events is a major opportunity to requalify sports infrastructures, thereby also improving the space’s image, allowing long-term benefits

that attract more tourists. Last but not least is the sense of belonging, which contributes to citizens’ identification with their country or city.

Planning sport tourism, and specifically an event, starts with the installation of the sport facilities (either permanent or transient) and the necessary infrastructures to attract and accommodate participants, visitors, and sport staff from other places, as well as to include local users. Considering sport tourism planning, attention is required not only to the physical infrastructures, but also to social and environmental objectives, as described by Hall (2005). The economic relevance of tourism associated with sporting activities has influenced policies and strategies of cities and regions who want to attract visitors through sport. The economic impact of sport tourism is mentioned by several authors, such as Chalip (2004) and Higham (2005), basically within large sport events, considering everything involved. In addition, by compelling a high initial investment, the final results are also very significant.

In the document “Turismo 2020 – plano de ação para o desenvolvimento do turismo em Portugal”, drafted by the Tourism Institute of Portugal (2015), the sub-heading *five principles for one ambition* envisages development projects aiming at the promotion of Portugal. These principles also include the implementation of events leading to international projection through a schedule of national sport and leisure animation initiatives, thereby contributing to destination value and strengthening the hallmark and visibility of Portugal.

According to Yoshida, James and Cronin (2013), innovation in sport events positively impacts the visitor’s satisfaction and brand value, and these sport events affect the visitor’s behaviour. Satisfaction and brand value bridge sports events innovation and visitor behaviour. Thus, event organizers have the opportunity to raise the visitor satisfaction by being innovative and expecting a positive performance in the long run. It should be noted that there are also many negative impacts, which should be assessed to understand if it is possible to reduce or prevent them.

Scientific studies made on sport tourism events nationwide in Portugal are quite scarce and there is no formal authority assuring comparable statistics on this type of events. All the existing sports federations would have to be contacted in order to obtain

figures by type of sport and even these figures are not specifically targeted for tourism events.

There is a study on sport events in Lisbon made by the City Council in 2015. From the few available figures provided by this study, it is known that major sport events held in Lisbon from September 2014 to August 2015 had an economic impact between 93 and 103 million euros. Of that total, over 33 million euros is related to expenditures made directly in the city by athletes, managers, technical people and viewers. Hence this study shows that sport events generate added value within the local economy. In fact, as stated by Wafi, Chiu and Kayat (2017), sport events have an important impact in the destination. The destination benefits economically from the organization of an event that attracts visitors.

An undeniable truth is that Portugal has natural resources for a wide range of activities. Other than beaches and feasible sports allowed, it stands out for its quality for the practice of several types of sports as well as the weather conditions which allow the completion of events all year round, which is not easy in most countries. The research on sport tourism events has already reached a certain stage of maturity, and has undergone several marks on evolutions, but there is still a lot to be developed within this theme.

For this reason, a decision was made to gather data at this empirical stage of the study in order to be able to compare results, although on a minimal scale, reaching some conclusions for three specific sport events in Portugal. Also, another study was conducted to perceive the participants’ experience in recreational sport tourism events in this country.

A model for “Recreational Sport Tourism Events’ Experience”
- A participant’s perspective -

3. Participants’ Motivations

3.1. General Considerations

Motivation can be defined as a set of factors which lead to stimulus and development of interest. This motivation is positive if it leads to action and negative if, on the contrary, it inhibits action. It is important to know how these motivations lead people to decide to make a specific trip that meets their preferences – how motivation allows different products to be created and anticipates the offer to exceed expectations.

This word “motivation” originates from the Latin “*movere*”, which means precisely “to act”. According to Dann (1981), tourism motivation defines an individual’s mental disposition to travel, since the moment of the search for that wish, which is experienced as a need. Crompton (1979, p. 413) states that the motivation to travel is “aligned along a continuum as being either primarily socio-psychological or cultural”. The motivational model tends to explain the behaviour’s origin and orientation. It involves a choice between several options to reach a specific purpose. In this case there is an expectation towards the final result. Therefore, the main activation capability for consumption is established through the condition that the individual finds in himself. This subject, tourism motivation, is a starting point required for those who want to understand tourists’ behaviour, their preferences for different activities and what is included in each activity. According to Dann (1981), tourism motivation is a significant state of mind which adequately leads an actor or a group of actors to travel.

Considering the current trends in demand, sports tourism appears as a high potential activity, as mentioned above, but it has become necessary to find a gap in the extensive literary production, in which the research guidelines are still somewhat fuzzy. Following the literature review, it was obvious that the most researched motivations focused mainly on fans and competitors, giving rise to the purpose of further studying recreational participants and their motivations, which is a growing segment. This type of participants chooses one sport event among many, as the offer is always growing at a high pace. Thus, organizations need to take more time to understand the tourists’ motivations to take part of one competition instead of another. So, it is important that

companies try to meet the new demands from this type of clients, through the implementation of services with diversified and differentiating offers. This situation must also result from a strategic partnership with other players in the tourism sector in order to create more complete packages. Funk, Tennille and Bruun (2006) studied the driving socio-psychological and culture-education motives in international sport tourism and analysed the importance, for tourism and sports managers, of understanding the individual motivations to attend this type of events and the intended experiences.

In Portugal, government intervention through the National Tourism Strategic Plan – *Plano Estratégico Nacional do Turismo* (PENT) – fulfils Portugal’s position to secure the projected organization of international events, thereby reinforcing the effort to design strategic products that might satisfy tourists’ demand when choosing a tourism destination.

Tourism motivation is an ongoing process together with the intervention of several areas, such as psychology, sociology, or even marketing in order to try to understand the preferences in the decision-making process of the trip. Palrão and Filipe (2016) highlight the importance of motivation by explaining that, when clarifying motivations, a more direct knowledge about this subject may be acquired in order to be applied in the development of touristic offers. Aicher and Brenner (2015) focus on what drives individuals to engage in sport tourism, and state that Gibson (2004) calls for the implementation of theories from other disciplines, such as sociology or psychology, to develop the study of sports tourism itself. Dann (1981) had already stressed this idea when explaining the lack of consensus over the definition at that time, which it was considered should be attributed to the multidisciplinary of treatment and plurality of theoretical perspectives within a given discipline.

Many studies on tourism motivation focus on the chosen image and destination. Often, these studies on sport tourism motivation are adaptations of plain motivational models to tourism and sport, models which most often describe a sport tourist profile according to a specific sport. Funk (2008) saw sport consumption behaviour as a process in which individuals elect, acquire and use products and services related to sport to satisfy their needs. Although this study was not initially focused on sports tourists’ motivations, the study intends to contribute to the understanding of the effective major

motivations for tourists arriving in Portugal to participate in recreational sport tourism events, in order to satisfy their needs, based on the sports tourism participation model

The cornerstone of this study was set as recreational sport tourism events, which was supported by Gibson (1998), who considers sport tourism as divided into Active sport tourism, Event sport tourism, and Nostalgic sport tourism. However, the motivational factor of each category is not included there. Further, Gibson, Willming and Holdnak (2003) state that these categories are not mutually exclusive, and one must seek the multiple motivations connected to each one.

Taking the concept of active sport tourism and motivation in the context of sport events and of this work, the intended relationship from the beginning is motivation associated with the experience resulting from the constructs “Activity”, “People” and “Place”, considering the Weed and Bull’s (2004) model. Thus, the intention is also to understand which among all these constructs is the most influential in the experience of taking part in recreational sport tourism events. Further, the objective includes the identification of sports tourists’ participation profiles in different activities.

Some authors have researched the experience resulting from the participation in sport tourism events focusing on the understanding of the participant’s motivations. Hinch and Higham (2001) consider that sportsmen might perceive sports tourism, with its three dimensions – sport, time and space – differently, considering their motivations and needs. In the qualitative survey by Kaplanidou and Vogt (2010), it is evident that the participant experience in a small sports event evolves around organizational and environmental aspects, as well as physical, social and emotional activities. Bigné, Font and Andreu (2000) studied the existing relation between the image of the destination, the quality and the satisfaction and Gammon and Robinson (2003) suggest a classification of sport tourism through a motivational approach (consumer motivation approach), distinguishing sport tourism (primary motives) from tourism sport (secondary motives). These authors, using their classification referred to previously, divided tourists’ motivations within sport tourism into “hard” and “soft”, depending on whether they are competitive or recreational sports, thus contributing to describing motivations and experiences of sports tourists.

Later, Robinson and Gammon (2011, p. 69) categorized the sport tourism consumer based upon primary and secondary motives, linked to competitiveness, recreation, activity and passivity. They stated clearly, however, that at this point a wider and more in-depth study about their respective interactions was still necessary: “research now [2011] needs to focus more on these categories to examine further the motives of the sport tourist and to assess in more general terms the utility of the framework”.

Several authors approached the motivation and sport practice themes. Sato, Jordan and Funk (2014), for instance, declare that various motives and positive experiences through activities such as training for the event and event participation may influence participants’ level of physical activity by satisfying their leisure needs. Also, Kirkup and Sutherland (2015) address the relationship between motivation and attachment by creating a preliminary theoretical model which clarifies which motives impact which points of attachment, thus eventually creating a positive attitudinal loyalty in a sport event context.

However, there are still some difficulties in classifying and dividing between active and passive participation. For Ko et al. (2016), there is a limited understanding of the extent to which watching sport events is associated with active sport participation, or vice versa. Koronios, Psiloutsikou and Kriemadis (2017) say that research proceeds until the present day to determine the importance of factors motivating individuals to participate in mass sporting and physical activity events.

Homburg and Giering (2001) add some other factors related to the motivation to participate in recreational sport tourism events which are connected to gender and age category. The key benefit of incorporating demographics into customer relationship programmes is that those factors are relatively easy for practitioners to measure and handle. With regard specifically to gender, Hargreaves (1994) stated that female-oriented sporting activities were first organized in the 19th century and history has demonstrated that, despite the growing participation of women, there is still a struggle against gender stereotyping and structural and organizational barriers. This struggle, according to Messner (1988), is mainly due to the media’s framing of male and female athletes. According to Gibson (2004), in general there are fewer women participating in

sport and physical activity as compared to men. This can be explained by the biological differences as stated by Mansfield (2007, p. 117): “the focus on differences between males and females generally supported traditional claims about the biological inferiority of females and the legitimacy of efforts to control women’s sports participation”. Chang (2016) examines gender differences in leisure involvement and flow experience in extreme sport participation and states that the results establish a positive relationship and a significant mediating effect.

Very recently, Gibson and Mirehie (2018, p. 684) mention the persistence of a gender gap in sport tourism: “yet, apart from a few exceptions [...] a focus on gender or advocating for feminist analysis of sport tourism was again largely absent from this debate”.

Some authors established a connection between gender and age, such as Hargreaves (1990) who asserted that gender and ‘race’ are not isolated structures of difference, but age, class, and disability intersect and overlap with it. Concerning age category, Rudman (1986, p. 453) declared that “the relationship between age and sport participation is well identified”. An existing preference of participants also supports this relationship according to the age category and physical activity in sports. In this regard, McPherson (1984) stated that active participation in sport and physical activity diminishes with age, especially after adolescence. This is more evident among the less educated, among those with lower incomes, among those who live in rural areas and small towns, among females (especially those married with preschool children), among blue-collar workers, and among those who live in countries where sport and physical activity is not highly valued or promoted.

Daniels and Norman (2003) affirmed that it is important to consider the age group represented at the event. They quoted Turco (1997) on the viability of youth events, considering that events could be chosen based on their diversity in location throughout the state, distinctions in target participant age and the interest and cooperation of event coordinators, thereby stressing the increasing popularity of family vacations motivated by the participation of a family member in a youth sport event.

Gibson (1998, p. 53) countered this view by stating “working with a sample of 617 people of whom 297 were sportlovers – that is, individuals who reported that they stayed physically active engaging in their favorite sports while on vacation – we found that the negative relationship between sport tourism and age was not as other work had suggested (e.g., McPherson, 1984; Rudman, 1986)”. Curtis and White (1984) claimed that while older persons participate less in sport and physical recreation activities, those who do participate report a higher average frequency of involvement per activity. That is, both males and females at older age levels participate in fewer activities than younger people do, but they participate more per activity. Later, Mota and Esculcas (2002) reassess Curtis and White’s work to confirm that older age categories, regardless of gender, still preferred a more selected range of sport activities.

One of the more recent studies on age goes one step further establishing a relationship with the type of activity. According to Hulteen et al. (2016), a consistent pattern of participation in running and walking is reflected by global data for adults. Among all age groups and regions, soccer was popular. Preferences were variable between regions among children and adolescents.

In short, sportsmen experience sport differently. For that reason, the consumer’s behaviour and motivation precede the investigation of consumption in different contexts, considering that each tourist presents distinctive features; this gives rise to a diversified tourism offer in order to make products available which meet tourists’ interests. Motivations differ according to the situation, the individual and the sport. Sloan (1989) classified the motives in four ranks comprising stress reduction, finding entertainment, search for achievement and interaction with others.

Tourism motivation is based on the analysis of behaviour that motivates the individual to leave the place where he/she lives and look in another place for something satisfying, regardless of the basic need originating this motivation.

3.2. Historical Developments on Motivation applied to Tourism

Following the bibliographic review on the evolution of tourist motivation, an essential concept to try to understand is the tourist’s profile, motivations and behaviour; a certain dispersion and theoretical fragmentation on this subject was noted, due to the different existing approaches to the subject.

Studies on tourist motivation had a decisive influence since the theory developed by Maslow (1954). These studies would then influence other authors through their investigation of behaviour and hierarchy of human needs, from the very basic and more important ones (physiological needs) to the more complex (self-accomplishment). This author designates physiological drives to motivation theory. Many physiological needs induce the satisfaction of other needs. The higher the level of the need, the higher are the desires.

Maslow’s paper on motivation suggests that individuals have a set of five levels of needs which are organized in terms of priorities: physiological, safety, social, esteem and personal accomplishment. According to this author, an individual’s mind is set to look for the means to satisfy the need in the corresponding stage. When the more basic need is satisfied, it is replaced by the following in the urgency hierarchy. According to Maslow (1954) the unfulfilled needs allow an explanation of the individual’s behaviour, because it is this dissatisfaction that leads the individual to look for ways to satisfy himself.

Plog (1974) was the first author who wrote a theoretical model of tourist motivation, the psychocentric-allocentric. This author categorized individuals as inhibited (reliable) versus extroverted (adventurous), which allowed him to later describe a new tourist typology for each case. Whereas, on the one hand, psychocentric individuals enjoy familiar destinations, where they can take part in organized activities, combining sun and fun and with large accommodations, allocentric individuals prefer new and different destinations for new experiences, interacting with the local population in good quality hotels. The next figure represents the model according to this author (see Plog, 2001).

A model for “Recreational Sport Tourism Events’ Experience”
- A participant’s perspective -

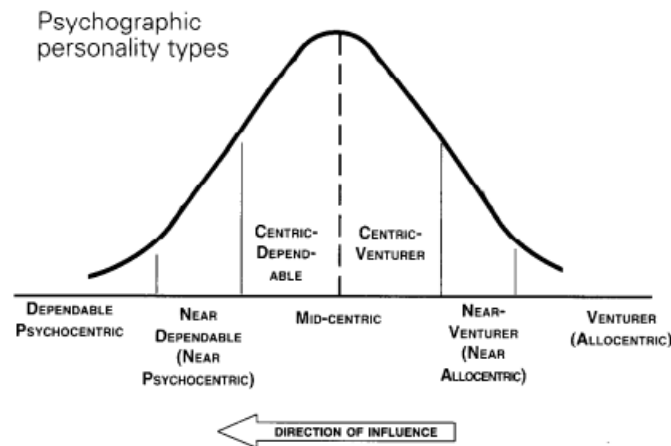


Figure 4 – Psychographic personality types

Source: Plog (2001)

For Iso-Ahola (1982), motivation consists of a duality between evasion and discovery, but always internal to the individual, where individual behaviours are oriented and included. This author defines tourist behaviour as an internal factor which raises, guides and integrates the individual’s behaviour in leisure activities which provide novelty or change in the daily routine and stress reduction. This author mentions an approach to the perception of satisfaction based on two motivational forces which might simultaneously influence tourists’ behaviours, in an article about tourism motivation.

In fact, for Iso-Ahola (1982), the individual’s satisfaction expectancy is linked to two motivational forces: approach (seeking) and avoidance (escape). Tourist motivation might be perceived as a cognitive representation of the advantages resulting from evasion (escape) and discovery (search). The individual turns to escape to break the daily vicious cycle and get away from his/her own problems, both at a personal and interpersonal level. The other motivational force (search) is the need produced by the reward resulting from achieving something and which is applied in leisure and relaxation activities, in this case through leaving the place where we live and travelling to discover a new place to practise relaxation activities by ourselves (personal) or together with other individuals (interpersonal).

Starting from these two dimensions and decomposition in personal and interpersonal aspects, Iso-Ahola (1982) presented a new social-psychological motivation model in tourism, which allows each tourist motivation to be associated to one of four different cells of a 2x2 model: personal evasion; interpersonal evasion; personal search; and interpersonal search, as provided in the following figure.

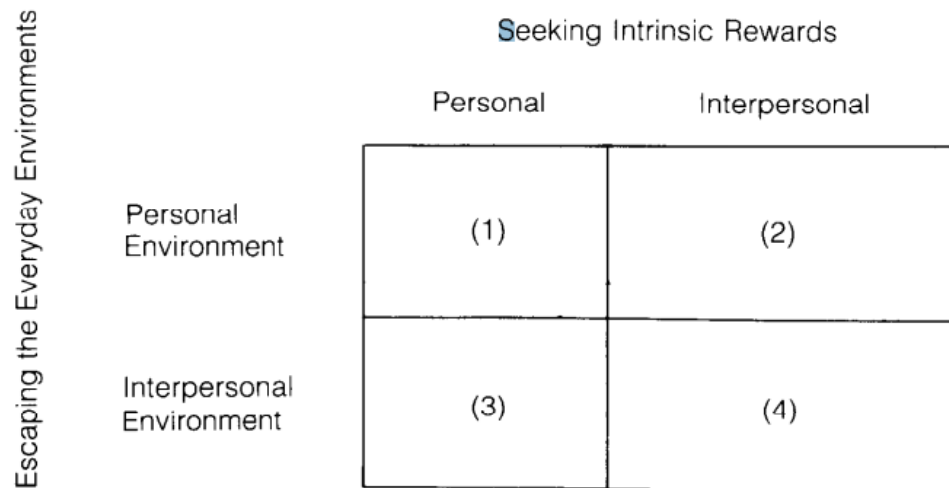


Figure 5 – A Social Psychological Model of tourism motivation

Source: Iso- Ahola (1982)

For Iso-Ahola (1982, p. 260), “the model emphasizes the dialectical character of tourism motivation and demonstrates that it is futile to attempt to categorically separate reasons from benefits”. This author also quotes Murray (1964), stating “a motive is an internal factor that arouses, directs, and integrates a person’s behaviour”.

Crawford and Godbey’s (1987) study provides an innovative proposition at this time. These investigators presented a model categorizing three types of restrictions to leisure (intrapersonal, interpersonal and structural) and showed how these restrictions affect the individuals’ participation and preference. Structural restrictions intervene as intermediate factors between the participation and development of leisure preferences due to, for instance, lack of financial resources, thereby preventing the individual from practising any activity. Interpersonal restrictions comprehend individual psychological features such as depression and stress, which interact with the leisure preferences instead of stepping in between preferences and participation. Finally, intrapersonal

restrictions are the result of the interaction of the relationship between the individual characteristics. This type of obstacles might interfere both in the participation in and preferences for leisure activities.

According to Jackson (2005), this study contributed two relevant items for the leisure restrictions model. The first contribution is associated with the fact that the constraints might affect both participation and preferences, and the second contribution is associated with the development of the restrictions’ variables, which might affect behaviour in leisure, especially structural factors. The figure below illustrates the Crawford and Godbey (1987) model, quoted in 1991 by the authors.

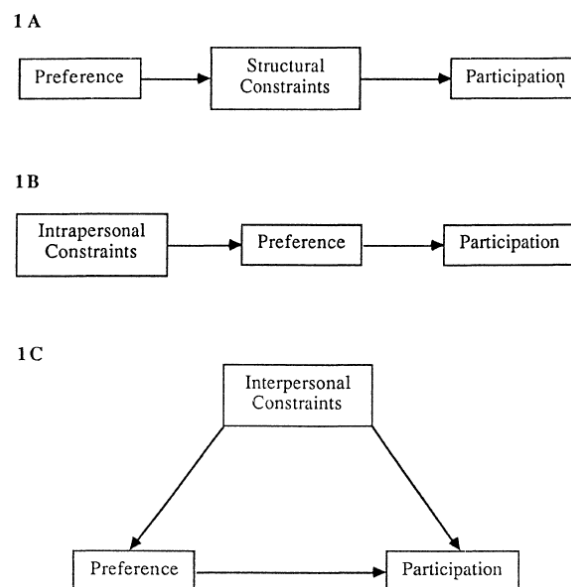


Figure 6 – Crawford and Godbey’s three types of leisure constraints

Source: Crawford, Jackson and Godbey (1991)

Chazaud (2004), with a strong link to the study of sports activities in the nature, groups the motivations for tourism and sports leisure in the nature into six groups:

- The first group enjoys contact with nature, cherishing it and observing the landscape, while defending the environment.
- The second group appreciates having new experiences and a feeling of adventure, defying their capabilities and put them to the test.

- The third group wants to occupy their spare time by interacting with other individuals through social contact and all provided by coexistence.
- In the fourth group, motivation is connected to a medical indication on health grounds, to maintain and/or improve their physical condition or even to relax and interrupt their daily routine.
- In the fifth group, motivation is associated with involvement in a sports competition.
- Finally, in the sixth group, motivation derives from the satisfaction of visiting other destinations, knowing other traditions and cultures, and visiting and protecting heritage.

Self-determination theory (SDT), developed by Deci and Ryan (1985, 2000), was presented to fill a gap in the bibliography, based on understanding the individual’s motivations to take part in sports activities and thereby contributing to a theoretical base in order to provide an approach in which one of the nuclear aspects is the distinction between the different types of motivation.

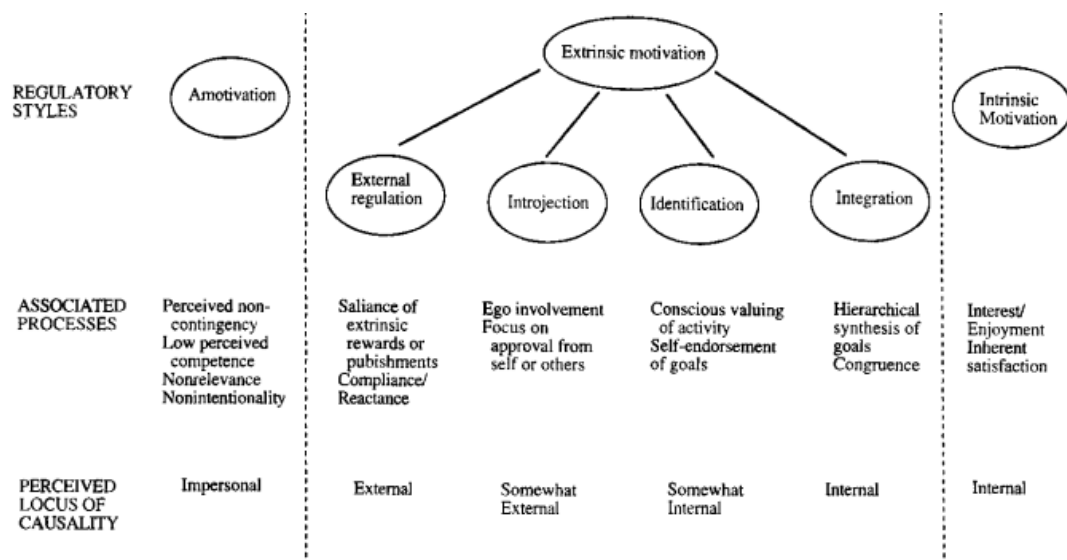


Figure 7 – A taxonomy of human motivation

Source: Deci and Ryan (2000)

According to these authors, three forces are considered as the main pillars in individual motivation: autonomy, competence and relatedness. The main objective of self-determination theory (SDT) focuses on the conditions of the surrounding environment, promoting and inhibiting the self-motivation process. This model refers the organismic integration theory, which is a sub-theory of SDT, presenting different forms of extrinsic motivation. The figure above illustrates the types of motivation:

- Amotivation: Lack of intention to act, absence of intentionality in one’s behaviour (Deci & Ryan, 2000).
- Extrinsic Motivations: engaging in an activity for attaining a separable outcome. Deci and Ryan (2000, pp.61-62) divided this into:
 - External regulation – “such behaviours are performed to satisfy an external demand or obtain an externally imposed reward contingency”.
 - Introjection – “describes a type of internal regulation that is still quite controlling because people perform such actions with the feeling of pressure in order to avoid guilt or anxiety or to attain ego-enhancements or pride”.
 - Identification – “the person has identified with the personal importance of a behaviour and has thus accepted its regulation as his or her own”.
 - Integration – “occurs when identified regulations have been fully assimilated to the self. This occurs through self-examination and bringing new regulations into congruence with one’s other values and needs”.
- Intrinsic motivation: involvement in an action for the sake of it. The authors describe this motivation type as doing an activity for its inherent satisfaction rather than for some separable consequence (Deci & Ryan, 2000).

In a later stage, also from these authors, Deci and Ryan (2008), two new constructions concerning motivation appeared: intrinsic or extrinsic, which led to another classification of motivation, that is, autonomous or controlled. The motives might be intrinsic through personal satisfaction and pleasure resulting from the

involvement in the activities and extrinsic when the motivation to participate encompasses the achieved prizes.

Funk and James (2001) offered another major contribution with the psychological continuum model (PCM), although the analysis is basically centred on the attendants and supporters. This model aims to specify the general parameters to measure the relationship between the individual, the sport and the athlete. The PCM uses a vertical framework to describe several psychological connections related to the individual with sport items to explain the role of attitude creation directing behaviours throughout several activities in sports. Four general thresholds operating throughout a vertical continuous line are conceptualized to profile the different psychological connections eventually formed by the sport attendants and supporters. The figure below represents the “how” and the “why” within sport consumption behaviour and is capable of producing theories based on data and experience.

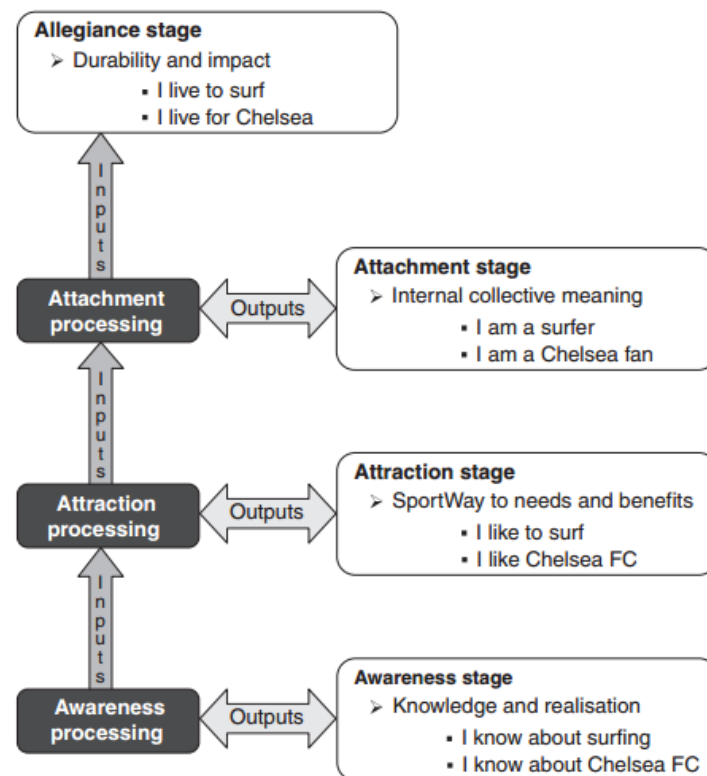


Figure 8 – The psychological continuum model (PCM)

Source: Funk and James (2001)

In the face of all these definitions applicable to tourist motivations, some investigational conflicts are still noticeable in tourists’ behaviours during sports activities. Also, applying most of these theories to the tourist’s motivational domain will not allow all his/her needs to be considered, because some factors apparently contradict individual motivations and the capability to take part in these activities. For Gibson (2004), a strong theory sustaining an explanation on sport tourism motivation had still to be done.

Aicher and Brenner’s (2015) study is about a self-determination theory perspective, and starting from the two dimensions of the SDT – autonomous and controlled – these authors developed six themes that might explain the motives for individual participation in sports tourist events:

- Organizational Motivations;
- Environmental/ Destination Motivation;
- Social/ Group Identity Motivation;
- Competition Motivation;
- Emotional Motivation;
- Learning Motivation.

The following figure shows that some concepts are connected either to control motivation or to autonomy motivation. Only two of them are connected to both. This model aims at explaining which motivations lead a specific tourist to choose a specific event, and this is critical for event planners and the whole community involved.

A model for “Recreational Sport Tourism Events’ Experience”
- A participant’s perspective -

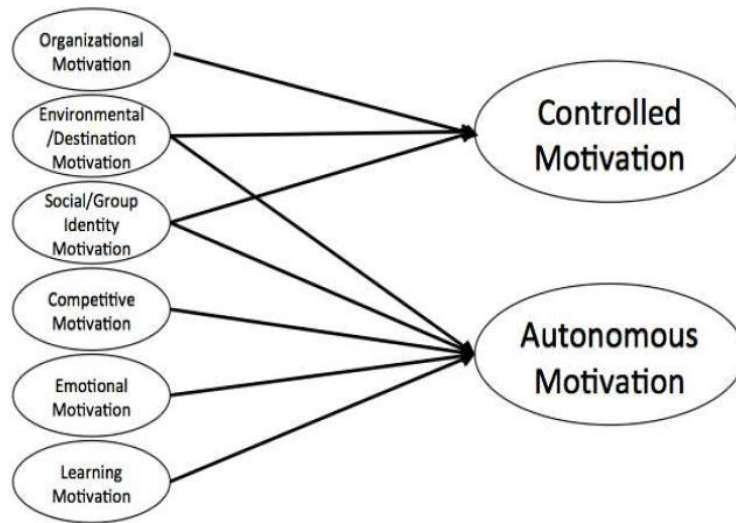


Figure 9 – Conceptual model depicting the relationship between motives to participate in sport tourism and events with controlled and autonomous motivation

Source: Aicher and Brenner (2015)

For Aicher and Brenner (2015), the motivations for sport tourism are just a fraction of the perceived needs of sport tourism, and are included in the process of deciding to buy. As stated by Theodorakis, Kaplanidou and Karabaxoglou (2015, p. 87) “the consumption of sport events through direct participation can influence participants’ perception of happiness with that experiential purchase given the time and resources invested in that experience”. Sato et al. (2016) also claim that their study examines whether experiences related to event and recreational walking might provide opportunities to satisfy individuals’ psychological needs for affiliation, autonomy, detachment, meaning and mastery. By using the constructs of event satisfaction and three facets of leisure involvement – Attraction, Centrality and Self-expression, they try to assess the experience through preparation for and participation in walking events. More recently, Koronios, Psiloutsikou and Kriemadis (2017) stated that physical activity events in a group enhance psychological engagement.

3.3. Push & Pull Model

In tourism, many authors accept the definition taken from the “push-pull” model of factors as the most adequate to explain tourists' motivations from a sociological point

of view when searching for a destination. According to Uysal, Li and Sirakaya-Turk (2008), people are “pushed or pulled” by the forces of motivations and destination attributes to travel or participate in leisure activities.

Both Dann (1977, 1981) and Crompton (1979), as well as other authors, approach this model based on the breaking down of a destination choice into two forces. The first force, “push”, pushes the tourist to leave the house regardless the destination to be chosen. Among the “push” factors to be found in the literature are the wish to escape, relaxation, social interaction, reputation, rest, adventure, and amusement stand out, as well as cultural experience. While planning a trip, the tourist looks for destinations and activities (pull factors). The second, the “pull” force, takes the tourist into a specific destination with the attributes and characteristics viewed as attractive to the individual, that is, as an outside force composed of the destination characteristics exerting an attraction over the visitor and determining his/her choice, and satisfying the “push” desires. These factors are related to the specific characteristics of the destinations, which might have tangible resources, such as beaches, cultural heritage, infrastructures, tourist facilities, among others, or intangible resources, such as perceptions and expectations.

Therefore, the “push” and “pull” factors are essential in tourists' motivation, as they explain and influence their behaviour to travel by satisfying their needs and wishes. Dann (1977) introduced the “push-pull” concept of tourist motivation in tourism research. This author states that this theory suggests that people travel because they are “pushed” by internal forces and “pulled” by external forces. According to this approach, the process to decide to travel takes place at two different moments: first there is the realization of the need (or wish) to travel – manifestation of the “push” factors, and only later is the destination set, under the influence of the “pull” factors.

As described by Dann (1981, p. 207), “travel is focused upon in the description of tourist motivation as that represents the decision upon which others are based. Once the trip has been decided upon, where to go, what to see or what to do (relating to specific destinations) can be tackled. Analytically, and often both logically and temporally, push factors precede pull factors”. Dann (1981) addresses motivation in individual terms, culturally constrained by two intellectual attributions. First, the tourist is conditioned by the environment he/she lives in, facing several needs and types of

pressure that might affect his/her decision on the destination choice. Afterwards, the chosen destination is analysed according to the same needs and pressures. These conclusions drive the author to a social-psychological approach.

This author (Dann, 1981) stressed seven different applications of the tourist motivation manifestation based on the different ways in which various researchers have approached the subject. For instance and firstly, the voyage as an answer to the needs felt by the tourist; secondly, the destination’s “pull” factors following the “push” motivational factors; the third, manifestation is the motivation as a fantasy; the fourth, motivation as an object; the fifth, application concerns motivation typologies; the sixth, motivation and tourist experiences; and finally, the seventh application, motivation as self-definition and significance.

One might consider that motivation arises from a need perceived by the individual, causing an unbalance, whereby he tries to find a way to satisfy this perceived need. By applying this theory to tourism, “push” factors would promote the will to travel in order to resolve the tension caused by the unbalance; “pull” factors would act in the selection process of the characteristics considered attractive to the place in order to settle the tension. Uysal, Li and Sirakaya-Turk (2008) quote Crompton (1979), who pointed out that individuals live in a social-psychological equilibrium, involving cultural, social, and psychological needs. The unbalance of these needs can be a primary motivation for travel. This can occur during a period of routinized and repetitive action, such as at work or in the home environment. The need for change, relaxation, or escape from a perceived mundane environment results in psychological disequilibrium.

Crompton (1979) improved Dann’s 1977 model by perfecting the subjectiveness of the tourist’s wish to feel satisfaction as well as the wish to break routine. This author added a total of nine motives, seven of which are connected to “push” factors, ranked as social-psychological, which are: escaping the usual environment, search and evaluation of the individual himself, relaxing, reputation, regression, strengthening interpersonal relations, facilitating social interaction. The last two remaining motives are related to “pull” factors, novelty and education, which are related to the destination quality. This author also referred that “most discussions of tourist motivation have tended to revolve

around the concepts of “pull” and “push”. The push factors for a vacation are socio-psychological motives. The pull factors are motives aroused by the destination rather than emerging exclusively from within the traveller himself” (Crompton, 1979, p. 410).

Crompton and McKay (1977), mentioned by Cunha et al. (2005), include seven motivational domains in the “push” factors group: novelty as the desire to search and find new and different experiences through recreational trips; socialization as the desire to interact with a group and its members; reputation as the desire to reach a high position before others; relaxation as the desire for mental and psychological renovation and for escape from daily pressure; educational value as the desire to obtain knowledge and expand intellectual horizons; reinforcement of kinship and search for closer family relations; and regression as the desire to retrieve a behaviour reminiscent of childhood, and escape social constraints. As to the “pull” factors, Fakeye and Crompton (1992), quoted by Cunha et al. (2005), identify six domains: social opportunities and attractions; natural and cultural amenities; accommodation and transportation; infrastructure, food, and friendly civilization; physical amenities and recreational activities; and bars and night entertainment.

Uysal, Li and Sirakaya-Turk (2008) presented a table with motivations of pleasure travel and tourism, in which they use “pull” factors related to attributes of a travel destination, and “push” factors which are internal to the individual and deal with tourist motivations.

A model for “Recreational Sport Tourism Events’ Experience”
- A participant’s perspective -

Origin	Destination
Push factors	Pull factors
Motivations	Destination attributes and type of facilities
Escape	Climate
Rest and Relaxation	History sights
Self-esteem	Scenic beauty
Prestige	Sunshine
Health and fitness	Beaches
Adventure	Snow
Social interaction	Cultural events
Benefits	Recreational opportunities
Interests	Benefit expectations
Socioeconomic and demographic factors	Accessibility
Age, gender, income, education, family life-cycle and size, race/ethnic group, occupation, second home ownership	Maintenance factors situational factors (safety, security, seasonality)
Market knowledge	Marketed image
	Formed negative/positive destination images
	Quality of services
	Quality of facilities

Figure 10 – Push and pull framework of tourism motivations

Source: Uysal, Li and Sirakaya-Turk (2008)

Also, it is important to mention that there is usually more than one reason to travel and all the reasons are interconnected among themselves. When an individual decides to go on vacation, he has a series of reasons, conscious and unconscious, but he generally takes one as the main reason. Concerning this subject, Higham (2007, p. 21) mentioned Stewart’s (2001) perspective of sport tourists’ motivation, that is “sport tourists may, to some degree, be motivated by push factors – including escape from everyday life, the search for camaraderie, and to develop friendships and a sense of belonging. Sport tourists may, additionally or alternatively, be motivated by pull factors that include the atmosphere and excitement or competitive sports. Tourist motivations are critical to understanding why people do or do not travel, their choice of destination and various aspects of tourist behaviour”.

3.4. Complementary Notes

Considering the literature review on tourist motivations, it is possible to reach some conclusions on the direction of this study.

Effectively, based on the above paragraphs, it is important to stress some ideas:

- First, there is a significant number of models on tourism motivation developed in the previous years and, despite there being one consensual “push-pull” model, there are some evident conflicts.
- Second, most of these models apply to choosing a destination and not exactly to the tourism activities themselves.
- Finally, there is no model to study motivations according to the specific type of tourist studied.

Following the decision to study the motivations leading to a good experience of recreational sport tourism events, the present analysis was based on the ideas by Gammon and Robinson (2003), who for the first time suggested a classification of sport tourism through a motivational approach (consumer motivation approach), thereby distinguishing sport tourism from tourism sport, as already mentioned. On one hand, sport tourism is about individuals and/or groups of people who actively or passively participate in competitive or recreational sport while travelling, so sport is the prime motivation to travel, although the touristic element may reinforce the overall experience. On the other hand, in tourism sport, tourists travel and participate actively or passively in competitive or recreational sport as a secondary activity. The holiday or visit, rather than the sport, is the prime travel motivation. Considering this first option in terms of sport as the main motivation, the identification of the type of sport participation selected by the tourist proved also to be important.

The discrimination between active participation and passive participation is, therefore, essential and should be taken into consideration. Hall (1992) divides sport tourism into two categories: travel to participate in sport and travel to observe sport. This author also identifies two types of active sport tourism: active participants, engaging in sport as a way to free themselves and the participants with a competitive view of their involvement. Standeven and De Knop (1999) referred to sport tourism as comprehending all forms of active and passive involvement, both casual or organized, either involving professionals or not, entailing a movement outside the usual environment. These authors make a more comprehensive classification concerning sports tourism, thereby stressing several situations: those who travel on holidays

(leisure/recreation) and those who travel for professional or business reasons; active and passive sports tourists; sports active vacations (with the different possible disciplines) and sport activities during vacations (organized and independent); casual attendants and connoisseurs.

According to Hinch and Higham (2001), the sport tourism sector will demand a more in-depth study in the future. To these authors, all the following factors – issues surrounding socio-demographic characteristics, tourist’s behaviour while travelling and its impact on each of these sports tourist groups – can play a fundamental role in creating strategies according to the chosen target group.

Yusof and Douvis (2001) subscribe the studies performed on sports tourist segments and that their specific characteristics are scarce, despite their relevance to strategists on this subject. For Weed and Bull (2004), findings suggest that much of the sport tourism motivation research already undertaken has focused on sport events or sport spectators and not on the sport tourist as a participant. Therefore, once the type of tourist of the study is defined, the need falls on the experience the tourist is supposed to enjoy during sport events. In this work, these authors mentioned the impossibility of establishing an absolute definition of the sports tourist profile considering the existing heterogeneity, although there are similarities in the motivations and behaviours among sports tourists surrounded by diverse activities that might help to build a “typology” for tourism sports. They also say that whenever an analysis of the tourism profile is intended, this analysis should be ordered in three groups. The first corresponds to primary sports tourists and with the second, where the underlying motive is the obtained experience, they both correlate to the sports tourist profile in which the essential motive for the trip is to practise sports tourism, albeit the tourist is no fan. The third group corresponds to tourists who are interested in sport, but whose primary purpose for the journey is not to practise a sport, although they end up being involved in sports practices because of the journey. These groups are heterogeneous as their experience is not the same, and it differs according to the interaction between the activity, the individuals and the location. The three constructs employed here were filled with variables collected from the literature review and mentioned by the authors included

therein. According to Robinson and Gammon (2004) there is often a conjunction of motives rather than a single motive.

Following the classification of the tourist, another one was used to rank the activities, of which currently there are many. This classification is based on Aspas (2000), through a catalogue of active tourism activities, and is ordered by physical environment: air, water and land. According to this author, active tourism is definable as a type of recreation, engagement in physical activities in a natural environment. They take place in a natural environment such as water, land and air. In nature, it can take place in fragile ecosystems such as rivers or mountains. This situation may involve a serious conflict between recreational tourism and the natural environment. However, even with these intense studies on tourist motivations, it is still quite common among managers and tourism entities to fail to give true relevance to this subject in their planning. The main purpose of event organizers should be meeting participants’ motivations, understanding that people intervening in the sport tourism activities market have different, quite distinctive publics due to the various sports activities. Nonetheless, organizers prefer to rest on aspects derived from empirical or personal data, very often conveyed by friends, public opinion and mass media, when the motivations are the result of other aspects connected, for instance, to the need and desire to belong.

In the second part of this work and whenever references are made to the motivation of the participants, this concept, considering all that was previously studied, aims at comprehending the set of variables which lead to the development of an interest and participation experience in this type of events. Thus, the aim is to reach a characterization of the profile of the recreational sport tourism participant in a way that, in the future, the quality of supply of this type of events can be improved, with the expectation of increasing the number of participants.

4. Experience of Recreational Sport Tourism Events

4.1. Definition of “Recreational” in Sport Tourism Events

Following the bibliographical review concerning sport tourism events and motivation areas, we shall now further assess the gap which will be particularly targeted in this work. As Hallmann et al. (2012) state, the latest research interests may explained by the growing number of participants and the increased economic relevance of sports.

Many researchers opted to study the connection between sport and tourism and leave out the recreational side because they considered it as an activity parallel to sports. As mentioned by Kotus (2016), the question of recreation and its relation to tourism and sport are left out of discussion and debates on this issue in the literature. Kotus (2016) also mentions Bachvarov and Dziegieć (2005), who consider that the term recreation describes a range of apparently sport-related activities offered to tourists during trips. Kotus (2016, p. 19) concludes “thus, it is an important and widely discussed element of the ‘sport-recreation-tourism’ triad (Bończak, 2013). Recreation is an indisputable element linking sport with tourism, but not the only one. The other link includes activities such as white water canoeing, high mountain climbing, orienteering or hiking on adventure trails”.

Therefore, it is intended to perceive exactly what is regarded as recreational participation in sport tourism events and the experience resulting from this participation from the participant’s perspective.

Bearing this in mind, a concept was initially used in the literature, leisure, that goes beyond the merely recreational, which emerged as opposed to daily activity executed with responsibility. Leisure, as an isolated concept, is connected to lifestyle (Glypris, 1981), and to behaviour according to social class and related to economic status (Veblen, 1899). Usually it is during their free time that people turn to what are considered leisure practices.

Although recreation and leisure, as individual concepts, do not involve the same content, when associated to sport events they may represent identical concepts.

Khasnabis, Heinicke and Heinicke-Motsch (2008) precisely defined recreation and leisure. These authors consider that “recreation” includes those activities that people choose to do to refresh their bodies and minds and make their leisure time more interesting and enjoyable. Walking, swimming, meditation, reading, playing games, and dancing are examples of recreation activities. Khasnabis, Heinicke and Heinicke-Motsch (2008) consider “leisure” as the free time that people can spend away from their everyday responsibilities to participate in recreation and sporting activities.

With the industrial society and the growth in productivity, there was additionally a rise in purchasing power that extended to every social class, as stated by Santos and Gama (2008) in their book about the occupation of leisure time and the new practices originating from it. The increase in productive processes gave rise to the need to create a period of time to relax freely, but also for consumption; a period of time essential for a life with quality. These authors also mention that the changes in the labour world caused a decrease in physical effort and that therefore there is, today, a need to exercise the body more during leisure. Recently this subject was also discussed by Mascarenhas, Silva and Pereira (2014) quoting Jakovlev et al. (2014), emphasizing the growing demand for evasion, well-being and health, and new experiences as the drive motivating the evolution of sport into an inseparable element in tourism stimulates a larger offer in sport products and tourism destinations.

Dumazedier (1974) had defined “leisure” as a set of occupations, to which the individual may freely surrender, to relax, amuse, enjoy or entertain himself. Later, many other researchers connected leisure to work (for instance, Dumazedier, 1980; Shivers, 1985; Jones & Crandall, 1986; Barton, 2005) and to social classes (for instance, Bourdieu, 1979; Rojek, 1985; Veal, 2000; Estanque 2005). According to Pereira (2002), leisure is a growing phenomenon, with a base in daily life and covering multiple activities and spaces (land, air and water). Whereas for Kelly (1996), leisure includes games, sports, culture social interaction, as well as activities similar to work but that are not work.

Most sport activities under recreation and tourism are connected to leisure activities, which means these concepts are generally considered as interconnecting and overlapping concepts. Kartakoullis et al. (2015) note that the Council of Europe (2007)

defines leisure sports as sports activities aimed at the preservation and improvement of physical condition, health and fun. Hall and Page (2006, p. 7) state that additionally to the definition of the concept, it is important to understand other aspects, “while there are many important concepts, definitions of leisure, recreation and tourism remain contested in terms of how, where, when and why they are applied”. Hall and Page (2006) also mention another term (recreation) to mean “leisure”.

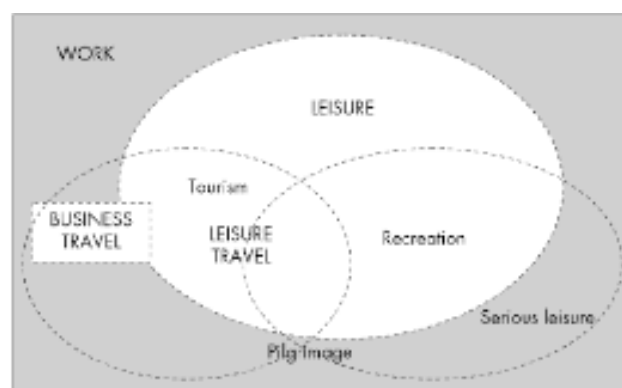


Figure 11 - Relationship between leisure recreation and tourism

Source: Hall and Page (2006)

The concept of leisure is primarily used in three ways, according to Stockdale (1985):

- as a period of time, activity, or state of mind in which choice is the dominant feature;
- through an objective view in which leisure is emphasized and perceived as the opposite of work and is defined as non-work or residual time;
- through a subjective view which emphasizes leisure as a qualitative concept in which leisure activities take on a meaning only within the context of individual perceptions and belief systems and can therefore occur at any time in any setting.

According to Stebbins (1992, p. 3) “serious leisure can be defined as the systematic pursuit of an amateur, hobbyist, or volunteer activity that is sufficiently

substantial and interesting for the participant to find a career there in the acquisition and expression of its special skills and knowledge”.

Under leisure there is casual and serious leisure. The first is a short, brief activity. It is also immediate and does not require previous preparation but provides quick pleasure and satisfaction together with a set of associated benefits (Stebbins, 2001). For amateurs there is no remuneration, although they are active participants in non-competitive activities.

Stebbins (1992) identified six exclusive characteristics of serious leisure that differentiate this concept from casual leisure and all other possible forms of leisure. These characteristics are: the need to steadily pursue an activity; the feasibility of a career development; the personal effort required to achieve both knowledge and techniques; the accomplishment of several personal and social benefits; the single ethos and social world; a strong personal and social identity.

Green and Jones (2005) argue that serious leisure participants find an outlet in sport tourism and also say that sport tourism motivates serious leisure. They claim that serious leisure participation is promoted by travelling in five key ways:

- 1) presenting a context that allows a leisure identity to be built and/or confirmed;
- 2) affording time and place to interact with everyone, thereby sharing the activity’s ethos;
- 3) affording a place to parade and celebrate a meaningful social identity;
- 4) climbing one step further on this leisure path;
- 5) creating a way to stand out in the steps of the path.

Cheng and Tsaur (2012) considered the characteristics of serious leisure as personal characteristics of those practising recreational activities and related them to their involvement capacity in those activities. According to Bangun (2014) when referring to sport tourism, sports tourism is growing almost globally and many sports are now being used as objects of attraction for tourists, especially sports that use natural locations, such as mountains, lakes, rivers or the sea and that offer the charm of natural

beauty. Sport tourism mixes sport, recreation and tourism which is currently growing rapidly and is in great demand among young travellers.

López and Gárate (2007) mention that participation in sport as a leisure activity is driven by multiple factors. In their study, they also mention that the decision to take up sport might be approached in 3 different ways. These approaches might be evaluated in the light of economic, sociological and psychological theories. Later, the time factor in the consumption decision was also added. Putting together all these theories, the motivation behind recreational participation might be seen, according to these authors, as an interaction of demographic variables (gender, age, degree of urbanization and region), economic (income and occupation) and sociocultural background variables (education, occupation, and household size). Experiences also contribute to this situation (participation in sport, family involvement).

A study by Haughey (2015) about sport and active recreation allows the conclusion that the 3 most common reasons for taking part in sport and recreation are health and fitness, enjoyment and social motives. These motives are common to both genders and include all ages, ethnicities, social-economical ranges, experiences and location. However, the relevance of these motives varies according to the participants, namely within the gender group.

According to Mello (2013), leisure may be considered a combination between a time unit and a mental attitude, in which the obligations are minimized, hence the recreation would be the activity type practised by the individual in his leisure time. In this activity it is possible to identify other activities, such as tourism enjoyment, comprehending a minimum sojourn of one night in the visited place. When trying to define the recreational part of sport events, it is assumed that the main factor is not competition and that the participant in this type of events is moved by leisure only.

Mills and Christensen (2006) defined as “recreational” any sport played in an organized competition at any grade, excluding all sports at any grade at a regional or above level, including junior representation. In the study on the relationship between the level of sport participant and its identity, these authors conclude that recreational level

athletes do not have to actually consider themselves as athletes to perceive positive psychological benefits.

Pereira and Carvalho (2004), within tourism and sport, defined tourism sport as being that in which a tourism destination or lodging is sought considering the optimum or ideal conditions to practise a specific sport. To pursue most of these sporting activities, participants are required to look outside their home area for places with specific characteristics, such as natural resources or weather conditions. Thus, travelling is necessary to engage in these sports. The place, especially the amenities available, contribute to the experience, and the destination becomes the primary target in order to pursue a sport from a leisure point of view.

For sport tourism this is quite important, considering that it also explains what leads tourists to travel in order to practise a sport and the advantages they look for while travelling in a destination to take part in this type of events.

Mallen and Adams (2008) mention that one of the problems of the recreational sport events category is connected with regulations and rules. In their opinion, recreational events are separate from traditional governing bodies and their rules. Bangun (2014) mentions that the definition of recreation is based on an activity or volunteered experience undertaken during spare time for personal satisfaction and enjoyment. Bangun’s (2014) article studied the development of recreational sport tourism driven by recreational sport in the Indonesian context. This author also considered that there are nine basic characteristics of recreation:

- It is an activity;
- The form can be varied;
- It is determined by motivation;
- It is done routinely;
- It is completely voluntary;
- It is done universally and necessarily;
- It is serious and useful;
- It is flexible;
- It is a by-product.

However, it should also be noted that the concepts of leisure and recreational participation do not have always a positive connection, that is, the constraints that people perceive lead to reduced participation most of the time. Although there are not many studies on this subject, it is possible to see the study of Shaw, Bonen and McCabe (1991) as an example, in which they provided research on the negative relationship between restrictions and the individual’s participation in physical exercise. Alexandris and Carroll (1997, p. 4) mention the same idea as Shaw, Bonen and McCabe (1991), saying that “the authors demonstrated that demographic characteristics such as age, gender, lifestyle, occupational status, and income, which they called “social structural constraints”, had more significant relationships with exercise participation than perceived constraints”.

Smith (2008) considers that among sports consumers there are participants and sports volunteers who get directly involved and participate without any kind of retribution. Other authors have given their contributions to the classification of the sports tourist profile. This is the case of:

- Hall (1992) – “model of adventure”;
- Kurtzman (1996) – “model of sports tourism product”;
- Reeves (2000) – “sports tourism type”;
- Weed and Bull (2004) – “model of sports tourism type”.

This study bases the definition of the tourist participating in recreational sports tourism events on the model created by Gammon and Robinson (2003), in which two different forms, sport and tourism, are ranked. That is, sport tourism and tourism sport are distinguished. Both ranks give rise to other hard and soft subdivisions for each one.

To better understand Figure 12, and because the soft definition of sport tourism was the basis and starting point for the definition of the sport events recreational tourist, it is necessary to explain each one. Accordingly:

1) Sports Tourism – in this criterion, sport is the main motivation to travel, although sport contributes to the global assessment of the experience. In this category it is possible to find a:

- a) Hard definition – active and passive participation in a sport competition event. According to these authors, “we can classify a hard sports tourist as someone who specifically travels (staying in places outside their usual environment) for either active or passive involvement in competitive sport. Therefore, the sport is their prime motivational reason for travel. This encompasses major sporting events e.g. the Olympic Games, Wimbledon, and the London Marathon. The competitive nature of these events is the distinguishing factor” (Gammon & Robinson, 2003, p. 23).

and a

- b) Soft definition – tourists travel with the purpose of engaging into recreational or leisure sport activities. The definition by Gammon and Robinson (2003, p. 23) for this concept considers that the tourist “would be someone who specifically travels (staying in places outside their usual environment) and who is primarily involved in active recreational participation of a sporting/leisure interest; for example, skiing and walking holidays. The active recreational aspects are the distinguishing factors here”.

2) Tourism Sport – in this case, the vacation is the major motivation to travel, and the sport activities always appear as secondary activities. There is also a subdivision here. There is a:

- a) Hard definition – although the vacation is the main motive to travel, tourists also intend to take part in sport activities, either passively or actively, for leisure or competition. These authors mention that “this category fits the hard definition of tourism sports because whilst the holiday is their primary motivation to travel, they will also expect to participate in some sport. Therefore, sport will act as a secondary reinforcement to their vacation” (Gammon & Robinson, 2003, p. 24);

and a

A model for “Recreational Sport Tourism Events’ Experience”
- A participant’s perspective -

- b) Soft definition – this includes tourists who participate casually during their vacations in a certain sport. For these authors “a soft definition of tourism sport involves visitors who as a minor part of their trip engage in some form of sport or leisure on a purely incidental basis. (...) this is deemed “soft” because their participation is purely incidental” (Gammon & Robinson, 2003, p. 24).

Considering these definitions, the figure below presents some examples.

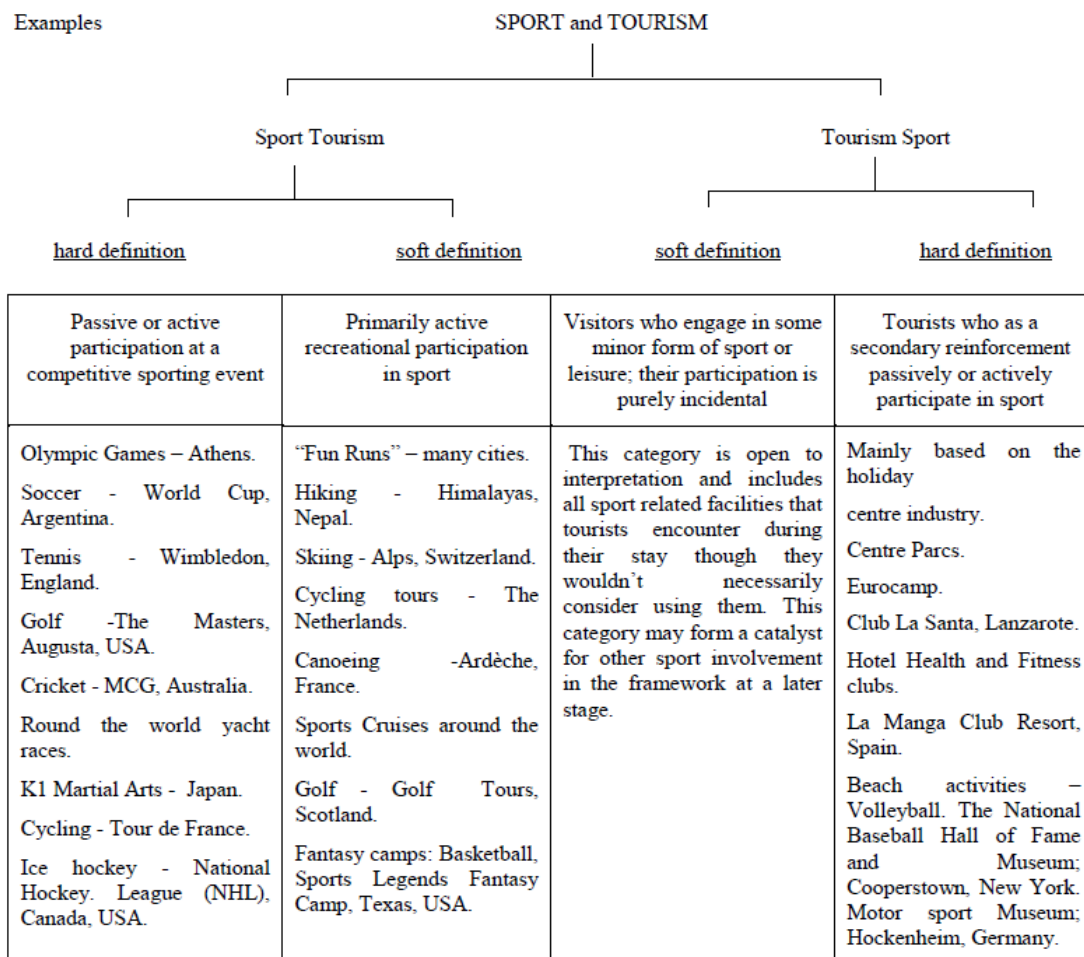


Figure 12 – Consumer classification of sport and tourism

Source: Robinson and Gammon (2011)

According to this classification, the research focus concerns the soft definition of sport tourism, primarily active recreational participation in sport, meaning the tourist that practises a sport regularly, but with no competitive purpose and who travels to other countries that have the necessary conditions to practise it.

As Bangun (2004) states, according to some theories, it can be concluded that recreational sport is highly dependent on the conditions and cultural values of a local community concerning health, fitness, and enjoyment in one’s spare time.

Such inference agrees with the purpose of this study, which is substantiated by the idea of a sport activity which is practised voluntarily in an unusual context and appreciates different environments, therefore looking for new destinations.

4.2. Definition of Experience in Sport Tourism Events

According to Peric, Wise and Dragicevic (2017), there is no unique definition for types of experiences in general, and sport experiences in particular. The tourism experience always raises a very large subjectivity among researchers studying the subject. “The tourist experience is a complicated psychological process. Providing a succinct definition is a difficult task as this can encompass a complex variety of elements” (Cutler & Carmichael, 2010, p.3). For Bouchet, Lebrun and Auvergne (2004, p. 128), expectations concerning vacations are higher today because they correspond to the desire for an intense experience of increasingly scarce free time. These authors also mention the need to experiment different and intense experiences that spur the senses: “holiday makers are looking for excitement and new experiences that will provide good and/or new feelings, stimulating their senses”.

Chavaglia, Filipe and Ferreira (2016) show that experiences are often anticipated, lived intensively, with excitement but sometimes also with frustration and anxiety.

Taking a historical perspective, Brito, Correia and Barros (2017) state that the tourism image influences not only visitors’ behaviour but also the evaluation of their personal tourist experience in terms of satisfaction level, also defended by Chon (1992),

Etchner and Ritchie (1993) and Chen and Tsai (2007). The issue of tourism experience, according to Uriely (2005), expanded throughout the 1960s through tourist evaluations of their personal experiences, and became very popular during the ’70s. The initial conceptualizations started by differentiating daily life experience and routine. Cohen (1979) presents tourism as essentially a temporary reversal of everyday activities – it is a no-work, no-care, no-thrift situation. This author considered the search for novelty as a key factor. In the previous year, Smith (1978) had defined the tourist as a temporarily leisured person who visits a place away from home for the purpose of experiencing change.

In the ’90s, there was a new perspective guiding the research on tourist experience, that is, post-modernism clarified the involvement of the differentiating processes that smooth these differences. More recently, Cutler and Carmichael (2010), referring to the study of Andereck et al. (2006), point out that the researchers focused on the experience based on research approaches concerned with the development and improvement of the understanding on tourist experience. Ryan and Birks (2000) address the business tourists’ trend of completing their activities with visits to friends or attending sports events during their business trips.

Nickerson (2006) argues that there are three equally important aspects which affect the tourist experience: the traveller, the product (or destination) and the local population. The traveller has some ideas of experiences he might benefit from in terms of location and which will be impacted by his/her previous life experiences, that is, based on his/her social construction and external received information. Other influences are connected with the activities in which he/she takes part and his/her interaction with the different environments through which he/she travels. Larsen (2007), by his turn, considers that the various conceptions concerning the touristic experience are created in the memory, based on experiences and events, and thereby build new expectations. Tourism has the particular ability to create memories and joy in travellers, which may rest in their minds for a lifetime.

Laplane (1996) developed a global tourist experience model, which interprets the tourist experience as a leisure experience, during which the tourist undergoes personality changes. This model is detailed in six stages:

- 1) before departure – the tourist composes his/her desires and the tourist culture, gets involved in the quotidian;
- 2) emancipation (including departure) – the tourist feels a sense of freedom as regards the quotidian;
- 3) during the stay – the tourist enjoys the trip by engaging in different activities, including those designated as entertainment;
- 4) return – the tourist returns home;
- 5) integration of tourist experience – acquired through life and experiences during the trip;
- 6) absence – incorporates the previous stages, between exiting the house and returning.

Larsen (2007) clarifies that the third stage of this model is the “peak” of the tourist experience, including recreation activities, during which the tourist undergoes an adaptation to the destination culture and experiences the expected feeling of liberation from the quotidian until he/she returns home.

Selstad (2007) defines the tourist experience as a combination of novelty and familiarity and he disagrees that discontent is the main experience. In his opinion, it is connected to one’s search for identity and self-realization by involving a constant flow of perception and being allowed to experiment with identities. All bodily senses are engaged in experiencing a destination. Hosany and Gilbert (2009) describe the tourist experience as the sum of the interconnection between several material and immaterial elements and, also, as something that depends considerably on the tourist himself, basically, on his/her emotions and his participation in the experience. Thus, by actively participating in the experiences, the tourist plays a major role in the development of entertainment activities as destinations strive to correspond to the demand expectations.

It is possible to conclude, at this stage, that, the experience drawn from one event is captured differently and individually in each tourist’s memory, as stated by Ritchie and Hudson (2009), based on Ooi’s (2005) theory of tourism experiences. Ritchie and Hudson (2009) classify the experiences through three key points:

- 1) social and cultural background affect the tourist’s perception of a single tourism product;
- 2) experiences are influenced by the activities themselves, by the social meaning inherent to the executed activity and the physical environment;
- 3) they are connected to the very existence, that is, they can only be experienced by one individual that feels them, and differ from individual to individual.

For Bouchet, Lebrun and Auvergne (2004), consumption of sport tourism depends of the intensity of the experience one intends to obtain; however, they emphasize the exaggeration created around the difference between competition-challenge and emotional experience-ephemeral adventure. But they agree with Lipovetsky (1983) when it comes to differentiating between the temporary or permanent intensity of the experience and the rate at which individuals engage in an activity, become a part of it and detach themselves from it.

Tung and Ritchie (2011) conducted a study based on memorable experiences (ME) and their dimensions: affect, expectations, consequentiality, and recollection, connected to tourism. Their purpose was to understand what constitutes an especially memorable experience and how is it possible to facilitate it.

Cutler and Carmichael (2010) built a model based on the tourist experience dimensions and on several definitions of the tourist experience found in the literature. These authors quote Highmore (2002) to distinguish between two different states: the moment-by-moment lived experience (*Erlebnis*) and the evaluated experience (*Erfahrung*) which is subject to reflection and prescribed meaning, that is, “experience” divides into the moment in which the participant is currently and the perception of it. Cutler and Carmichael (2010) consider that their model reflects what happens during a tourist event (including the booking, local activities, and return). During the experience, three influence categories are provided that involve the elements and which are external to the individual. The physical aspects correspond to the elements space and destination, whereas the social aspects include several social influences in the experience. The effect of products and services represents factors, such as service quality, leisure activities

A model for “Recreational Sport Tourism Events’ Experience”
- A participant’s perspective -

available and products made available according to the tourist type. The other elements in the model were obtained from the bibliographic review.

In the following figure, Cutler and Carmichael’s (2010) tourist experience conceptual model of influences and outcomes is presented.

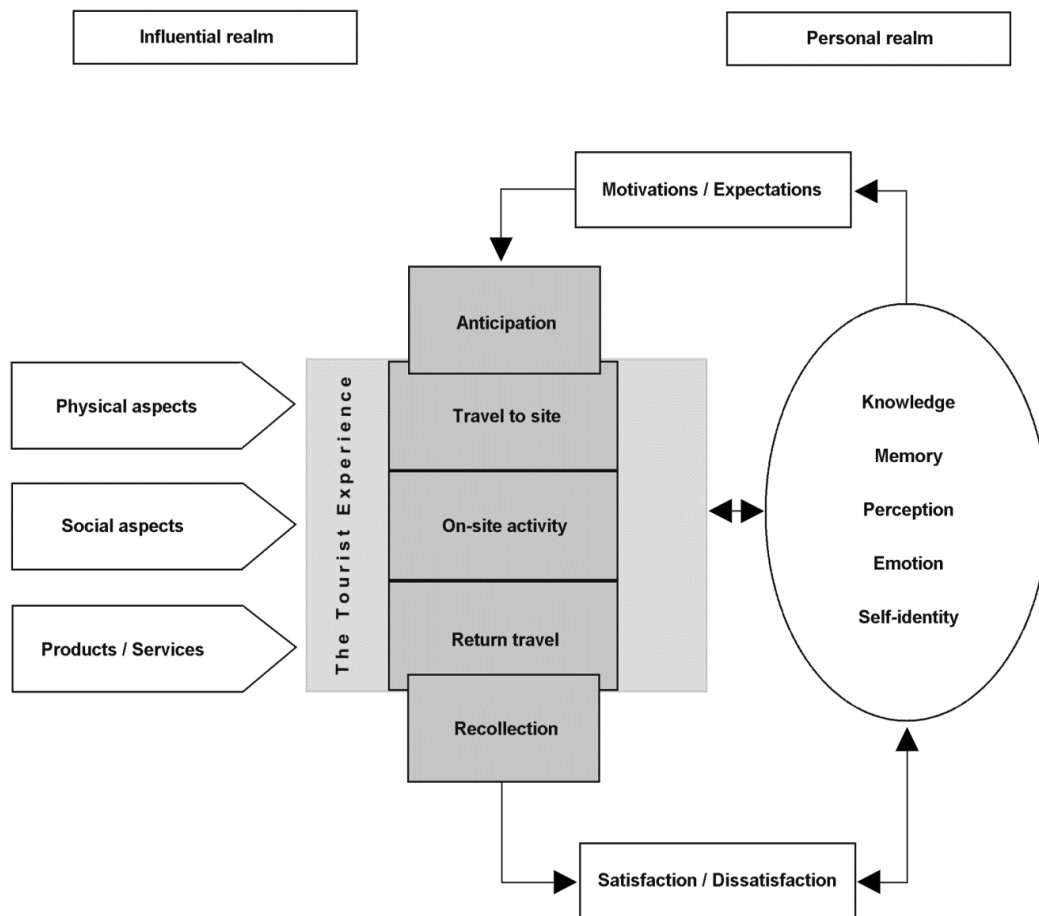


Figure 13 – The tourist experience conceptual model of influences and outcomes

Source: Cutler and Carmichael (2010)

The distance imposed by the voyage allows the tourist to suspend the rules put on him/her in the residence area (Lash & Urry, 1994).

Fairley (2003) wrote about social experience in nostalgia sport tourism and said that the results obtained were only valid from an analysis of a particular group, following a particular team, participating in a particular sport tourism experience.

Standeven and De Knop (1999) also tried to explain tourist experience with their conceptual sport and tourism classification model. They divided sports tourism into two types of experiences:

- Sports experiences, when they are connected to the environment and to the interpersonal relationship.
- Tourist experiences, when the key factor is the location where it is executed.

Also, Gnoth and Deans (2003, p.1) developed a tourist experience model, in which they state that “recreation is characterized by self-reflexive and self-recreational activities while exploration marks growth, learning and other-directed activities” (see the figure below).

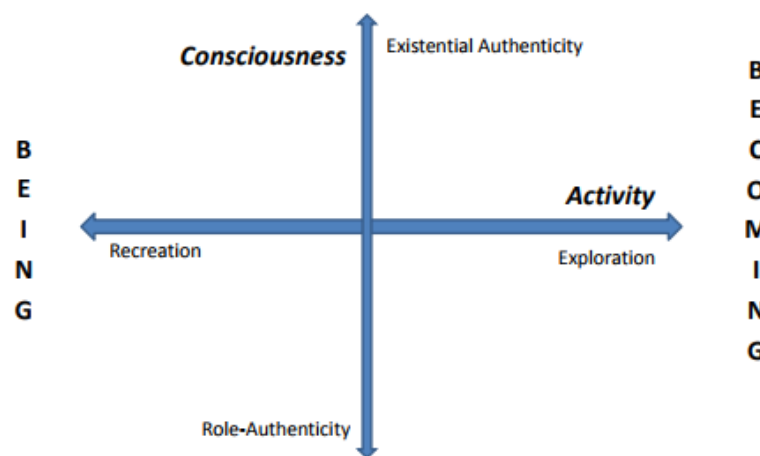


Figure 14 – The tourism experience model

Source: Gnoth and Deans (2003)

This model is composed of two quadrants and two axes related to the activities’ exploratory side. These quadrants diverge “in that a role-conscious person will experience new objects by following learned or assumed appropriate behaviour,

including learning to approach destinations through a new lens [...] everything is experienced through a filter that is created by learned exploratory behaviour” (Gnoth & Deans, 2003, p. 4).

Getz (2008, p. 414), regarding the theory on event experience and meanings, said that “experiences should be conceptualized and studied in terms of three inter-related dimensions: what people are doing, or behaviour (the “conative” dimension), their emotions, moods, or attitudes (the “affective” dimension), and cognition (awareness, perception, understanding). And it is necessary to understand the event tourism experience holistically, from the needs, motivations, attitudes, and expectations brought to the event, through the actual living experience (the “doing” or “being there”) all the way to reflections on the event-including meanings attached to it and influences on future behaviour”.

By their turn, Peric, Wise and Dragicevic (2017), quoting Pine and Gilmore (1998), point out only two dimensions: first, customer participation – involving active and passive participation; second, connections that unite consumers, such as an event or performance, whereby at one end of the spectrum there is absorption and at the other there is immersion. Each tourist’s experience from attendance at a sports tourist event is different and depends on numerous personal, behavioural, and social factors, among others. But there is no intention to study its constitution. In this study, the experience starts with the interaction described by Weed and Bull (2004) between “Activity”, “People” and “Place”. Many authors have studied these three constructs separately or even together, as is the case, for example, of Green and Chalip (1998), Hinch and Higham (2004) or Kim and Chalip (2004), among others. The intention is to understand whether the experience effectively derives from the relationship between these three categories and whether they have a positive effect or not. Each category could have been researched individually, and everything that researchers wrote on each one could have been analysed, but the purpose is to study the interaction originating from all of them, considered together.

Pereira and Carvalho (2004) defined “sport and tourism” as the momentum created between sports and tourism system, both in leisure and in competition, in which it is always necessary to ponder “Practice”, “People” and “Place”, in a very similar

relationship to that of Weed and Bull. However, for Pereira and Carvalho (2004), the category “Activity” is replaced by “Practice”. For all the researchers, in this context both words refer to the sporting activity itself. Therefore, to synthesize the literature review, sport event tourism experience is deduced to be the outcome of tourist interactions with the sport event and periphery attributes.

This research on sport tourism events experience revealed that researchers are more focused on tourism experience, namely the destination image, and less on the participant’s perspective. Although it was not yet sufficiently addressed, its relevance is understandable for the development of this type of tourism. It thus became important to find a scale which somehow could measure the participant’s tourist experience for a subsequent analysis of the results and perception of what might be improved in an event in terms of its experience, eventually leading to growth both in quality and quantity. These changes in the event should always suit the destination, considering that not all destinations can support this growth due to the necessary infrastructures and financial support it entails.

Thus, considering Portugal, the situation is very uneven and major events take place in large cities, which already have the necessary support for those arriving to take part in the event. However, from one event to another and according to the participants’ profile, their needs change and it is necessary to measure what really matters for a good experience in a recreational sport tourism event.

4.3. Measuring Scale of a Recreational Sport Tourism Events Experience

Considering the developments made above, it is essential for this study to build a measuring scale to assess the participant’s experience in a recreational sport tourism event. Taking this into account, the work of several authors will be analysed.

To this end, we may begin by citing Shipway et al. (2016, p.22), who stated that “one particular area that sport and tourism have in common is that they provide consumers with experiences”. These authors claim that despite the complexity of the

A model for “Recreational Sport Tourism Events’ Experience”
- A participant’s perspective -

relationship between sport and tourism, “active participation in sporting activities is one of many ways in which people choose to experience places and people as part of tourism practices”. The model design follows:

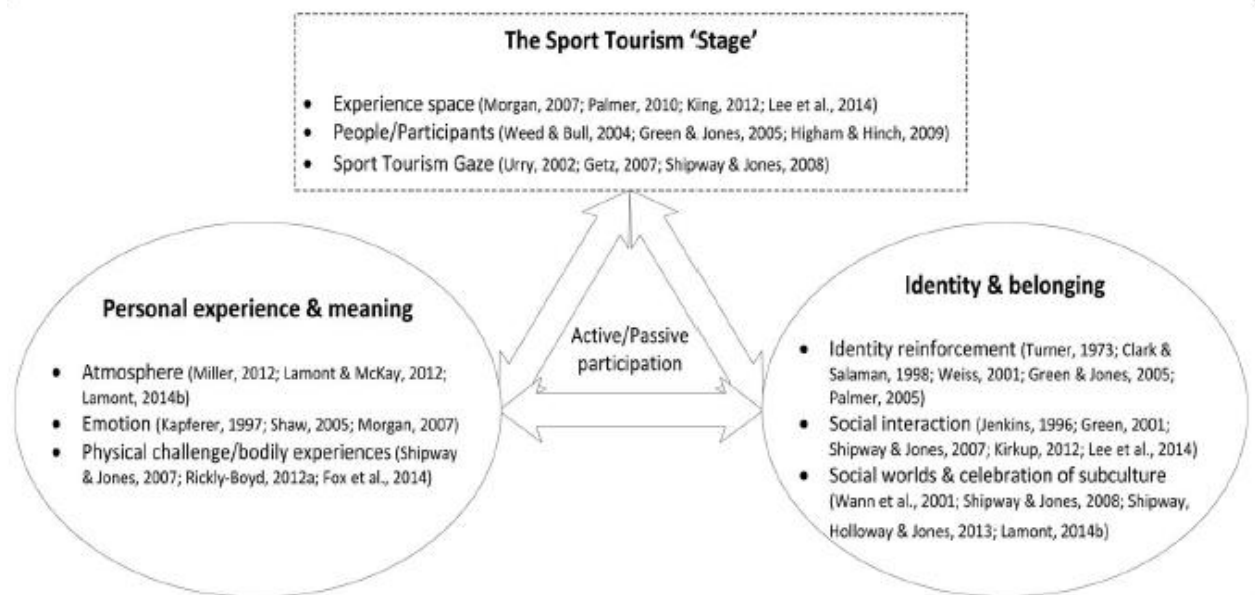


Figure 15 – A model for understanding sport event tourism experiences

Source: Shipway et al. (2016)

This model shows the many intervening elements that create a unique personal experience to reinforce the individual’s sense of social identity and belonging through the interaction of experience with social and physical aspects. The sport tourism ‘stage’ is of central importance to the participants. There is an interaction between the sport tourist and the event spaces as the central factor that provides a platform for respondents to enjoy meaningful and authentic experiences and to reinforce a sense of identity and belonging. Previously, Ritchie (2004) stressed the issue of the lack of research in small-scale sport event tourism in a rugby competition. In his study, he applied a survey to examine the sporting behaviour of sport tourist spectators, what drives them and how this later influences their tourism and travel behaviour. According to this author, small-scale sport events, such as rugby competitions, have tourism potential and should be acknowledged.

Therefore, it is necessary to analyse how the “sport tourist spectator” and “tourism behaviour” are connected, and to do further research in order to clarify how this type of events can be relevant in tourism marketing and development. To reach the results on sport tourist spectators, they were ranked as avid, frequent and casual spectators, according to their level of involvement.

Bouchet, Lebrun and Auvergne (2004) created a model depicting sport tourism consumption to support the tourism industry with orientation on the type of experiences which these tourists look for. The model below (Figure 16) shows the variables that explain this phenomenon.

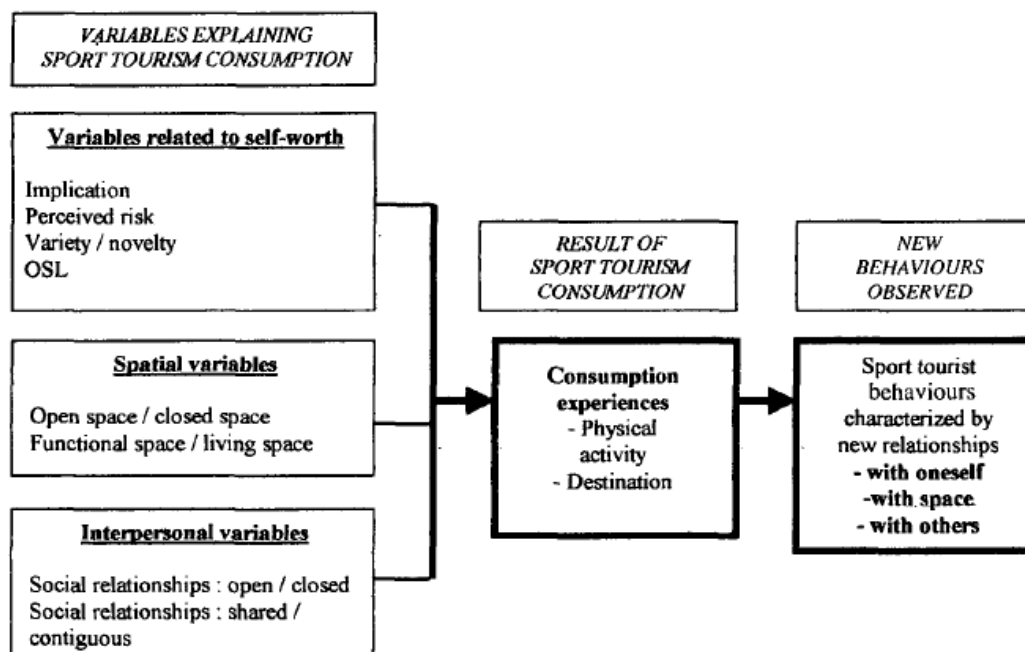


Figure 16 – Sport tourism consumer experiences: a comprehensive model OSL (Optimal, Stimulation Level)

Source: Bouchet, Lebrun and Auvergne (2004)

Ritchie and Hudson (2009) developed a model reflecting the evolution of research into the tourism experience. Their paper provided a framework to help to identify and better understand the major challenges faced in consumer/tourist experience research, as was the authors aim. This model design follows:

A model for “Recreational Sport Tourism Events’ Experience”
- A participant’s perspective -

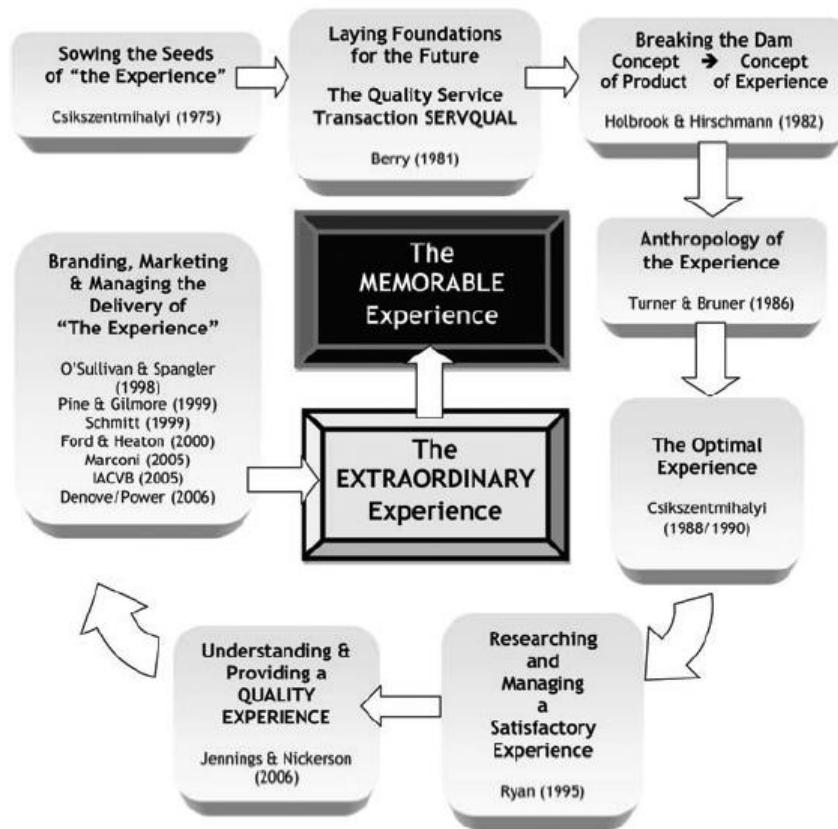


Figure 17 – The evolution of the extraordinary/memorable travel/tourism experience

Source: Ritchie and Hudson (2009)

Clemes, Brush and Collins (2011) also complement the experience evaluation, but always from the attendants’ perspective, that is, they intend to measure service quality in sport and recreation in particular. This study was also applied in rugby matches with data being collected on a single occasion from a systematic random sample of spectators, aged over 18 years, who were about to attend a Super 14 Rugby Union match.

According to Kaplanidou and Vogt (2010) the sport event experience still require an extensive examination in the literature. Crompton (1999) stated that low budget events, nonetheless, attract a significant number of participants and attendants to the venue. Smaller scale events have not been extensively examined in the literature and consequently there is little information concerning the aspects that comprise the meaning of a small-scale event experience, which will be the focus of this research.

Kaplanidou and Vogt (2010) built a scale to understand the meaning attached to a sport event by its participants. For this scale, two methods were used: a qualitative method, through a focus group where organizational, environmental, physical activity, social and emotional aspects were considered, and a quantitative approach, in which data were collected using mail and web surveys from two different sport events. The study population included active sport tourists who registered and paid for either the two- or seven-day bicycling tour (see the figure below).

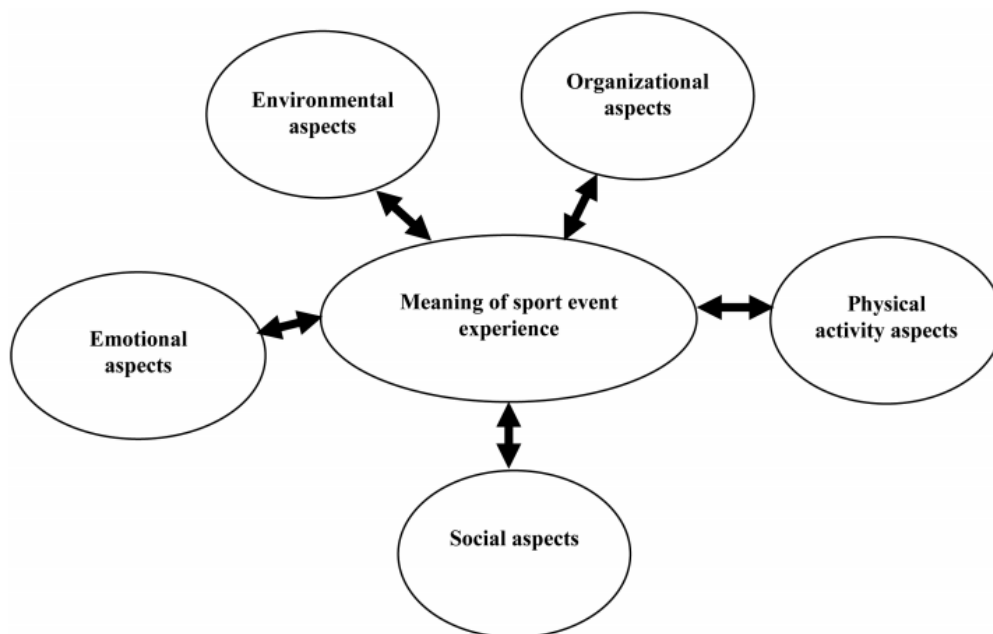


Figure 18 – The aspects of meaning attached to a small-scale sport event experience by active sport tourists in the post trip phase through a qualitative analysis

Source: Kaplanidou and Vogt (2010)

According to Kaplanidou and Gibson (2010), the topic of tourists who travel to take active part in small-scale sport events is still seldom discussed in the literature, and for these authors, understanding the variables that influence active sport tourism behaviours has not been widely observed in the sport and tourism literature. This scale is considered closer to the intended measured study object; however, it was decided not to include it because its basis did not cover the necessary constructs, “Activity”, “People” and “Place” that would allow measurement of the experience of recreational

sport tourism events, considering only the behaviour of active sport tourists and not specifically the recreational perspective.

For Weed and Bull (2004), the relationship between sport and tourism is interpreted through the model below (see Figure 19), which focuses on the player’s sport attendance, which is measured through a horizontal axis extending from accidental sport attendance during vacations up to sport vacations and a vertical axis which measures the different levels of relevance towards sport and tourism travel.

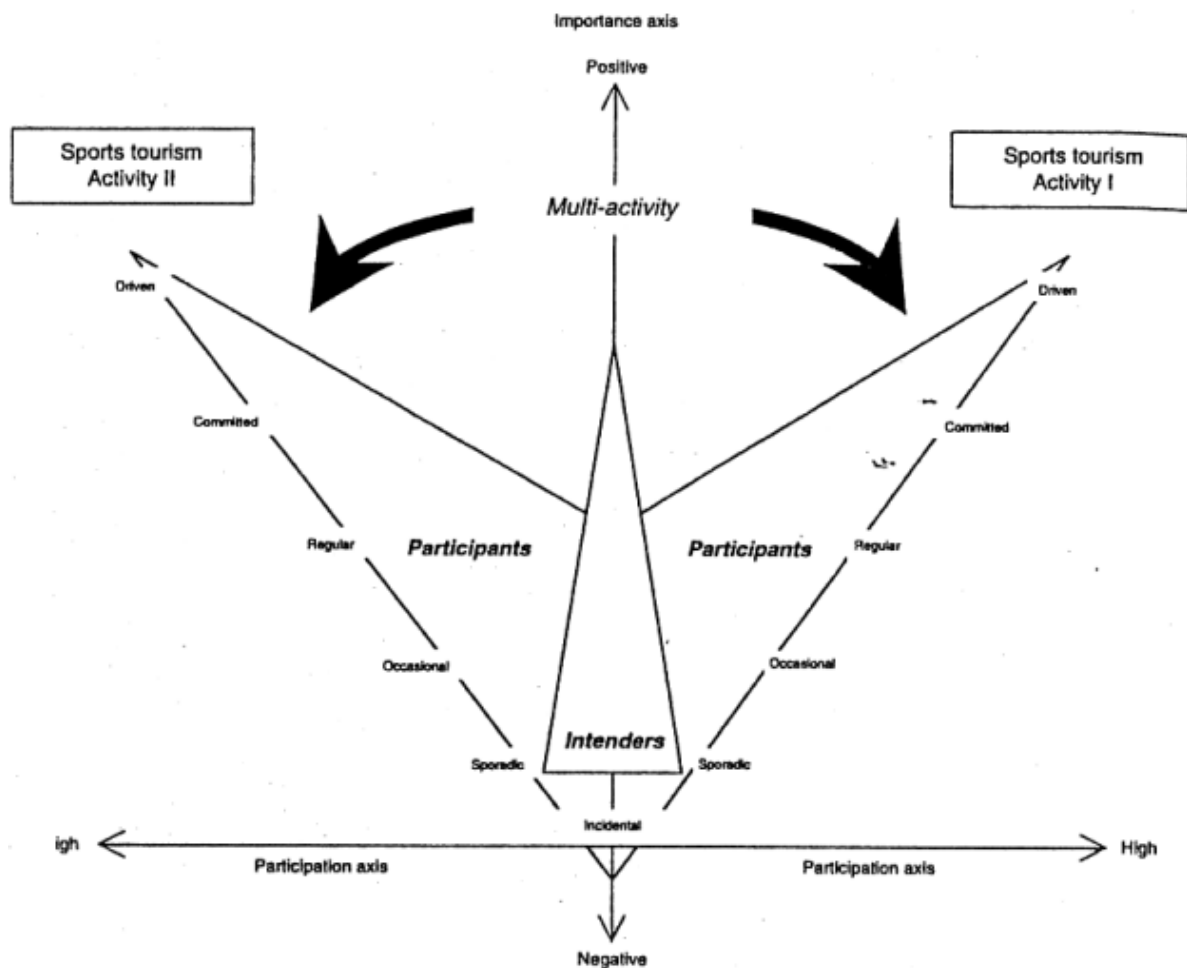


Figure 19 – Representative model of participation type in Sport and Tourism

Source: Weed and Bull (2004)

In the model above, it is possible to find the “intenders”. Although these “intenders” do not participate actively, this category of participants, considered passive,

express a desire to attend live sport events but never get round to it. These authors also claim that, for an analysis of the touristic profile, three categories must be structured. The two first profiles share the fact that the key motive to travel is to engage in sport tourism, although one profile includes tourists for primary sports and for the other profile, other factors besides sport must be considered, such as the experience taken from the activity. The third category includes the tourists for whom this is not the key purpose for the trip, though they are interested in sport. These categories vary according to the relevance of the activity interaction with individuals and place for the experience obtained by the tourist from sport tourism. Weed and Bull (2004) claim that it is impossible to establish one single definition of the sports tourist profile considering the heterogeneity, although there are similarities in the motivations and behaviours among sports tourists that might help to build a “typology” for tourism sports.

Chalip (2001), concerning a similar work, mentions that destinations can create a more attractive sport tourism image by understanding the aspects involved in the sport event experience. Kaplanidou and Vogt (2010) quoted Weed and Bull’s (2004) conceptualization of sport tourism as a phenomenon arising from the spectrum of unique interactions between people, place, and activities. Thus, the meaning of a sport event experience may vary among active and passive sport tourists given the different nature of the activity, place and people involved. These authors recognize the lack of empirical efforts to examine the meaning of this experience and stress the importance of sport events as tourist attraction products.

All the models and explanatory concepts referred to above originated from the participants’ perspective most of the time, but for this study it is firstly intended to build the consolidation of sport tourism events and later to understand the participants’ point of view on the importance of each category. Besides the study of sport tourism events, in this work it is important to focus on the motivations raising the recreational sport tourism participant’s interest in this type of events instead of a competition participant or even spectator, as mentioned before. Thus, it is necessary to measure the experience of a recreational sport tourism participant in a recreational sport tourism event based in the three constructs (Activity, People and Place) and understand whether or not these constructs have a positive impact on the participant’s experience.

4.4. Complementary Notes

At this point, the literature foundations for the conception of the study model are basically created. On this basis, some final comments are still particularly important to make a contextualization for the next steps in this work. The foundation stones are in place and it is now necessary to begin to more intrinsically interconnect concepts and ideas to establish the central part of the work based on the conceptual model.

A common theme in the literature was the need to establish effective linkages between sport and tourism industries in order to maximize sport tourism opportunities and outcomes. The literature review allows some more considerations to be made in order to propose a conceptual model to support this study. So considering the importance of tourism itself, sport tourism nowadays is much more than just an activity performed during leisure time. It has implications in many areas, such as the economy, culture or society, for example. Kazimierczak and Mosko (2013) mention a new reality by saying that nowadays, sport tourism is something more than the passing trend of taking up sports activity during free time spent far away from home. Peric and Wise (2015) stress the effort necessary to design, manage, and eventually sell the product related to attractive sports experiences.

While in some places receiving tourists there is much talk about *tourismphobia* (a concept applied to tourism massification), sport tourism currently leverages the numbers during low season and raises tourism in depopulated areas. Nyikana (2016) states that sport tourism exists within a complex network of social, economic, political, cultural and environmental factors that can determine the impact of sport tourism on specific destinations.

Recognizing all the aforementioned aspects, it is opportune to say that this study aims to focus the research on the search for the more relevant variables within the three constructs, “Activity”, “People” and “Place”, for participants’ experience in recreational sport tourism events. This is the central point from which the development of the study is carried out. Based on the bibliographical review and considering that our study is exhaustive and integrates several concepts that are analysed separately, it is important to provide an overview of those essential for reaching the starting point for the empirical

work and to structure a representative definition on recreational sport tourism events that are considered for this work.

It is time now to bring together some convergent aspects in this stage. On that basis, within the research, there are two major concepts to consider. The first is connected to sport tourism events and the other to recreational participants. In terms of this last concept, participants in recreational sport tourism events might be residents (this type of participants was not taken into consideration in this study), excursionists or either national or international tourists. In this sense, it has to be clarified what is considered a participant in a sport tourism event. Nevertheless, according to scholars, there are several acknowledged ranking systems that may be explored in this work, and therefore they need clarification.

From the outset, it is crucial to clarify concepts such as “tourist”, for example, because these kinds of concepts are central in any tourism research. Considering this, it is important to say that it has not been easy to conciliate the definition of tourist considering the many different circumstances. In the modern definition there are four central elements to consider, namely: travel, residence, duration of stay and remuneration. In 1983, the World Tourism Organization looked into the different definitions, stating that the travellers are considered tourism services consumers regardless of their motivations. A tourist was defined as the visitor who spends at least 24 hours but less than one year in the visited place and whose reasons to travel might be ranked as pleasure, vacations, sports or business, visiting family and friends, mission, reunion, conference, health, study or religion. Yiannakis and Gibson (1992), while revising the sport tourist types, added a new category, sport lovers, to the existing list of tourist roles, referring to these as people who continue to engage in their favourite sports during their tour, regardless of the travel duration.

Cunha (2014, p. 95), in his article on the definition and scope of tourism, mentions that finally, in 1994, the United Nations adopted a definition, still in force today, and which divides the visitor, that is “any person travelling to a place other than that of his/her usual environment for less than 12 months”, into tourists and day visitors:

- a) tourists – “visitors who stay at least one night in a collective or private accommodation in the place/country visited”;
- b) day visitors or excursionists – “visitors who do not spend the night in a collective or private accommodation in the place/country visited”.

Later, Nogawa, Yamguchi and Hagi (1996, p. 47) carried out a study centred in the Japanese sport tourism situation, in which defined the concepts of the several types of participants in sport events:

- a) sport tourist – “as a temporary visitor staying at least 24 hours in the event area and whose primary purpose is to participate in a sports event, with the area visited being a secondary attraction”;
- b) sport excursionist – sport excursionists “are those commuting to and participating in an organized sports event. In other words, sport excursionists are day trippers not staying overnight at the event. Most participants in sport-for-all events are sport excursionists, since these events are either half-day or one-day events and do not require an overnight stay for participation”;
- c) sport-for-all event – “a sports event that does not require any entry qualifications, does not offer any championship prizes, and involves very little competition among participants. A sport-for-all event emphasizes the joy of sport participation and health-related fitness while deemphasizing excessive competition. The concept of a sport-for-all event is that every participant is a winner”.

Kazimierczak and Mosko (2013) addressed the trends of sport tourism and mentioned that the fact that sport tourism participants move beyond their daily living space, resulting in the appropriation of a frequently strange and different socio-cultural space proves the specific character of sport tourism. All these studies highlight not only the need for the tourist to travel in order to practise the sport during an event, but also that the event provides other inputs hardly available in the tourists’ home area, which make the experience different and fulfilling.

In this study, the definition for sport events tourism is based on Gammon and Robinson (2003, p. 23), who intended to provide a perspective of what might be considered a recreational sport tourist, who “would be someone who specifically travels (staying in places outside their usual environment) and who is primarily involved in active recreational participation of a sporting/leisure interest; for example, skiing and walking holidays. The active recreational aspects are the distinguishing factors here”.

Recreational sport tourist events, focused on at the beginning of this section, together with the above explored ideas of recreational tourist and different types of participants, are paramount to outlining the recreational participant’s profile in this study. Moreover, it is important, at this point, to clarify what a recreational sport tourism event is. Zürn (1973) explored the relationship between sport, recreation and tourism, although he did not detail the analysis on sport tourism. This author defined recreational sport as a behaviour, similar in character, but of a non-competitive function, practiced systematically during the year and meaning contact with some sport discipline.

Interestingly, Mallen and Adams (2008) mention the huge growth of the sport, recreation and tourism industries since the 1960s. The combination of increased traditional and niche events is changing the sport, recreation and tourism event landscape. For some time, scholars focused more on events, especially on competition events, although “recreational sporting events have been recognized as one of the fastest growing types of spectator attractions” (Veltri, Miller & Harris, 2009, p. 120) and also on large scale events. Kaplanidou and Gibson (2010) developed a connection between the type of participation and the event, thereby proposing the use of the term active event sport tourists to describe participatory sports-related travel associated with event participation. For them, the event participation behaviour can be evaluated through the evaluation of active sport tourists’ behavioural intentions.

Gratton, Dobson and Shibli (2000) created a sport events typology based on the economic relevance of major sports events divided in four categories (from A to D), according to their potential to generate significant economic impact. In spite of that, they noted that there is no guarantee of correspondence between the event’s scale and the economic impact. Wilson (2006) added a new category (type E) to the above-

mentioned typology, including small-scale events and the economic importance of sport. According to the figure below (Figure 20), the categories are described through economically limited activities, considered only on a local basis. For Wilson (2006) these so-called small-scale events, generating limited economic benefit can, in fact, produce some worthwhile gain to host communities.

Type A	Irregular, one-off, major international spectators events generating significant economic activity and media interest (e.g., Olympics, Football World Cup, European Football Championship)
Type B	Major spectator events, generating significant economic activity, media interest and part of an annual domestic cycle of sports events (e.g., FA Cup Final, Six Nations Rugby Union Internationals, Test Match Cricket, Open Golf, Wimbledon)
Type C	Irregular, one-off, major international spectator/competitor events generation limited economic activity (e.g., European Junior Boxing Championships, European Junior Swimming Championships, World Badminton Championships, IAAF Grand Prix)
Type D	Major competitor events generating limited economic activity and part of an annual cycle of sport events (e.g., National Championships in most sports)
Type E	Minor competitor/spectator events, generating very limited economic activity, no media interest and part of an annual domestic cycle of sports events (e.g., Local and regional sport events in most sports.)

Figure 20 – Typology of events

Source: Adapted from Wilson (2006)

Veltri, Miller and Harris (2009), specifically mentioning sport tourism events, made some considerations on growth in the number of recreational sport tourism events and consequently in non-profit agencies bidding to host those events. Moreover, Nyikana (2016) stresses the benefits, both tangible and intangible, of large-scale events.

Small recreational events are not as visible as large events. They also are less profitable, and the economic movement is smaller as compared to the large events. In fact, for this reason they are smaller and have a much smaller structure, very often voluntary. Duglio and Beltramo (2017) refer that some studies underline that a small-scale sport tourism event can be a viable form of sustainable tourism for a local community.

This research study is intended to define a conceptual model to understand the experience perceived by participants when they enter recreational sport tourism events. Considering the different kind of classification areas of motivations, they may be distributed as follows: “Activity”, “People” and “Place”. This is based on Weed and Bull’s (2004) classification. With this objective in mind, there are, therefore, two study

targets: on one hand, the analysis of the active sport tourism events, their framework, characterization, and evolution; and, on the other hand, this participant’s profile type, his motivations, interactions and possible segmentations. As mentioned before, studies to date have focused mainly on the professional participants and spectators, and some authors have mentioned this gap, such as Kaplanidou (2007).

As a basis for the next chapter – the conceptual model – a general scheme was conceived considering the bibliography and the purposes of the study. With this in mind, the figure below shows the path covered through the bibliographical review, which is supported by researchers in order to arrive at the basic concepts of this study. On one hand there are recreational sport tourism events and on the other hand there is the experience originating from the interaction of the motivational variables for the participating sport tourist. The grading of events according to the physical environment was also taken into account.

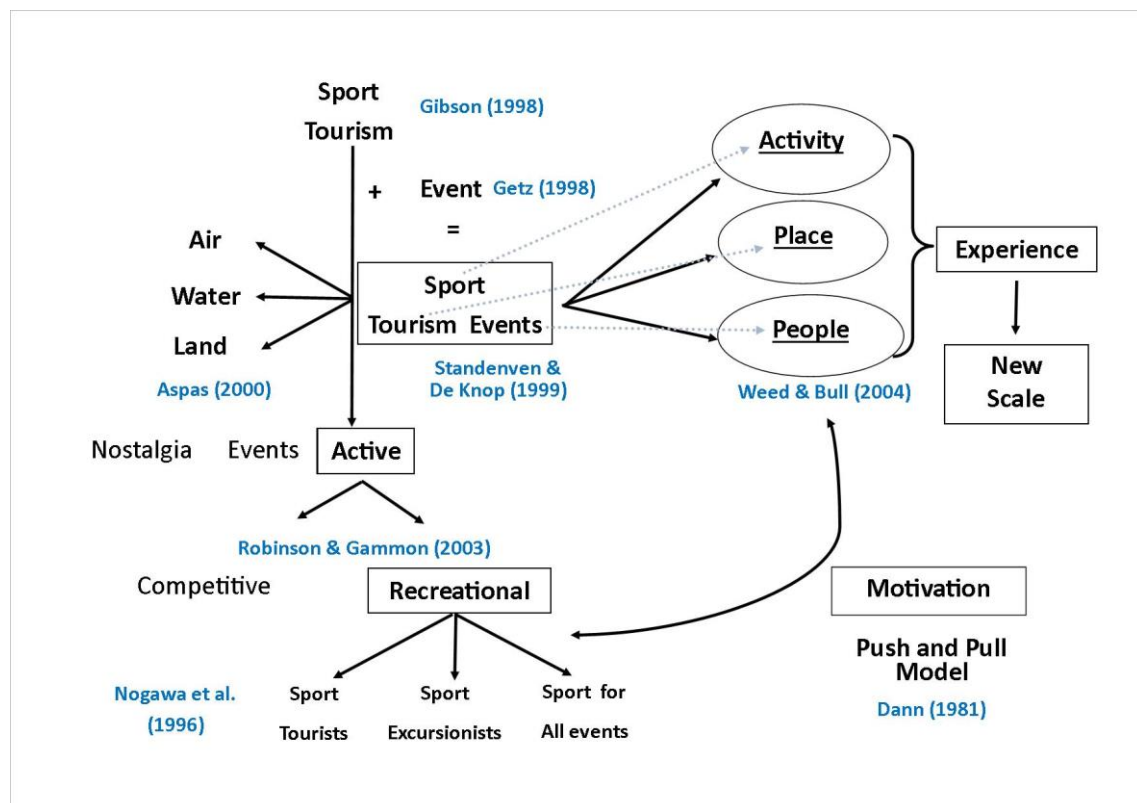


Figure 21 – Literature review for “Recreational Sport Tourism Events”

Source: Own elaboration

In this sense, and to provide this study with a single concept on the selected subject, the study of recreational sport tourism events will be approached, whereby participation only has the purpose of leisure and participants must travel to a place with the purpose of taking part in an event of this category. The model to be created is based on the experience of this type of tourist derived from the interaction between “Activity”, “People” and “Place”.

5. Conceptual Model

Sport tourism events and recreational participants are presented as the core issue of this study. The theme, sport tourism events, was selected because it is currently a phenomenon of major relevance in tourism and sport areas, which are frequently used as a product or service with large profit potential by several bodies in different sectors. However, although the study focused on these subjects, it is only intended to study recreational participants due to the increasing importance of health and well-being in connection to sport and leisure for this group. This growth is associated with the recent recognition of the importance given by several sectors of society, whether political, legal, economic, or social, and to the evident benefits associated with tourism.

As previously mentioned, studies in this domain are scarce. Considering its rapid growth, it is necessary to provide increasingly different approaches on these experiences. Due to the vast and complex research potential, it is necessary to set the boundaries of the problem and the general and specific goals of this study. In addition to the above-mentioned, this chapter presents the process of design and creation of this study, with the aim of reaching the goals set. Therefore, the experimental study design is briefly described, characterizing the sample, the measuring devices used, the conditions for implementing the study, the analysis model and the variables used as well as the identification of the statistical procedures used to obtain the results.

In this research, the focus is the participant’s experience based on Weed and Bull’s (2004) conceptualization, supported by the interaction between “Activity”, “People” and “Place”. Analysing these experiences within sports activities developed in water, land and air as per the characterization made by Aspás (2000), the active recreational elements are the distinguishing factors in the study. This research’s contribution is intended to be theoretical, going further in active sport tourist events theory; and methodological, aiming to find a motivational and strategic model through which demand can be increased.

The theoretical support used in this approach allows an operationalization of the concepts and variables, and also allows theories and hypotheses to be tested, checked and proved.

Empirical tourism studies on motivation and experience focus on a more qualitative approach. This research will approach both perspectives according to the research study object and to the study general object. In the first stage it was vital to establish the necessary steps to ensure access to informants and events that were included in the study. After ascertaining the previously reported study events in the first stage, all organizers proved cooperative, emphasizing the importance of the study.

5.1. Framework, Constructs, and Variables

5.1.1. Framework

Considering the theoretical framework, three study areas were identified as the central subject of this work: tourism, sport events, and recreational participation, which have been extensively discussed. Despite the fact that the subjects are not similar, they converge at certain points when the tourism sector is coordinated with sport events to attract tourists to less popular destinations, as it is understood that there is already a significant number of tourists whose main vacation activity is sport.

According to Higham (2007a), visitors look for new and diversified experiences in sport, thereby contributing to build a distinctive profile of tourism destinations. With this idea in mind and before initiating the methodological discussion, it is convenient to converge the analysis on a conceptual and integrated framework, which will serve the purposes of the empirical analysis and take an oriented look at the guiding thread for this idea, which can be illustrated in Figure 22:

A model for “Recreational Sport Tourism Events’ Experience”
- A participant’s perspective -

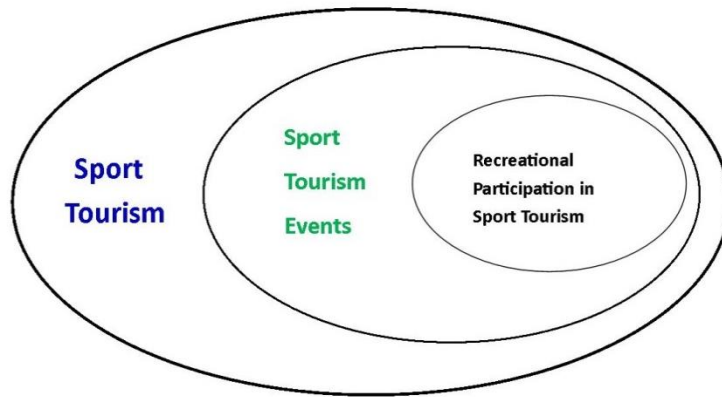


Figure 22 – Major areas of the study in the Research Problem

Source: Own elaboration

Facing the complexity of the subjects composing this study object, research was implemented to analyse the experience of tourists’ and/or excursionists’ recreational participation in sport tourism events. While connecting the experience to the problems centred on that experience, this study targets a series of aspects, issues and proposals concerning participants who travel to take part in sport tourism events.

Considering all the different developments based on the literature review until now, a conceptual model was created based exclusively on Weed and Bull’s (2004) model, which systematizes the experience of a sport tourism event based on “Activity”, “People” and “Place”. Weed (2005).later suggested that each element or all the elements globally might be essential to the experience.

For this study it was necessary to perceive the meaning of each construct and whether they could have a positive effect on the experience or not. It was also necessary to perceive which of them would most affect the experience *per se*.

A model for “Recreational Sport Tourism Events’ Experience”
- A participant’s perspective -

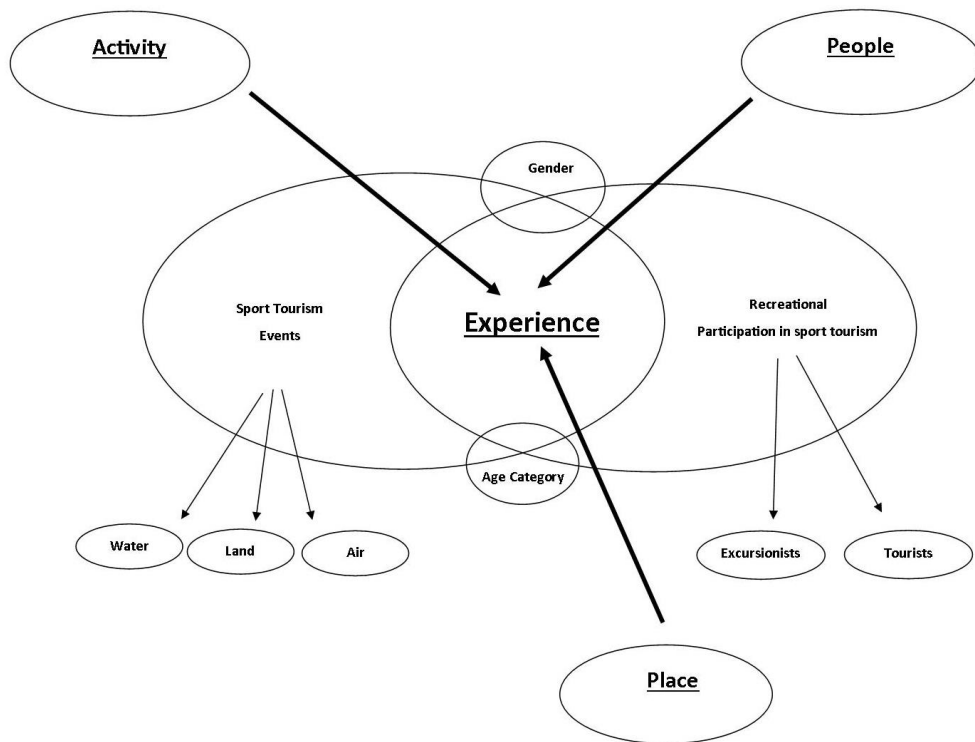


Figure 23 – Conceptual Model I for Recreational Participation in Sport Tourism Events Experience

Source: Own elaboration

5.1.2. Constructs

This study considers and develops Weed and Bull’s (2004) concept, on which it is based. This concept explains that sport tourism is seen as a social, cultural and economic phenomenon arising from the unique interaction between “Activity”, “People” and “Place”. According to these authors, the destination, together with its features and environment, is linked to “Activity” and its practice; the travel element and all its organization connects “People” and “Place”, and finally the motives for travelling interconnect the three elements. They are the three study constructs, interconnected or not, that are the starting point to reach the experience obtained by the participants in a recreational sport tourism event. The constructs were studied first *per se*, and after that the variables related with them were added, taken from quotes by other researchers of sport tourism events.

To better understand the significance and interaction of the constructs (“Activity”, “Place”, “People”) and their relevance in the experience of recreational sport tourism events, it is essential to consider each one individually and also what was written about them up to the present days. Musa, Higham and Carr (2015) divide their study into three parts, basing it on Weed and Bull’s (2004) theory. In the context of their study, “Activity” relates to the geographical, historical and social development of mountaineering; “People” focuses on those who directly or indirectly engage in the activity of mountaineering, which includes the motivation, personality, experience, satisfaction and behaviour of mountaineering tourists; and “Place” addresses unique destination contexts relating to the hosting of mountaineers to facilitate their climb and impacts on environment and host community, together with management practices.

These authors mentioned the three constructs based on Weed and Bull (2004) and related them according to their own study. However, these constructs may be individually studied, as other authors did, by giving each one a unique relevance according to what was intended to be highlighted. Below, each one will be separately addressed:

Activity

Among the three constructs and looking at sport, “Activity” is undoubtedly the least questionable construct; however, it is not just limited to the sport practised. Besides the intended sport and how it is to be played, it is necessary to take into account that activities are not all the same and can vary according to: recreational or competition activities, individual or team activities and where they are supposed to be carried out, that is, the physical environment, the ground morphological conditions to implement the activity. Accordingly, this construct is interconnected with “Place”.

This physical activity executed in the context of recreational sport tourism events carried out in special conditions. Besides taking place outside the usual habitat, it is also practised for leisure. Considering that the player’s physical condition might not correspond to the level supposedly required to execute that activity, it can also be valid for the frequency of its practice by a considered player.

According to Kurtzman and Zauhar (1997), interactions between activities carried out while on vacations and considered as sport tourism events have been studied in the literature. Hinch and Higham (2001) pointed out a potential area for sports tourism research resulting from the way they structure an activity, in spatial and temporal dimensions of sport tourism. These authors position sport as the activity dimension and also consider the spatial and temporal dimensions derived from tourism. Hinch and Higham (2004) state in another study which considers the activity of mountaineering that tourism is a sort of physical activity that might be perceived as either competition or recreational, structured or non-structured, with the sole purpose of participating.

Focusing on the activity experience, Weed (2008) commented on Hennessey et al.’s (2008) work, stating that they tried to conclude whether differences exist among golfing tourists’ behaviours that would have arisen from their frequency of participation in golf in the previous year. Hennessey et al. (2008) also observed from their research that their results can inform branding strategies, develop market segmentation models and establish systems of customer relationship marketing. Accordingly, their paper shows grounding nature of work focusing on sports tourism experiences in informing research into sports tourism planning, provision and marketing. This means that it is important to understand the participants’ behaviour and the product’s impact, in this case, sport tourism events, considering the experience.

Weed (2008), recognizes that sport is a major part of the tourism product for many destinations and studies visitors participating in one such sport. For Musa, Higham and Carr (2015) the activity of mountaineering tourism covers its geography and history, the concept of experience with the nature and adventure, guided mountaineering, and the roles of Alpine clubs. Filo, Funk and O’Brien (2014) investigated charity sport events and stressed, as did Edwards and Tsouros (2006), that participation in a sport event by engaging in physical activity promoting well-being can be associated with an additional factor, charity, thereby contributing to a cause.

Many of these physical activities are studied and explored separately, because in economic terms they have begun to be quite profitable, although they require a large

initial investment to accommodate participants. In Portugal there are golf and surfing, for example, as leisure activities with huge demand from foreign tourists.

Effectively, Portugal’s quality as a “Place” was already confirmed in 2017 by the World Tourism Awards in the category Best Tourism Destination, thereby becoming the first European country to receive this award. As can be seen below, “Place” has an essential role for experience of recreational sport tourism events.

Place

Place may be considered the most important construct for the tourism issue; the better the conditions of the destination to engage in the “Activity”, the more rewarding the experience for the event’s participant, and more frequently it will be repeated. Therefore, this is the construct which has been most studied by researchers up to now.

Crompton (1979) said that motivations have been used to describe and to segment markets, contributing to understanding the desire to travel (push) and explaining the choice of destination (pull). Kirkup and Sutherland (2015, p.4) mentioned Tsai (2002), who claims that “tourists develop emotional relationships between places they visit and themselves”.

In turn, Gartner (1989) suggested that the traveller choose the destination according to a unique benefit package to provide the greatest intrinsic reward that is, the place must possess the ideal conditions to engage into a sport that might lead the participant to travel and wish to try it. Gibson (1998) considered that it is essential to the success of sport tourism destinations to assess the leisure traveler’s motivations and expectations in what experiences is concerned.

Harrison-Hill and Chalip (2005) noted the relevance of the destination as a major factor for sport tourism experience and claimed there is a need to interconnect sport and the host destination, thereby optimizing the quality of experiences obtained. Thus, infrastructure and services are essential to complement the sports offer and increase the experience, which can be perceived from the perspective of the spectator, the athlete or the fan. Palrão and Filipe (2016) highlighted too the importance of the infrastructures for sporting activities in choosing the tourist destination.

Filipe (2016) showed how tourism may fail because of the lack of coordination in terms of the creation of infrastructures in the destination place (supporting a golf course). Standeven and Knop (1999) declare that sport tourism, derived from the combination of both experiences, is established as a physical activity directly related to the place where it is carried out, and cannot be separated.

Hinch and Higham (2011) defined place as space which has been infused with meaning, and stressed that tourism spaces are increasingly infused with the meaning through sport. They also said that the segmentation of sport tourism requires more attention in future research and the connection between sport and a specific place makes it impossible to copy that experience due to the exclusive connection to the place where it occurred, despite the possibility of playing tennis in any country in the world, each match played in each country will create a different experience due to the local characteristics. Therefore, it is an inexhaustible source, with the possibility to create as many experiences as different events, which, with quality, will continue to attract participants.

As Costa and Chalip (2005) explain, natural amenities in local communities, such as rivers, mountains, and trekking paths, can be advertised as attractions among individuals willing to visit such places in order to participate in their favourite sporting activity. Accordingly, as previously mentioned, Portugal is undoubtedly a strong attraction due to its natural conditions and weather. Standeven and Knop (1999) referred that the interaction of tourists with place result in the experience – staged or real. They also said that the nature of tourism is based in the experience of places other than the tourist’s homeland. These places’ characteristics are often unique to each tourist and are perceived as their differences and similarities become part of the tourist’s conscious experience.

According to Kaplanidou and Vogt (2007), the intention to return to the destination to play a sport is not influenced by satisfaction with the event, but by the image of the tourist destination and experiences. Hennessey et al. (2008) in their turn, mention the need to look into and understand tourist’s experiences at a destination to identify the factors resulting in increased levels of visitor satisfaction. As stated by Filipe and Yordanova (2016), quoting Cooper et al. (2008), who claims that tourism

destinations can be considered as tourist products themselves and they present, for instance, the sky resort of Bansko (Bulgaria) to show the importance of creating local infrastructures to reach the tourist satisfaction.

Papadimitriou and Gibson (2008) elaborate on the destination images of sports tourists, especially comparing the benefits that active sports tourists sought from their destination experience, and the extent to which they were attained. A specific benefit they could track was sport experience, which allowed for some interaction between the elements of place and activity. They also said that it is important to develop a deeper understanding of tourists’ perceptions and experiences of these places as one component of strategies to ensure the long-term sustainability of these locations.

Weed and Bull (2004) stated that – apart from elite athletes, who do not choose where to participate – “Place” is the main issue for the experience. For Mlozi and Pesamaa (2013) a unique experience requires some factors closely related to the “Place”, especially those factors that contribute to the attachment to a place. On this, see, for instance, the interesting example of the “Dark Sky Project” in Alentejo, Portugal (Alqueva region) in Rodrigues and Filipe (2016).

According to Higham and Hinch (2009), “Place” can be understood as the meaningful space, which is constantly reinterpreted and redefined. In some geographical contexts, “Place” is also defined considering some historical associations and with cultural sporting activities. Musa, Higham and Carr (2015), through the construct “Place”, intend to examine the environmental impacts, “mountaineering commodification” and risk perception, ethical issues in mountaineering, health and safety issues and management perspectives of mountaineering tourism, as they exist in different spatial contexts.

Some studies also connect “Place” to “People”. According to Harmon, Zinn and Gleason (2005) consider place attachment as a dimension of the person–place relationship and it can provide information regarding visitors and their connection to specific public lands. Whereas Anderson and Fulton (2008) established a connection between place attachment and recreational activity participation.

In this study, the final construct “People” is important considering that the development of sporting activities requires participants and also team members, guides, porters, regulators, search and rescue and host community residents, and involves some forms of interpersonal interactions.

People

The construct “People” refers to all the individuals, other than the participants themselves, required to engage in a sport, such as: organization, attendants, the community, and the interactivity among them and how they develop. It is also important to understand the participant’s profile through his/her behaviour and lifestyle according to the physical activity played. A tourist willing to play golf is different from a tourist willing to surf. This is very important in the context of sport tourism. There is a major concern in writing about economic, environmental and social impacts, but all this is centred on the people that generate those impacts. Finally, one must consider the human environment associated with a sport, making each sport tourism attraction unique, which very few other tourism segments are able to match (Hinch & Higham, 2004).

For Gammon and Rawshaw (2013), playing the sport we used to play when we were younger, or watching a match in familiar environments may take us back to some moments in the past, spent with family and friends, some of which, perhaps, may no longer be with us. Therefore, sporting events may induce non-sporting reflections, as well as triggering memories of people we have shared periods of our lives with. Weed (2005), however, refers that even physical activities carried out in more desert or hostile environments involve types of human interaction and that participation is referred to in connection to the activity subculture.

Shipway and Jones (2008a) focused on the human aspect of the sports tourism experience, especially in the study of social identity and applied Stebbins’ (2007) serious leisure framework. The key aspects of the experience provided by interactions between people were found to be the unique philosophy, language and behaviours, often resulting in similar attitudes, values and even dress codes among the studied groups. They also referred a social identity theory which focuses “we” and “I”. That is, the individual refers first to his relationship to the group and only then to his own personal

characteristics. Social identities are important for a number of reasons: first a sense of belonging, a socially meaningful place, a means to connect to others, and enhancing self-worth and self-esteem through valued identities.

However, Klaus and Maklan (2011) related the human aspects with customer experience. They refer to sports tourism customer experience as the customers’ comprehensive assessment several aspects, including social, personal, destination aspects, and their relationship to the environment (social and nature) and their personal growth related to challenges and sense of *communitas*. Shipway, Holloway and Jones (2013) approach the connection between the construct “People” and group affiliation with the specific example of distance running in which there is a development and confirmation of a running identity, including social fulfilment.

For Musa, Higham and Carr (2015), through the construct “People” it is intended to explore the narrative construction of self by committing to mountaineering, gender issues, tourism experiences in this discipline, the mountaineers’ personality and flow experience, as well as the mountaineers’ responsible behaviour related to safety and security.

Van Rheenen, Cernaianu and Sobry (2017) included the human element in the multiplicity of elements, such as social, cultural and physical experiences, in sport tourism research which complicated scholarly efforts to define the field. Was also identified the need for a multi-dimensional framework for sport tourism research, comprehending time, space, sport as activity, but also the larger supply and demand of these touristic activities and experiences.

Gross and Brown (2006) referred that Kyle et al. (2004) connected the concept of place attachment to “Activity” by studying hikers on a particular trail. They noted a relationship between dimension levels of involvement and place attachment, along with some predictive properties of a proposed model. These finding pointed to the importance of including these dimension levels as measures in the current study of tourism experiences.

Taking some considerations into account which help to better understand the concept of each construct, it is important to stress the idea that their strength lies in the

capacity to interact as a whole with the experience. Thus, we arrive at Weed and Bull’s (2004) conceptualization of sports tourism as arising from the unique interaction of activity, people, and place. The focus is on the interaction of “Activity”, “People” and “Place”, thus emphasizing the synergistic nature of the phenomenon and moving it away from a dependence on either sport or tourism as the primary defining factor.

5.1.3. Variables

Hennessey et al. (2008) mention that Weed and Bull (2004) categorize sports tourists according to the importance and type of sport participation included in their tourism experience, including their motives, personal characteristics, and the primary reason for travel. These authors also recommend that sports tourism providers and policy makers should use this model to develop effective business strategies.

Later, variables were added to the initial three constructs of Weed and Bull (2004), who conceptualized sport and tourism as a complex interaction between “Activity”, “People” and “Place” During the bibliographical review, several authors pointed out these variables as important to look into and refer to improve the sport tourism participants’ experience. While several authors focused on Weed and Bull’s (2004) conceptualization, such as Harrison-Hill and Chalip (2005); Hennessey et al. (2008); Weed (2008); Downward, Lumsdon and Weston (2009); Kaplanidou and Voigt (2010); Kaplanidou and Gibson (2010) and validated its importance to assess the sport tourism event’s participants, none of them considered it as the basis for a study.

However, throughout this study, some isolated references came up on the constructs that allowed collecting grouping of the different variables mentioned by the different authors on “Activity”, “People” and “Place”, considering that many of them referred to the same idea, albeit with a different designation. A conceptual model was built with these variables, which was subsequently tested in in-depth interviews. Despite the various researchers who measured different dimensions (such as satisfaction, value, motivation, benefits, desire, intention to return, destination selection, will to travel, among others) in their studies, in the case of experience and based on these three constructs, no suitable scale was found that could satisfy all these requirements.

The table below shows the variables collected for the three constructs that will subsequently be part of the conceptual model. These variables were collected along the literature review and taken into account for the assessment of the experience in a recreational sport tourism event. The variables were allocated to the different constructs “Activity”, “People” and “Place” according to the interpretation of the whole document, and somehow, in that document, the variable was referred to a specific construct. However, during its analysis, the incidence of that variable falls more frequently on the same construct. One should note that sometimes the same nomenclature is not used for the same construct, so, for instance, it is possible to refer to the construct “Place” as “Location”.

These variables were later confirmed by the events managers during the in-depth interviews, together with some others identified in the field within the corresponding events, considered by these managers as currently crucial to attract participants.

Table 1 – Variables on constructs based on the literature review for the conceptual model

Construct	Variables	Publication	Author (s)	Year
Place	Weather	“how weather affected the daily use of outdoor recreation areas and found a series of relationships between participation rates in various sports and weather parameters”.	Paul	1972, p. 132
Activity	Increase fitness level	“physical motivators – directly related to physical needs and drives such as fitness, sports”.	McIntosh Goeldner and Ritchie	1995, p. 27
Place	Ability to learn	“the ability to learn about a new destination or culture comprises the final sub-category of intrinsic motivation”.	Aicher, Karadakis and Eddosary	1998, p. 218
People	Rewards, recognition	“extrinsic motives arise from primarily external sources and are based upon the outcomes of sport (i.e. winning, receiving prizes)”.	Reeves	2000, p. 33

A model for “Recreational Sport Tourism Events’ Experience”
- A participant’s perspective -

Activity	Challenge, adventure	“competition is highly related to achievement. Sport participants are intrinsically motivated to enter evaluative situations to test their own competence”.	McDonald, Milne and Hong	2002, p. 103
Activity	Self-esteem	“on marathon runners was influential, as they concluded that personal and self-esteem motivations were more important than social and competitive motives”.	Ogles and Masters	2003, p. 330
Activity	Prestige	“kayakers wore logo-bearing clothing with logos related to both kayaking in general, but also destinations that had been visited”.	Kane and Zink	2004, p. 173
Activity	Health	“the perceived well-being and excitement induced by the respective activity appears as a core motive”.	Hallmann, Dallmeyer and Breuer	2004, p. 42
Activity	Improve one’s skills	“there are also some very specific motives, which are peculiar to sport such as a need to compete, a desire to win and the opportunity to develop current skill levels”.	Robinson and Gammon	2004, p.60
People	Social identity/ Group affiliation	“‘serious’ participation in sport or leisure is, however, able to provide a positive social identity”. “serious participants of a sport or activity would represent a distinct segment within that social world”.	Green and Jones	2005, p. 169
Place	Travel	“while the reasons why people choose to travel to a particular destination may be many or few, one of the increasingly common reason is to participate in or experience sport”.	Higham	2005, p. 1
Place	Proximity	“are located make them convenient locations for a variety of sporting events; the proximity of rural Wales”.	Higham	2005, p. 29

A model for “Recreational Sport Tourism Events’ Experience”
- A participant’s perspective -

Place	Accessibility	“proximity to visitor markets and accessibility are important factors in the analysis of sport tourism destination”.	Higham	2005, p. 20
People	Social recognition	“participation in some sports remains defined by factors such as social class. Irrespective of culture or historical period, people use sport to distinguish themselves and to reflect their status and prestige”.	Hinch and Higham	2005, p. 5
People	Socialize	“a sports tourist golfer who, as a participant, would travel to various golf courses, enjoying the social contacts, the programmed leisure activities and amenities”.	Kurtzman and Zauher	2005, p. 24
People	Group affiliation	“would be the true loyal fan travelling to away games or competitions because of the sport sense of belonging and affiliation”.	Kurtzman and Zauher	2005, p.26
Place	Travel	“the decision to travel and participate in or attend a sporting activity is intentionally engineered by external forces”. “travel decisions are made not only for extrinsic motives such as temporary escapism, feelings, desire for involvement but also for extrinsic reasons – rewards, recognition, prestige”.	Kurtzman and Zauher	2005, p. 21
Activity	Risk	“that participation does not come without its risks”. “risk, when perceived as a challenge, adds to the overall enjoyment of the experience, and, hence is an integral part of the activity”.	Cater	2006, p. 318

A model for “Recreational Sport Tourism Events’ Experience”
- A participant’s perspective -

Place	Security	“athletes made public decisions not to travel to events, and national teams withdrew from international competitions. These immediate effects have now dissipated; however, others, such as increased security costs and measures have, by necessity, continued”.	Taylor and Toohey	2006, p. 201
Place	Benefits of escape	“support for the third hypothesis indicates perceived travel benefits of escape, social interaction, prestige, relaxation, cultural experience, cultural learning and knowledge exploration are contributing sources to motivate participants to compete in a foreign sporting event.”	Funk, Toohey and Bruun	2007, p. 242
People	Socializing	“the primary reason participants chose to attend the Australia University Games was to socialise and be with their friends”.	Cassidy and Pegg	2008, p. 5
Place	Natural amenities	“natural amenities (i.e. rivers, mountains, and trekking paths) in local communities can be promoted as attractions to active individuals who are willing to visit such places in order to participate in their favourite sporting activity”.	Papadimitriou and Gibson	2008, p. 38

A model for “Recreational Sport Tourism Events’ Experience”
- A participant’s perspective -

Place	Destination image	<p>“thus, increasingly the regions have expressed a desire to exploit this growing demand for domestic tourism by actively promoting local amenities as attractions for active sport tourists”.</p> <p>“active sport tourists are attracted to the mountainous terrain to take part in cycling, walking, hiking, horse riding, and skiing”.</p>	Papadimitriou and Gibson	2008, p. 38
Place	Organisational environment	“the active sports tourists’ images of a sports event include mental representations about the organisational, environmental, physical, social and emotional aspects of the event”.	Hallman Kaplanidou and Breuer	2009, p. 33
Place	Climate	“the disparate climate requirements and preferences of tourists within these major market segments, as well as between groups within each major market segment (golf, ski, and windsurfing segments of sports tourism, for example), create very different demand-side climate sensitivities within the tourism sector”.	Scott and Lemieux	2010, p. 112
Place	Organizational components	“for active sports tourists, emotional, physical and organisational image associations were clustered closer”.	Hallman Kaplanidou and Breuer	2010, p. 32
Activity	Health	“despite this role of sport participation as a behaviour that can stimulate an holistic health and well-being of the people”.	Brunelli and Parisi	2011, p. 1

A model for “Recreational Sport Tourism Events’ Experience”
- A participant’s perspective -

Activity	Challenging myself	“but it is so challenging and iconic that it appears to attract many athletes who are actually involved more generically in challenging sports and events”.	Getz and McConnell	2011, p. 335
Activity	Pleasure	“they take great pleasure in competing and spend huge amounts of time and money on their sport”.	Getz and McConnell	2011, p. 335
Activity	Prestige	“can attract participants wherever they are held while other events are tied to specific destinations and can function as their hallmark events. How prestige and “iconic” status are achieved, and what exactly they mean, has to be explored”. “however, completing the event brings a high sense of personal accomplishment and prestige”.	Getz and McConnell	2011, p. 336
Activity	Pleasure	“sport participation (e.g., white water rafting) emotional arousal drives the participants’ sport participation quests, drives the pleasure they receive from such participation”.	Lee, Lim and Pedersen	2011, p. 73
Place	Escape	“similarly, sport suffers from a multitude of approaches to motivation; some of which (e.g. recuperation, escape and self-determination)”.	Robinson and Gammon	2011, p. 60

A model for “Recreational Sport Tourism Events’ Experience”
- A participant’s perspective -

Place	Safety	“safety was identified by those responsible for organising and delivering events as a key priority, with less attention given to user experience, crowd comfort and satisfaction”.	Kendrick, Haslam and Waterson	2013, p. 1
Activity	Self-esteem	“self-esteem and development and ultimately to personal fulfilment. In other words, experiences transform travellers, so they become more motivated to seek fulfilment of the higher-order needs”.	Patterson, Getz and Gubb	2014, p. 299
Activity	Rewards, gifts	“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 other rewards, which could motivate a person to participate in the event”.	Aicher and Brenner	2015, p. 63
Activity	Participation	“participations and pleasure sports share close and unique associations with the tourism industry. Many, such as mountaineering, have originated and evolved from leisure/tourism activities”.	Musa, Higham and Carr	2015, p. 8

Place	Infrastructures	“the presented advantages are the cleanness of areas and the creation of infrastructures and accessibility forms”.	Palrão and Filipe	2016, p. 219
-------	-----------------	--	-------------------	--------------

Source: Own elaboration

Thus, there were nine variables that were subsequently grouped by meaning and appended to the construct “Activity”: Improve one’s skills; Participation; Health; Self-esteem; Pleasure; Adventure; Risk; Prestige; Rewards. In the construct “Place” ten variables were included: Escape; Safety; Weather; Environment; Infrastructures; Destination image; Travel; Ability to learn; Organizational components; Proximity. Finally, in the construct “People” only three variables were considered: Group affiliation; Socialize; Recognition.

5.2. Objectives, Conceptual Model and Hypotheses

5.2.1. Objectives

The definition of the problem should be laid down as specifically as possible, with reference to the object and to the subjects, as well as the variables and to its formulation, as a research question.

According to Quivy and Campenhoudt (1992), research questions present the project while trying to express in the most precise way what the researcher wants to know, clarify or know better. While building the questions, it is important to structure these questions as clearly as possible, in order to make it viable to work on them and obtain the elements of the reply. Considering that the core object of the study is recreational sport tourism events, the general and specific objectives were set, followed by the research hypotheses starting from the study domains considered in the problem. In order to achieve the underlining research problem of this study, it is intended to reach the following general objectives:

- Contributing to the characterization of recreational sport tourism events.

- Developing the construction and validation of a scale to measure the experience of recreational participants in recreational sport tourism events.
- Conceptualizing a model for the experience of recreational participation in sport tourism events based on the model drawn up by Weed and Bull (2004).

Based on the main purposes and to answer these general objectives, this research set the following specific objectives:

- Developing a conceptual framework to explain the concept of recreational participant based on the *soft definition of sport tourism* given by Gammon and Robinson (2003).
- Understanding why participants engage in recreational sport tourism events.
- Identifying the implicit variables in the participant’s decision to experience recreational sport tourism events.
- Determining the explanatory variables for each construct in the participant’s experience in recreational sport tourism events.
- Determining which constructs (“Activity”, “Place”, “People”) weigh more in the participant’s experience in recreational sport tourism events.
- Giving a theoretical contribution in order to achieve interrelationships among different variables of the constructs.

Additionally, the following objectives are also considered:

- Assessing what type of event (air, land, water) provides a better experience to the participant in recreational sport tourism events.
- Understanding what type of participant (tourist or excursionist) gets a better experience from recreational sport tourism events.
- Understanding if the experience is perceived differently according to gender in recreational sport tourism events.
- Understanding if the experience is perceived differently according to age category in recreational sport tourism events.

5.2.2. Conceptual Model

Following the bibliographical review, and before starting to list the hypotheses, it is important at this stage to observe the conceptual model with the collected variables. Besides the presented constructs and variables, it is also necessary to mention: the type of sport tourism events, in water, air and land environments (Aspas, 2000); type of sport tourism participant: sport excursionists and sport tourists (Nogawa, Yamguchi & Hagi, 1996); and gender and age category differences among participants in the evaluation of the experience (Chen, 2010; Rudman, 1986).

It is also intended to understand whether the variables allocated to the constructs, which were found and justified with the bibliographical review, are those required to define the constructs. These variables will be materialized only with the conclusion of the in-depth interviews, when the conceptual model is built. The point is to ascertain how many variables make up each construct. As we can see, at this stage, in the conceptual model below:

- The construct “Activity” is composed by nine variables.
- The construct “Place” is composed by ten variables.
- The construct “People” is composed by three variables.

Another important issue of this study is related to the assessment of the positive effect of the constructs on the “Experience”, thereby eventually confirming the theoretical model of Weed and Bull (2004). This assessment of these three constructs will be estimated through data analysis.

1. The evaluation of “Experience” in the construct “Activity” is perceived as positive.

Gammon and Robinson (1997) include the status of the sport activity in the motivational profile of the tourist. According to Weed and Bull (2004) the sole motive for participating in sports is the desire to win and to test abilities. The perceived well-being and excitement induced by the respective activity appears as a core motive.

Shipway and Jones (2007) stress the importance of identification between the participants had the activity, together with the nature of the event itself.

2. The evaluation of “Experience” in the construct “Place” is perceived as positive.

According to Weed and Bull (2004), sport involves, first of all, some active pursuit, which requires specific locations and, as Higham (2005) stated, despite many people can quite easily pursue their sport close to home, they prefer to travel elsewhere to participate in what might be regarded as a preferred environment. By his turn, Higham (2005) showed that specific sport tourism experiences depend of the different characteristics of the destinations, such as distinct sport and tourism resources. Hinch and Higham (2004) underlined the importance of natural landscape and cultural heritage given the fact that they are not reproducible. These authors stress that the experiential value of these sports events depends largely on the landscape and weather conditions where they take place.

3. The evaluation of “Experience” in the construct “People” is perceived as positive.

For Yusof and Douvis (2001), involvement is an important contributor to the individual’s identity, which is again important for the pillar “People”. Costa and Chalip (2005), who have studied social and cultural aspects, have demonstrated that participants create their own particular space to socialize amongst themselves and that they don’t interact with the natives or visit the place. For Shipway and Jones (2007) stress the importance of the participants’ identification with the activity, and the nature of the event itself. This explains the unique ethos of the group, the significant personal effort expended, and the benefits in the long run obtained by the athletes and the career structure associated with this social world.

Considering the previous information, it is possible now to conceive the following conceptual model:

A model for “Recreational Sport Tourism Events’ Experience”
- A participant’s perspective -

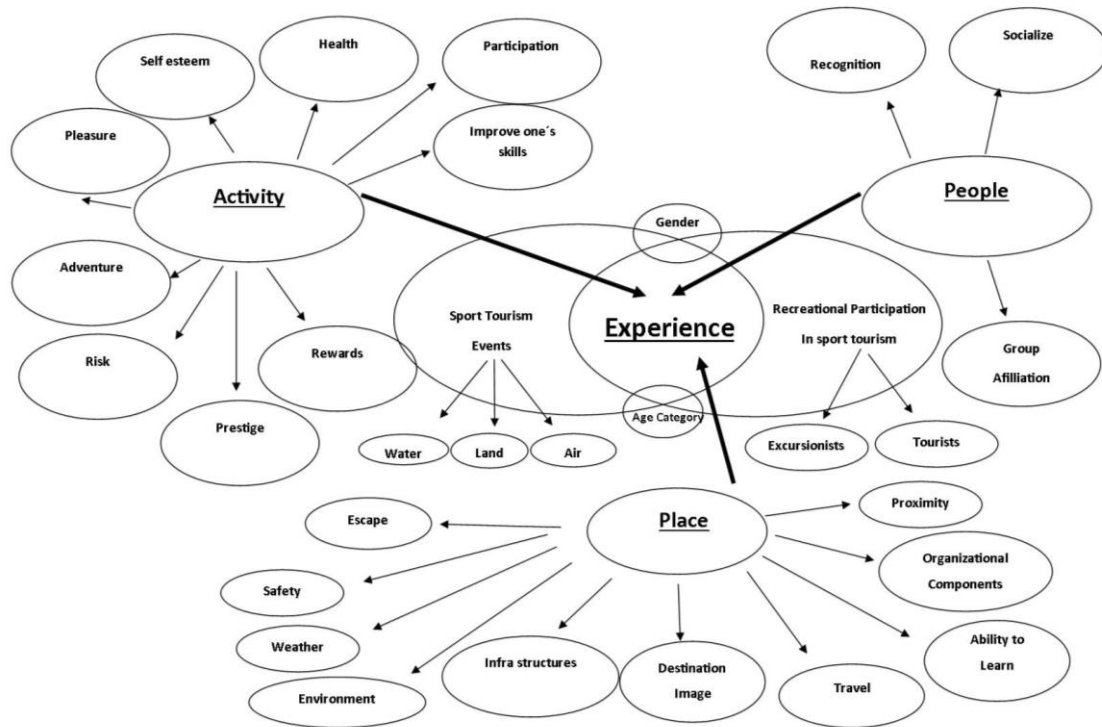


Figure 24 – Conceptual Model II for Recreational Participation in Sport Tourism Events Experience

Source: Own elaboration

Through the bibliographical review and the number of studies on each construct, it is noticeable that researchers give more importance to “Place”, considering the number of studied variables, followed by “Activity” and finally “People”. In this research, it is important to assess whether the participants’ opinion is similar by defining the same relevance hierarchy among the three constructs, since this study looks into the perspective of these constructs.

It is intended to assess the relevance of the several variables for each participant, and how each participant may be affected, either positively or negatively, in his experience in a recreational sport tourism event. Though not all the items are alterable or even controllable in order to raise the number of participations, it is important to understand which contributed more to a positive experience. To add further detail to this model, a study of participants in the three recreational sport tourism events and in-depth interviews to event’s organizers was undertaken, not only to confirm the variables found in the literature, but also to ascertain whether there is currently yet another variable that should be added to improve the final experience in recreational sport tourism events.

5.2.3. Hypotheses

Starting from the specific objectives previously presented, the research hypotheses were set to answer several questions raised throughout the study and which constitute this study’s central research.

The first two hypotheses aim to understand if the type of event (air, water or land) and the type of participant (sport tourist or sport excursionist) are relevant in evaluating the experience. In this case, the study domains are sport tourism events and recreational participation in sport tourism.

H1: The evaluation of “Experience” varies according to the type of event (water, land, air).

H2: The evaluation of “Experience” varies according to the type of participant (tourist, excursionist).

The last two hypotheses look into age and gender and their relevance in the experience evaluation.

H3: The evaluation of “Experience” varies according to gender.

H4: The evaluation of “Experience” varies according to the age category (< 30, 30-60; and > 60).

The following figure and table summarize the information concerning this study’s specific and operational objectives and research hypotheses, the formulation of which is based on the bibliographical review and aims to answer the objectives set out for this research.

A model for “Recreational Sport Tourism Events’ Experience”
- A participant’s perspective -

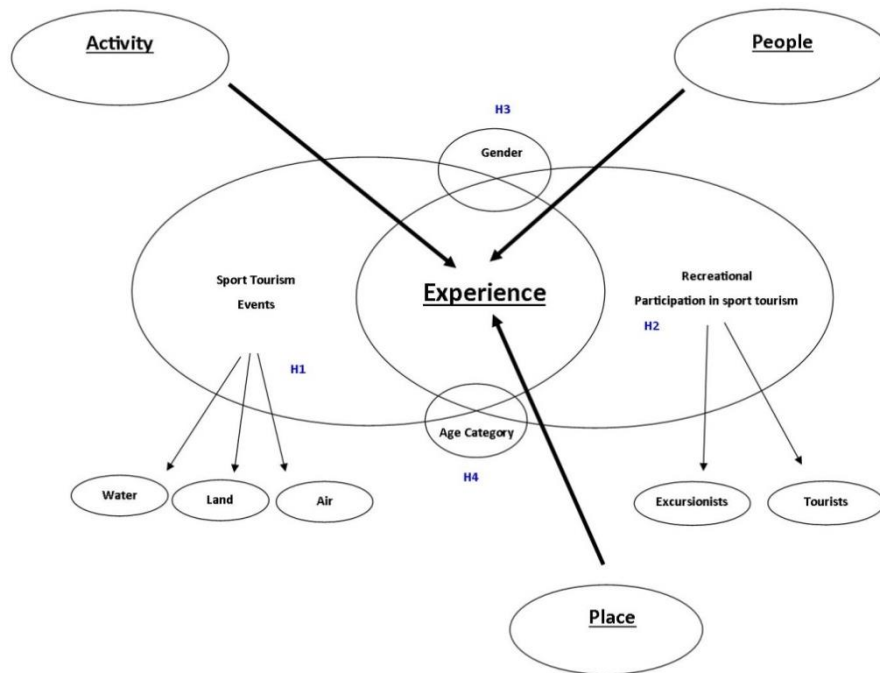


Figure 25 – Research hypotheses

Source: Own elaboration

Table 2 – Relationship between specific objectives and hypotheses

Specific Study Objectives	Research Hypotheses
to assess what type of event (air, land, water) provides a better experience to the participant of recreational sport tourism events.	H1: the evaluation of “Experience” varies according to the type of event (water, land, air).
to understand what type of participant (tourist or excursionist) gets a better experience from recreational sport tourism events.	H2: the evaluation of “Experience” varies according to the type of participant (tourist, excursionist).
to understand if the experience is perceived differently according to gender in recreational sport tourism events.	H3: the evaluation of “Experience” varies according to gender.
to understand if the experience is perceived differently according to age category in recreational sport tourism events.	H4: the evaluation of “Experience” varies according to the age category.

Source: Own elaboration

In the next chapter and prior to explaining the methodology that allows to make the developments after these hypotheses, three specific recreational sport tourism events in Portugal will be described in detail to provide more insights for the study.

A model for “Recreational Sport Tourism Events’ Experience”
- A participant’s perspective -

6. Recreational Sport Tourism Events in Portugal

6.1. General Considerations

This chapter focuses on the study of recreational sport tourism events in Portugal, where this subject’s history is very short. However, it is essential to understand the path travelled in this work and allows reflection on its evolution in this country. Due to the lack of data on this subject, a preparatory study was required. Therefore a preliminary survey with qualitative questions, completed by the participants during three specific events was conducted, concerning the participants’ needs.

According to the World Tourism Organization (UNWTO) (2003), the events market at this time was already becoming a highly specialized and significant segment for tourism. Sport events can be tourism catalysts for the host destinations and are perceived as generating positive economic outcomes. However, maximising the economic benefits of sport tourism events can be challenging and the ability of events to produce a return on this investment can be adversely impacted on by a lack of coordinated planning between sport and tourism organizations.

Every weekend, throughout Portugal, at least one sport tourism event takes place. It is important and adequate to study not only tourism (ca. 16,000 articles published in foreign press about Portugal in 2016, according to the newspaper *Semanário Expresso* in 10th June 2017) but also sport. Sport tourism is beginning to develop in this country, both socially and in terms of infrastructures. It should be kept in mind that Portugal was one of the first countries to include this subject in its Constitution as early as in 1976, in its first version (*Constituição da República Portuguesa*). In fact, the right of all to access physical culture and sport was included and, once again, this is about to become a standard bearer by creating a consultation model within the national health system dedicated to fostering physical activities.

Portugal managed to gather some sports ambassadors such as Cristiano Ronaldo in football or McNamara in surfing, who has marked Portugal as the most required destination for surfers in Europe, thereby turning this country into the most recent

European country to present all World Surf League competitions. As an example of an activity promoted by the Portuguese government, it is interesting to point out golf in the Algarve, which allows the seasonality of tourism to be slightly upset. Until now this region has been sought mainly for its beaches and warm weather, but the regional authorities are expanding the tourist demand to other products in the region. As Hinch and Higham (2004) say, golf, a worldwide growing dynamic activity with an increasingly larger number of tourists, was adequately developed and marketed, thereby becoming a successful profitable tourism product.

Frequently there is an effort to implement sport events in different regions, other than the usual tourism regions, thereby allowing other destinations. Kaplanidou and Vogt (2010) show that destinations use sport events to attract participants and spectators, who then hold perceptions of both the sport event and the destination. As an example of what is stated by these authors concerning Portugal, the 2017 Horseball Champions League can be presented. This competition was organized by the International Horseball Federation (FIHB), played for the first time in Beja, a less popular destination among tourists, thereby allowing to draw ca. 140 players from several countries in addition to the delegations and supporters. This region was visited by ca. 2,000 visitors.

It is important to understand if this type of events is nationwide, for their contribution to the hosting location’s acknowledgement and visibility, thereby promoting it as a tourism destination and often accelerating development of the local economy with new jobs and improvement of infrastructures, such as roads, hotels, or restaurants, for example. Raj, Walters and Rashid (2009) stated that events can help to develop the image and profile of a destination and may attract visitors outside of the holiday season. Events can also have significant economic impacts, contributing to the development of local communities and businesses, providing support to those who pursue economic opportunity and supporting key industrial sectors. Sport events organization is usually associated with dominantly positive impacts for the location or region where they take place. These aspects are important when regions are compared.

However, in Portugal, there are many specificities and differences between regions. The map below shows these asymmetries by highlighting overnight stays

across the country. It allows a first understanding of which regions have the most tourist demand.

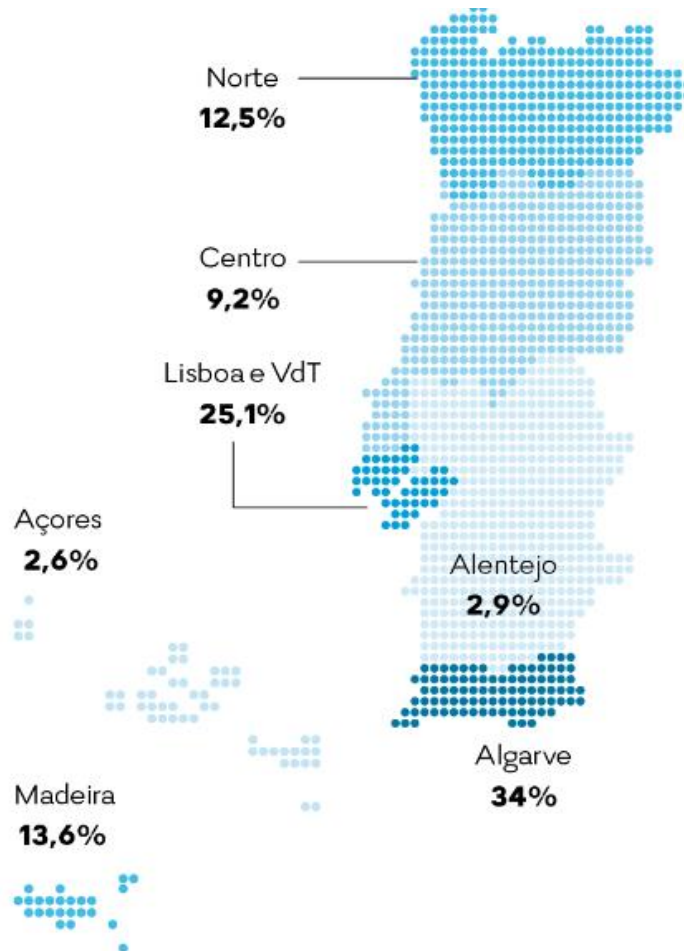


Figure 26 – Overnight stays concentration in 2015, regional asymmetries

Source: *Semanário Expresso* <http://leitor.expresso.pt/#library/expreso/semanario2328/revista-e/-e/turismo-o-segredo-do-nosso-sucesso>

Sport tourism events and tourist entertainment companies are two mobilizing factors which allow geographical diversity to be tackled by creating attraction factors that can draw participants to more remote destinations. To make the accomplishment of this type of events possible, there must be a structure supporting it, providing safety not only to the event itself and the sport connected to it, but also to the location where it takes place, so that the experience will be repeated. Also in this field, numbers show

that the amount of tourist entertainment businesses promoting these events with quality and safety has been growing. The regulation concerning the access to and exercise of the activity by tourist entertainment businesses in Portugal is quite recent. It started only in 2000 with the entry into force of Decree-law no. 204/2000 of 1 September and, specifically for sea-tourist activities, Decree-law no. 21/2002 of 31 January. While in 2008 only 285 tourist entertainment companies were registered, by 2015 there were already 2,661 registered companies and in 2016, 1,500 new companies were created. There has been a clear investment in tourism worldwide and this dynamic forced Portugal to react by responding to the growth in the tourists’ number.

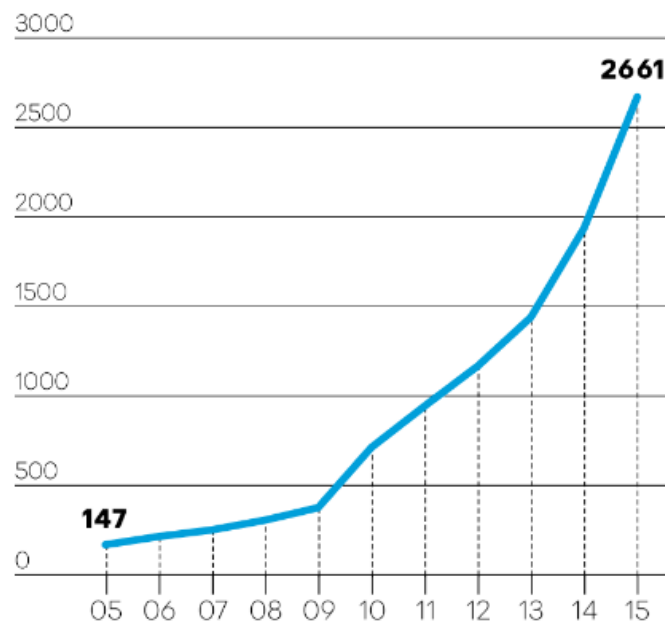


Figure 27 – Registered tourist entertainment companies

Source: *Semanário Expresso* <http://leitor.expresso.pt/#library/expresso/semanario2328/revista-e-e/turismo-o-segredo-do-nosso-sucesso>

According to Article 3 of Decree-law no. 108/2009 of 15 May, the activities of the tourist entertainment businesses are organization and sale of recreational, sports and cultural activities in a natural environment or in permanent facilities for that purpose. The activities are recreational and have touristic interest for the region in which they take place. In this sense and aiming at contributing to a better understanding of this

emerging worldwide phenomenon that is recreational sport tourism events, this concept is considered here, taking into account that tourism is undoubtedly the largest world industry creating growing economic benefits.

Sport, on the other hand, has become the largest global phenomenon since the beginning of this century. Sports are gaining in significance in the current lifestyle, moving away from the standardization that characterized past times. Portuguese people have become aware of the benefits of outdoor exercise, but those considered active are still few. To make these physical activities more accessible and fun, there are events where a whole range of factors are gathered to promote this type of attitude towards sport. Portugal is increasingly prepared to host large sport tourist events, such as 2017 Ironman 70.3 (which will be analysed hereafter), the 2017 Horseball Champions League, mentioned above, 2017-2018 EDP Billabong Cascais Pro, involving the top 100 of world surfing and the 2012-2017 Volvo Ocean Race among others, whose organizers rely on Portugal to execute it. There will also be other events with large international visibility, such as the Ryder Cup (golf) or the Football World Cup, and although Portugal’s application for this last competition was not selected for 2018, it may boost Portugal’s fame worldwide in the future.

Thus, sport is currently an additional factor when considering the quality and diversity of tourism offer, or when we talk about needs and motivations of tourists to attract and retain them. These social dynamics, when associated, present distinctive characteristics that give rise to a new reality, which has been coming to light throughout the world and brings about a new need to offer different and customized services including sports, leisure and open-air activities, always associated with a new experience.

According to Correia (2001), a sport event entails the management of significant economical processes. This situation requires an extended set of national and international commitments, internal and external alliances and partnerships with public bodies, sponsors and media. As regards the community, the event must be approached, explored and developed taking into account the potential benefits in terms of tourist promotion, political valuation, tax income, monetization of local structures, revitalization of the economy and sport development.

Taking into account the type of activity, this type of offer requires good organization in terms of tourism structures, namely and essentially skilled human resources with equipment as well as the suitable environment to perform each type of activity.

The growing execution of sport events in the most diverse disciplines and the displacement of tourists triggered by an event taking place at the destination has increasingly reflected the significance this sector is achieving.

6.2. Sport Tourism Events Evolution in Portugal

To implement sport tourism events, three elements are particularly required: participants, infrastructures and the organization of the event. According to Dias (2006), sports currently represent a strategical weapon available to any nation to promote its image. The better the organization of the sport event, the larger will be the positive effects in the promotion of that country in many different activities, such as tourism or commerce for example.

The issue of participants and the rise in physical activity in Portugal has been focused on more than once in this work, thereby requiring the development of infrastructures. Concerning tourism events organizing companies integrated in the tourism entertainment sector, its growth is also noticeable, as can be seen through the data provided in the previous point. We also know that the success of an event depends on thorough planning involving several operational stages. Nowadays, the expansion of all these conditions has allowed Portugal to integrate the options itinerary of other countries to put in place some of the largest world events. Campos (2003) declared that putting these large sport events into place in Portugal turns this country into a target for the development of sport infrastructures at a global level, some to accommodate the type of events, such as football stadiums, sports facilities, for example, and even others capable of attracting many tourists on their own, such as golf courses, or marinas, for example.

Portugal entered the large-scale sport events market at the beginning of the 21st century, with a particular reference to the organization of the event that marked this turn: the Euro 2004 football championship.

In Table 3, some of the large sport events are presented that have taken place in Portugal since 1927 and which have contributed to Portugal’s development. In that year the bicycle tour “*Volta a Portugal*” took place for the first time, which raises many memories, although there are no thorough studies about this subject. Further back, it is harder to gather study details, although it is obvious that all of them are large-scale and competition events, as only this type of events makes history. Nonetheless, it is hard to draw conclusions concerning the number of participants and people involved. Even today, if an event lasts longer than one day, if the tickets are free or if it takes place outdoors it is extremely complicated to count attendants correctly.

The table below lists the sports events in Portugal, considering the year of the first edition of each event, starting with alternate dates and then becoming annual since 1999. Since 1999 it is possible to find more than one large-scale event each year. However, to create this table it was decided to record only one event, considering the large number of disciplines under analysis. As can be seen, most events take place every year after their first edition. Except for the Euro 2004 (given the historical milestone in the domain), common football competitions were not considered, such as the matches between Portuguese clubs in 1st division National Football Competition (since 1934), which every year mobilizes an average of more than 20 thousand attendants for every game.

Table 3 – Examples of Sport Events in Portugal

Year of the 1st Edition	a) Name of the Event	b) Event Discipline	c) Event Classification	d) Event e) Scale	f) Place of the Event
1927 (up to the present)	Bicycle Tour Volta a Portugal	Cycling	Competition	Large-scale event	Nationwide
1947	World Field Hockey Championship	Field hockey	Competition	Mega event	Lisbon
1967 (up to the present)	Rally de Portugal	Motorsport	Competition	Large-scale event	Nationwide

A model for “Recreational Sport Tourism Events’ Experience”
- A participant’s perspective -

1975 (up to the present)	São Silvestre Race	Athletics	Competition	Large-scale event	Amadora
1977 (up to the present)	Almond Blossom Cross Country	Athletics	Competition	Large-scale event	Vilamoura
1984	Grand Prix	Formula I	Competition	Large-scale event	Estoril
1990 (up to the present)	Estoril Open	Tennis	Competition	Mega event	Estoril
1999	Basketball Junior World Championship	Basketball	Competition	Mega event	Nationwide
2000	Masters Cup Lisboa	Tennis	Competition	Mega event	Lisbon
2001	World Athletics Indoor Championship	Athletics	Competition	Mega event	Lisbon
2002	Fencing World Championship	Fencing	Competition	Mega event	Lisbon
2003	Handball World Championship	Handball	Competition	Mega event	Nationwide
2004	Euro 2004	Football	Competition	Mega event	Nationwide
2005	Dakar	Rally	Competition	Mega event	Lisbon/ Portimão
2006 (up to the present)	International Show Jumping	Horseback riding	Competition	Large-scale event	Cascais
2007 (up to the present)	Portugal Masters	Golf	Competition	Large-scale event	Vilamoura
2008	European Judo Championship	Judo	Competition	Mega event	Lisbon
2009 (up to the present)	Moche Pro Portugal Rip Curl	Surfing	Competition	Large-scale event	Peniche
2010	World All Styles Championships	Martial Arts	Competition	Mega event	Torres Novas
2011	Zon North Canyon Show	Surfing	Recreational	Large-scale event	Nazaré
2012 (up to the present)	Volvo Ocean Race	Sailing	Competition	Mega event	Lisbon
2013	Rhythmic Gymnastics World Cup	Gymnastics	Competition	Mega event	Lisbon
2014	Snooker Lisboa Open	Snooker	Competition	Large-scale event	Lisbon
2015	Futsal Cup	Football	Competition	Large-scale event	Lisbon
2016	Portugal Rugby Youth festival	Rugby	Competition	Large-scale event	Lisbon

Source: Own Elaboration

- a) Name of the event – often includes the disciplines in the nomenclature.
- b) Event discipline – related to the discipline practised, also allowing the physical environment in which the activity takes place to be perceived.
- c) The event classification – this is connected to the participation. Either attendants or participants, the later can also be divide into competition or recreational participants.
- d) Event scale – this definition is based on Fonseca (2013), who ranks events according to the scale, from mega events – such as Olympic Games, World, or European Football Championship; through large scale events – such as the final of a competition or a half marathon, for instance; and small or micro events – such as school sport events or regional competitions.
- e) Place of the event – where the competition takes place. Often these events replicating over the years must change location because of the event’s expansion and the need for infrastructures with better conditions.

It is thus possible to conclude from this table that:

- All these large events are competition events and mega or large-scale events, which are more profitable and require management of significant economic processes and where there is a statistical requirement to account for all impacts. For recreational events the situation is quite different, implicating an additional difficulty in counting the number of this type of events. Whereas in a competition event the costs are also supported by the attendants who pay to watch, in recreational events the participants pay to take part, although in both types of events the two actors coexist. The difference lies in how they are treated. According to Correia (2001), sports events are subjective experiences that are difficult to measure, in which players and attendants are part of the event. This lack of data and studies on the recreational sports sector must be tackled in order to identify where to improve. In this last ranking, athletics is the activity that has been gathering more participants in recreational competitions, assuming the form of urban races and trails, because the organization does not require large investments in infrastructures or specific facilities, in contrast with many other activities. This is the case of the São Silvestre Race, EDP Lisbon

Marathon, Meo Urban Trail, Colour Run, Night Run Portugal, Women’s Race, Airport Race, Montepio Race and many others.

- Most of these events take place in Lisbon, because it is the nation’s capital and the existing resources make it one of the most diversified from a touristic point of view. This is due to the concurrence of several natural, cultural resources and infrastructures, imposing by themselves a huge competitiveness factor thanks to the possibility of benefiting, within less than 50 km, from beaches, mountains or urban spaces. However, recently new regions have started to appear, promoting themselves as preferential touristic destinations for a specific sport, such as Peniche for surfing, as well as golf in Algarve.
- Many of these events occur every year and as their fame expands, their popularity grows, thereby attracting more and more participants and attendants.

Since 2004, the year of the European Football Championship, the Tourism Institute of Portugal, *Turismo de Portugal*, has aimed at hosting mega events as a policy guideline, striving to promote high media exposure and creating a legacy of infrastructures that allow future opportunities. Undoubtedly, these sport events have a major positive influence in tourism, but it is difficult to measure this positive impact, also because the events started out as small events, frequently in regions with limited capacity for hosting tourists. Also, many participants in recreational events, as a result of the promotion in place, live in the area or they just travel to take part in the event, returning afterwards to their home, and making no economic contribution to the region of the event.

According to Dias (2006), sports events can change the image of a city or even the image of a country, expanding trade and thereby boosting its economy and contributing to the introduction of new products and exploration of new markets. Then sports have the capacity of unifying the populations that share experiences and goals. Whereas other events that took place were basically small-scale competitive or recreational, in 2017 Portugal hosted top-class recreational events. The analysis of this kind of events will be described in further detail to understand the organization behind an event of this kind and the potential for development it produced.

The Ironman and Ironman 70.3 competitions (the latter covering half the distances of the former) organized by the World Triathlon Corporation since 1978 in Hawaii, included one more country in the vast list of participating countries in 2017, Portugal, notably in Cascais. The triathlon competition’s slogan is “Anything is possible”, and includes swimming, bicycling and race along a 113 km trail, in events around the world (Europe, Middle East, Africa, Asia, Oceania, North America and South America). Globally, the brand has 130 events and gathers 250,000 athletes and over 6 million attendees; and it is still growing.

This example raises a good reflection on the need to carefully plan every step to hold an event, so that on the day and during the event no mishaps might compromise its success and continuation. According to Sanz (2003), there are six stages from the idea of holding an event to its fulfilment, which are: preliminary stage, application stage, design stage and appointment of the organizing committee, planning stage, programme execution stage, event execution stage and closure stage. For a large-scale event, with a huge experience in the organization of several editions in several countries, this event closely follows all these stages to secure its success.

The organizing company of the above mentioned events, 3 Ironsports, set an athlete profile in order to match the whole competition to the participant’s needs. According to the organizing company website, the typical athlete is, on average, 42 years old, is a university graduate and travels more than three times every year. Considering this is an endurance competition, it requires long sojourns, especially attractive to Portugal and impacting the local economy directly with several million euros. Most athletes are amateurs who seize the opportunity to extend their stay and travel as a tourist with at least two more fellow travellers.

A model for “Recreational Sport Tourism Events’ Experience”
- A participant’s perspective -



Figure 28 – Ironman Logo

Source: Ironman Facebook <https://www.facebook.com/IRONMANtri/>

(Figure included with the relevant organization’s consent)

The first Ironman Portugal gathered 2,200 participants (world best record for an opening competition), 72% of whom were foreigners from 66 different countries.

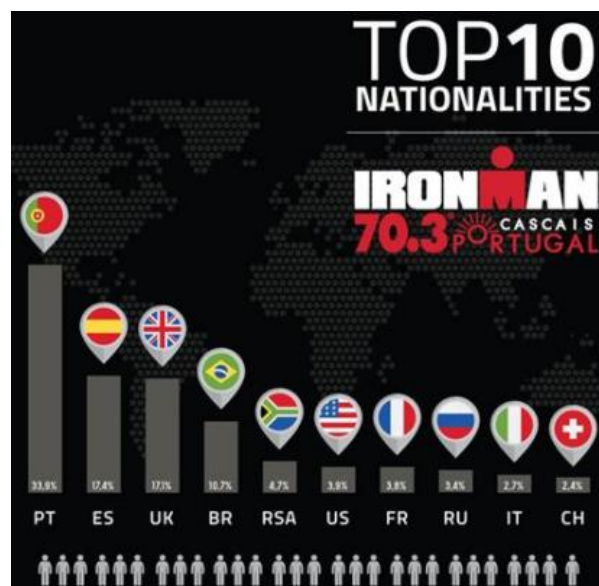


Figure 29 – TOP 10 best marks by nationality

Source: Ironman Facebook 70.3 Cascais Portugal

https://www.facebook.com/pg/IM703Portugal/videos/?ref=page_internal

(Figure included with the relevant organization’s consent)

This competition requires huge logistics, not only to put in place the competition itself, but also to accommodate all the athletes who bring an average of two or three

companions for the four days the competition lasts. The structure of the organization 3 Ironsports assembles 1000 people, including volunteers and staff. The direct impact on the municipality is calculated to reach 6 million euros, taking the most iconic points of Cascais through social networks to thousands of people worldwide.



Figure 30 – Jorge Pereira (Managing director at Ironman Portugal), Carlos Carreiras (President Municipality of Cascais), Stefan Petsching (Chief operating and development officer at Ironman)

Source: Câmara de Cascais <https://www.cascais.pt/noticia/ironman-703-cascais-bate-todos-os-recordes>

(Figure included with the relevant organization’s consent)

Many existing recreational events are small in size considering logistic or space reasons, or because an organization capable of larger events is lacking, or just because it was simply strategically designed like that. For events of this scale there is no budget and no need for such extensive communication. Daniels and Norman (2003), realized that in the past ten years, many communities have become aware of the tourism potential brought by smaller scale sport events. Concerning the evolution of sports events, Portugal has a nationwide potential for growth. The relevant bodies are willing to host events in many more disciplines, thanks to Portugal’s morphological and climatic conditions, as well as organizational conditions.






6.3. Characterization of Chosen Events

Considering the study objectives and the possible contextualization, as well as the inherent study limitations derived from different constraints exposed throughout the work, in this section we shall characterize the events and explain the motives behind this option. One of the reasons for this analysis of the events lies in the lack of information on the subject and the pressing need to know the development of recreational sport tourism events in Portugal. All the possible physical environments were selected: air, water and land, corresponding to the activities paragliding, regatta and a race in the North, South and Centre of Portugal, respectively, intending to diversify not only the physical environments where the activity takes place, but also the activity itself, in order to cover national territory as much as possible. One difficulty in this research was to find such events away from the major city centres and with a relevant level of tourist attraction ability due to a low organization capacity. Accordingly, in general terms, Crompton (1999) states that smaller events attract significant numbers of participants and spectators on a regular basis for the region, requiring a relatively low organizing investment.

The sports events under discussion, and aiming at the collection of some information concerning them, had some pre-established constraints, set out below, according to a set of aspects that should be highlighted:

1. According to Aspás’ (2000) ranking, the events should take place in the three physical environments: air, water and land. Considering that nowadays there are many activities undertaken in nature, and many of them are considered radical activities, it is necessary to subdivide the sport activities for each physical environment.

A model for “Recreational Sport Tourism Events’ Experience”
- A participant’s perspective -

LAND				
 Off road	 Rope sports	 Under ground	 Snow and Ice	 Others
BMX Mountain-biking Downhill Mountaineering Orienteering Paintball Trekking Equestrian routes Motocross	Climbing Rappel, Slide Tyrolean	Climbing Speleology	Sky Snowboard Sledding	Hiking Archery





WATER			AIR
 waves	 White water	 Flat water	 Natural
Body Surf Bodyboard Kitesurf Skimming Surf Wave Ski Windsurf	Canoeing Kayaking Hidrospeed Powerboating Rafting	Snorkeling Bare foot Diving Underwater fishing Wakeboard Rowing Canoeing Sailing Powerboating	Hang gliding Ballooning Paragliding Para motoring Sky diving Ultra light

Figure 31 – Adventure sports activities ranking

Source: Adapted from Universidade de Coimbra (Atlas Desportivo)
https://www.uc.pt/fluc/serv_com/pdf_docrochette/CD_Penela.pdf

However, the choice was based on fairly common activities within physical environments and already implemented as professional sports, with federations in place. The activity of the event selected for each physical environment was connected to the need to consider a sport discipline and, within it, the one with highest number of athletes. This exercise was executed for each event (sailing, paragliding and the race);

2. The intention was to study or try to understand whether the event’s situation was the same throughout the country; thus, events were selected according to the geographical area;

3. The studied events should be recreational events, which should not be competitive, or alternatively, competitive participants would not be taken into account;

4. To make it possible to compare the events in some way, it was necessary to have a similar number of participants (maximum 150 recreational participants). Kaplanidou and Vogt (2010), state the need to extensively study smaller scale events experience in the literature to close the gap of information on the aspects that constitute the meaning of a smaller scale event experience.

Another major aspect is related to the selection of participants. Taking a tourist dimension into account, residents in the event location were not considered and, using Nogawa, Yamguchi and Hagi’s (1996) classification, only tourists or excursionists were surveyed. Besides that, we looked for events with enrolled participants from other nationalities, so that the study would not be limited to the opinions of Portuguese participants, thereby contributing to a more diversified perspective. Therefore, the questionnaires were provided in English, German and French (in addition to Portuguese). As for participants, only excursionists or tourists were considered, not taking into consideration the residents, and at least one more country besides Portugal had to be represented, as the study object was tourism events.

Amongst the wide selection of events of this kind taking place throughout this country, and once the prerequisites were established, a research was started to select the ones that would be included in the study. This selection stage was composed of listing the most popular events through an internet research, with confirmation from the federations that the event was not registered as competition. Following this selection, contacts were established with the organizing companies to gauge their receptiveness not only to the collection of surveys during the event but also to in-depth interviews later on. Some of these events, due to climatic and atmospheric needs, are held on specific dates. It was also important to avoid concurrency of events, so that the same research team could undertake the collection of surveys in all the three events.

For each event, a maximum number of registrations was set based on demand expectations and security concerns of both event and participants. However, the number

of applicants exceeded the set number of participants. This situation allowed the organization to repeat the same event on other locations or more frequently.

Considering the relatively population of recreational participants in small events (a total of 370 in all the three events), the aim was to collect as many surveys as possible. In this way, 200 surveys were completed, of which 176 were validated. Information on recreational events in Portugal, on participants and on their interests was extracted. These surveys were collected from August 2016 (Paragliding Festival and Up and Down Guadiana Sail Regatta) to October 2016 (All Nations Race).

6.3.1. Land Event – All Nations Race

Historically, worldwide, while land sports activities were initially mainly associated with trekking and BTT, especially due to the initiative of clubs and societies, recently it is noticeable that other outdoor experiences are being organized, following new market trends. For instance, there are also hiking, orienteering, paintball and birdwatching among others, besides trekking and BTT-TT. Land activities can be held in different types of structures, and most take advantage of the conditions offered by the place, thereby pre-empting the activities according to the type of ground and existing structure.

Athletics is the oldest organized competition. Athletics was born in Greece’s Ancient Games. Racing is, in a way, the purest athletic expression developed by man. Although there is a little strategy and implicit technique, racing basically involves the athlete’s fitness. It was pointed out before that racing is a sport that anyone can practise without prior mandatory training or equipment and consequently it is the fastest growing discipline in numbers of events, in recreational terms.

In Lisbon itself in 2005 over than 60 events were accounted, although in 2017 this number would probably have been largely exceeded. Any recreational participant can join the competition with a top-level athlete, but an amateur runner will hardly ever join a Formula 1 competition. The event initially chosen for grading the physical environment of land, geographically located in the centre of Portugal, was a race in Lisbon passing through the major tourist attractions in the city centre.

In 2012 this event was held in Lisbon for the first time, and usually takes place in September or October. This concept associates sports, namely a running competition (12 km) with the discovery of historic heritage, with the trail passing several landmarks in the urban centres.

This race reached its maximum of participants right from the beginning and given the route and the security of participants themselves, this limit could not be extended. As an alternative, organizers decided to expand it to other cities in Portugal, (Leiria, Coimbra, Oporto and Sintra) as can be seen in the table below.

Table 4 – Number of participants in the Urban Trail Lisbon event (2012/2015)

Urban Trail Lisbon	2012	2013	2014	2015
Number of participants per race	8,000	8,000	8,000	8,000
Number of editions per year in the country	2 (Lisbon, Oporto)	2 (Lisbon, Oporto)	3 (Lisbon Oporto, Sintra)	5 (Lisbon, Oporto, Sintra Leiria, Coimbra)

Source: Own elaboration

Two weeks before the scheduled day, the event 2016 Urban Trail Lisbon was postponed through a page on Facebook and the reason for that was never disclosed to the participants already enrolled. On the event’s Facebook page, the organization announced the cancelation of the 2016 Urban Trail circuit events (Lisbon, Oporto and Sintra) due to the absence of the necessary conditions to ensure the expected quality, standards and expectations. Because of that, the organization was forced to take this difficult decision of cancelling events for the three places. They also announced that the 2017 edition was already being planned together with the relevant municipalities, for continuation and improvement of the event/circuit.

Since then, despite the complaints from the participants, there have been no further updates and the organizer, besides this race, did not hold any other races already scheduled.

A model for “Recreational Sport Tourism Events’ Experience”
- A participant’s perspective -



Figure 32 – Announcement of the event’s cancellation

Source: Urban Trail Facebook

<https://www.facebook.com/urbantrailrun/photos/a.317904901632874.73319.226179510805414/1091500667606623/?type=3&theater>

(Figure included with the relevant organization’s consent)

Despite all previous meetings, including confirmation of the authorization to distribute the surveys during the event and acceptance of the interview, the CEO did not reply to any of our contacts. Facing this situation, and to prevent the failure of the study, a solution was reached by finding an event that would somehow replace the former one. However, for the new event it was necessary to meet similar characteristics, that is, a land race event in Lisbon, as soon as possible. Following some contacts, it was possible to consider another similar event, with a few less recreational participants, the “All Nations Race”:

A model for “Recreational Sport Tourism Events’ Experience”
- A participant’s perspective -



Figure 33 – 2016 All Nations Race

Source: All Nations Race Facebook

<https://www.facebook.com/corridadasnacoes/photos/a.1619277198384406.1073741827.1619254448386681/1619277121717747/?type=3>

(Figure included with the relevant organization’s consent)

A new contact was initiated with Paulo Calisto from the company “Survivors Run”, to request authorization to distribute the surveys to the competitors. “All Nations Race” is an authentic and unforgettable and exclusive life experience for its participants, inasmuch as it takes place during the night along the Tagus river (Rio Tejo) and it is not limited to Portuguese participants.



Figure 34 – Survivors run logo

Source: Survivors Run Facebook

<https://www.facebook.com/cristianoalmeida.trainer/photos/a.638950586143631.1073741825.537883092917048/1077389925633026/?type=3>

(Figure included with the relevant organization’s consent)

This event took place in 2016 for the first time, during the month of October. For the following editions, the organizers intended to make this event a race where the five continents should be represented. The concept behind this event is to run or walk holding the colours of each one’s country to portray a human framework reflecting the colours of the united world. The organizers intend to promote healthy lifestyles through a message of union, interdependency and emotional sharing between peoples and cultures. The event took place at *Parque das Nações*, where a 10 km night race and a 5 km hike were staged.

Also, this event was solidarity-related: The All Nations Race joined UNICEF Portugal, to whom €1 for every enrolment was delivered. The sum raised was allocated to organizations whose aid programmes are for the most vulnerable children in the world. The enrolment fee was different for hiking (€5) or racing (€10). There was no minimum age for hiking, and participants under 14 years did not pay. This fee included a technical T-shirt, chip, timing, prizes and participation certificate, race number bib, water, fruit, gifts, shower spots and a safe place to leave car keys.

Table 5 – Number of participants in the All Nations Race event (2016/2017)

All Nations Race	2016	2017
Number of participants per race	2,000	3,000
Number of countries	5	21

Source: Own elaboration

Of 2,000 registrations in 2016, only 150 were recreational participants and only these were considered for the surveys.

This event took place again in September 2017 following its huge success in the previous year, which allowed the organizers more time to pay attention to other aspects such as the creation of new partnerships that add value to the competition in the participants’ opinion (Hospital CUF, Comboios de Portugal, Águas do Vimeiro, among

others), and get the Femédica safe event quality label. This year, the chosen association was Navegar.

It gathered 21 nationalities, four of which were represented by their countries’ embassies (Australia, South Africa, Finland and Colombia); and therefore the event’s slogan was “the race that unites the nations”. The qualitative jump in this specific example shows the sponsors’ availability to invest in races, and the participants’ availability, which would have grown more if, for safety reasons, the number of new enrolments hadn’t been limited to 1000. In addition to this race, the company added other sport events, such as wanderlust, which is a new concept in Portugal mixing racing, yoga and meditation.

6.3.2. Water Event – Up and Down the Guadiana River Sail Regatta

Nautical tourism’s main motivation lies in travelling with activities in contact with water (nautical); in our case, of a recreational nature. However, on account of its long coastline, with open sea zones and extremely sheltered waters, Portugal is increasingly sought for holding international competitions. This country’s potential, as regards to natural resources, allows this type of tourism to be explored. The whole maritime coast, all the beaches, rivers, dams and weather conditions are factors that promote development and raise interest in this type of products, although the most demanded disciplines are sailing, surfing, windsurfing, diving, rowing and cruises, as well as a wide range of less requested activities.

This activity – sailing – requires a large quantity of material other than the boat itself. Usually the participant is not alone, because he/she needs to have support to prepare the boat, and it can also be a team sport, requiring access to a marina to be able to lower the boat to the water (access ramp). It is also important to have basic swimming skills and to hold a Day Skipper license. The weather conditions are also critical, such as wind and sea conditions. It should be stressed that this is also a high-maintenance sport and requires much time to practise it (taking the boat onto the open sea in order to be able to sail is time-consuming and later it is necessary also to take time to take the boat out of the water).

A model for “Recreational Sport Tourism Events’ Experience”
- A participant’s perspective -



Figure 35 – Logo of Guadiana Naval Association,

Source: Associação Naval do Guadiana <http://www.anguadiana.com/>

(Figure included with the relevant organization’s consent)

This specific event was chosen particularly because it takes place in Vila Real de Santo António, in the south of the country, and also because Spain joins the event and tourists are required to move to take part in it. The person responsible for this event, Edgar Pádua, from the Guadiana Naval Association, was interviewed.



Figure 36 – Promotion of the event 2016 Up and Down the Guadiana River

Source: Isla Canela website, <https://www.islacanela.es/en/xxxii-ascenso-descenso-vela-rio-guadiana-20-21-agosto/>

(Figure included with the relevant organization’s consent)

The first edition was in 1983 (in Algarve). It is the third oldest regatta in the Iberian Peninsula, being organized with Spain, because the Guadiana River crosses both countries. The competition is historically organized by the Guadiana Naval Association from Portugal’s side and on the Spanish side by the Isla Canela Nautical Club, with the support of Alcoutim, Ayamonte and Vila Real de Santo António municipalities. Its route runs over the course of two days, going up on a Saturday and coming back down to Vila Real de Santo António on Sunday.

It takes place during the month of August. The enrolment fee is €10 per crew member and includes taking part in the competition, Saturday dinner and admittance to the music and entertainment party (foam party).

Table 6 – Number of participants in the Guadiana Regatta event (2012/2016)

Guadiana Regatta	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016
Number of boats	140	130	120	130	90
Number of participants	275	240	250	250	120

Source: Own elaboration

The competition is a sporting moment for meeting people and interaction among sailors of all ages and nationalities, aiming at promoting sport, as well as strengthening the municipality’s tourist demand, benefiting from its natural beauty, especially from the Guadiana river.

Although this is a long-lived regatta, in 2017 the number of athletes grew again to approximately 260 participants competing in the regatta, which completed its 21st edition with many new features.

6.3.3. Air Event – The National Paragliding Festival

Air sports convey a truly indescribable sense of adventure and freedom. Those who engage in this type of activities discharge a large amount of adrenalin, forget stress and face problems in a very positive way. Of the three physical environments, in these activities there are the newest sports, including hang-gliding, skydiving, paragliding, ultralight, gliding, hot-air ballooning and bungee-jumping.

Paragliding was introduced in Portugal ca. 1987 but dates from the late 1970s. Of all the air activities is the riskiest although there is no age limit to this air sport. This is also the activity that is most dependent on weather conditions, and it requires special conditions to practise it. It is essential to have the necessary equipment and a permit to fly, and technical, practical and tactical expertise (how to watch the sky and how to interpret the evolution of clouds, wind velocity, respect the priority rules during flight and refrain from flying alone) which drives up the costs connected to this sport for those who take part in it just for fun. Paragliding is about to be approved as an Olympic sport, but for the moment is just recreational.

This sport requires calm and contemplation, and aims at gliding, which can provide hours of relaxing through magnificent scenarios. This activity differs from skydiving because the jump starts on the ground, thereby requiring running a little to open the paraglider before the jump, which also requires a drop. It is frequent to fly from cliffs, over beaches and mountains. In Portugal, one of the most sought-after spots for paragliding is Linhares da Beira, in the Serra da Estrela region.

The event concerned for this study is the Linhares da Beira International Paragliding Festival, which is one of the best spots to fly in Portugal. It also met the requirements because it was in the north and favoured leisure pilots. This is sponsored by the Celorico da Beira Municipality to promote the historical village of Linhares da Beira, and also the Celorico da Beira Council and its huge heritage. This event’s main goal is to attract pilots engaging in the modality to this area, thereby increasing the demand of tourists for this area.

The company “Wind” is responsible for organizing the event since its first edition. In this company José Cardoso was interviewed as the person in charge of paragliding activities, and he acted as contact for the event and follow-up.



Figure 37 – Wind logo

Source: Wind Facebook

<https://www.facebook.com/wind.cam.1/photos/a.323975751074829.1073741827.323964031076001/1145958978876498/?type=3&theater>

(Figure included with the relevant organization’s consent)

This event requires very specific arrangements, and besides taking place in a historic village in the north of Portugal, with very few inhabitants, it must evolve considerably to host many tourists at once. This event starts at the top of a mountain devoid of the basic amenities to provide some sort of comfort to the athletes and those accompanying them (a cup of coffee, a place to sit, shade and toilet facilities, among others). Thus, for the event attendance to grow, a set of basic infrastructures must be locally implemented to improve event conditions. The festival takes place during a weekend with a total cost of €20, with transportation to the take off point, the official event’s dinner and an event’s T-shirt included in this fee.



Figure 38 – Paragliding festival promotion 2016

Source: Correio da Guarda <http://correiodaguarda.blogs.sapo.pt/tag/parapente>

(Figure included with the relevant organization's consent)

Linhares da Beira is considered the paragliding capital, since it has unique requirements for the practice of the sport. During the festival days there will be various sporting activities, within the components of this sport. The village was covered by hundreds of paragliders flown by participating pilots from all over the world, who will be dazzled by the rich landscape of this beautiful geographical area. This event began in 2005 and usually takes place during the month of August.

Table 7 – Number of participants in the paragliding festival event (2012/2016)

Paragliding Festival	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016
Number of teams	16	13	12	26	N/D
Number of participants (pilots)	85	65	67	210	100

Source: Own elaboration

6.4. Data Analysis

The enquiry forms were distributed during the days of the events by a previously selected and prepared team. The first survey (air) was carried out during the paragliding event in Linhares da Beira, *The National Paragliding Festival*, between 13th and 14th August 2016. 46 enquiries were distributed among 100 participants. The second event (water) took place during the following weekend, between 20th and 21st August 2016, in Vila Real de Santo António, Algarve, the *Up and Down the Guadiana River Sail Regatta*. 39 enquiries were completed among a total of 120 participants. Finally, the event (land) urban trail was expected to happen on 17th September 2016 and was cancelled just a few days before that date. In view of that, it was replaced by the *All Nations Race*, on 8th October. 91 participants, among a total of 150 recreational participants completed the questionnaires. In addition to these recreational participants, there were also professional athletes, which increased the number of competitors to 2,000.

Table 8 – Number of recreational participants and respondents in the event (2016)

	Recreational Participants	Respondents
Paragliding Festival	100	46
Guadiana Regatta	120	39
All Nations Race	150	91
Total	370	176

Source: Own elaboration

It was not easy to complete 176 enquiries on the same day as the competition, when the participants need to prepare the gear. However, the minimum completion rate of 50% was achieved thanks to the researchers’ persistence, who made themselves available to accompany the participant during his/her preparation for the competition.

The enquiry form has a total of 27 questions divided into three parts, the first concerning demographic data that allows to draw the event’s participants profile; the

second part concerns recreational sport tourism events in general; and finally, there are some questions about the event itself. The participants in these events are the population of the research. They will provide the characterization of the motivational profile of this type of participants. Besides drawing the event participants’ profile, this first enquiry aimed at furthering knowledge and collecting information on events in Portugal, their organization and logistics, and the participants’ perspective, as up to now there are virtually no studies on this subject.

The results might be characterized according to participants for each event, considering there is a different physical environment for each one, but this is not significant because only one event for each physical environment was researched. In this context, it was decided to interpret all the results. Even so, whenever deemed useful, individual references were made by event, and for future studies it will be interesting to draw the participants’ profile for each physical environment.

The participants who completed the enquiries for the chosen events are distributed not only by physical environment (air, water, land) but also by geographical area (north, centre and south). However, the values provided reflect only the answers of the recreational participants. One might declare that in the sample as regards to gender, there is a significant majority of male participants (68.2%), and concerning age, the most representative age ranges are 40-49 years old (29.5%) and 30-39 years old (29%). Additionally, of all the participants, 89.8% exercise regularly or engage in some sort of sport activity quite often. Over 50% exercise two or three times a week just because they enjoy it, although 83% considered themselves amateurs. As regards the country of residence, we found a vast majority of Portuguese people (86.4%) and then Spanish people (7.4%), naturally associated with the fact that the event *Up and Down the Guadiana River* takes place between both countries.

Another significant aspect concerns the fact that 77.3% of the participants are accompanied. Of these, 22.5% came with only one person, 17.5% with two; and 15.3% with more than five persons. These numbers might reveal the effects in local economic potentization and the need to provide for accommodation infrastructures considering that 36.4% of people of this sample remained on-site until after the event. Besides, when asked whether they had ever replied to a survey in a sport event, 76.1% replied

negatively, thereby revealing that somehow the necessary data to adjust the infrastructures to the needs of this type of events is lacking. In addition, considering the increase in this type of events in the last few years, it is urgent to conduct more satisfaction surveys, as the customer loyalty is paramount when one strives to make the event a regular one.

Briefly, considering the preliminary survey and the participants’ profile, the results were in line with the findings of other studies on participants in sport events, although the results show a small margin in gender and expansion of age ranges, now comprehending the limits. These athletes continue travelling with company and, during the stay, 50% of them either shop or visit cultural and touristic spots, which validates the idea that these events are essential in promoting a tourist destination and the development of the local economy.

When asked, ca. 80% mentioned that they usually take part in sport events regularly and the large majority (98.3%) stated that Portugal is an attractive country to engage in this type of events due to its climate and landscapes. They further state that there is a growing number of participants in this type of events (87.5%), according to their experience. One might consider that there are still huge opportunities to better use participants and their company as regards tourism opportunities. For the participants in these events, the most important reason to enrol is firstly associated with the “Activity” offered by the event (28.6%), and its place (17.9%) and itinerary (17.5%). Aspects such as *safety* (14.1%) and *price* (11.1%) are also put forward. Least relevant are *organizing*, *authority* and *complementary offers*. As regards the study events, more than a half were participating for the first time (59.1%), thereby showing the need to improve the communication of these events, both nationwide and abroad. This is despite the fact that information is largely transmitted by word of mouth, considering that over 40.9% replied that they had heard about the event from friends and, as a secondary channel of communication, through the event page and social networks.

Open-ended questions address the issue about the benefits obtained with engaging into a sporting activity and most answers noted some feelings, such as freedom, happiness, well-being and conviviality. For all these reasons, 93.8% considered that the price was affordable and 73.9% would be willing to pay more if

necessary to keep the event going on, and 44.3% of the respondents declared the organization needed no improvement. The remaining answers reflect the need for an improvement in catering, diversification of the route, more participants, and also more information on the event. Differentiating factors for each event: the race took place during night time, i.e. the schedule; the regatta participants appreciated the route and the landscape and for the paragliders the spot selected for the event was considered one of the best for this discipline. When asked whether they intended to participate again in the same event, 60.3% replied they certainly would and 57% would recommend the event.

As for the key issue of this study, and while trying to perceive whether the participants value the three major constructs for their final experience, 98.3% mentioned that the element “Activity” was important for the experience obtained in the recreational sport tourism events, 96.6% answered the same question but with the element “Place”, and finally 94.3% pointed out the element “People” as relevant for the experience obtained in the recreational sport tourism events, as can be seen in the figure below.

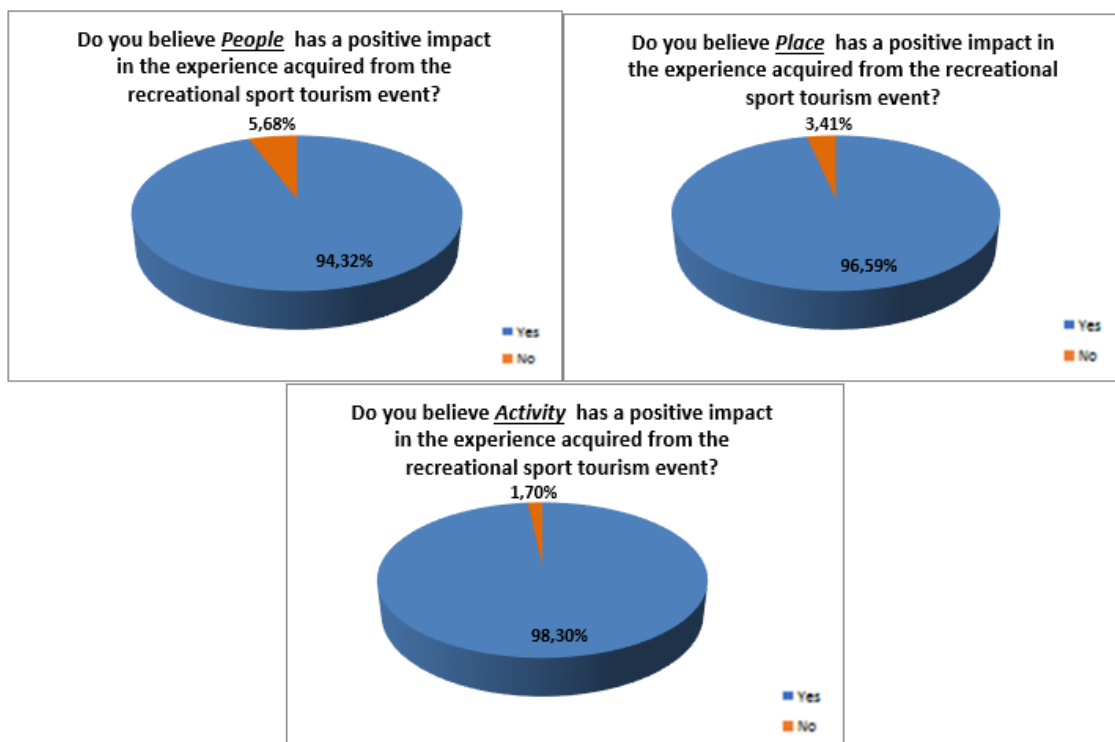


Figure 39 – Relevance in % attributed by the participants to the elements “Activity”, “Place” and “People”

Source: Own elaboration

Although the three elements were considered extremely important in the experience obtained, when questioned about which was the most important, participants clearly chose the element “Activity” (59.7%), followed then by “Place” (23.3%), and finally by “People” (17%). These results can be explained in light of the intention of the participants to engage in their favourite sporting activity, therefore choosing a suitable place for it, and considering the people involved in this process of lesser importance.

The peculiarity of these study events: paragliding, sailing, racing (“Activity”) pursued in the perfect “Place” (Linhares da Beira, Vila Real de Santo António and Lisbon) make for a unique and ever-changing experience for each participant (“People”). As an example of the uniqueness of each experience we can point out the paragliding event, where the constantly changing wind direction affects the jump, thereby affecting the whole dynamics and providing a positive experience that makes the participant wish to return. Also, with the sailing event, weather conditions, and once more the wind direction, affect the performance, although other factors may also be relevant. In the case of this racing event, climate factors hardly impact the activity, and because of that one must invest in other differentiating factors that will make a deeper impression and create a more lasting experience, such as the route the participants will follow or joining charitable causes.

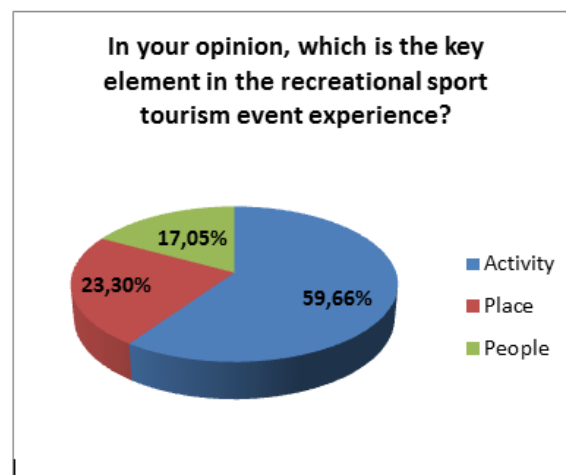


Figure 40 – Percentage of relevance in the experience for the elements “Activity”, “Place” and “People”

Source: Own elaboration

All these initial data collected from the surveys built a working basis to have some data that allowed a perception of how to create the rest of the instruments to produce the findings of this work.

Considering the conclusions drawn from the surveys, it was possible to perceive that there are discrepancies concerning the number of participants in the different activities. These differences originate by taking into account the following factors: the ease of practising one activity as compared to others, the investment in material and sport equipment required to practice it, as well as trend factors. Because of this, some sports gather many more participants than others. The place where the activity is practiced might also affect the number of participants and the organized events. Not all regions can manage the organization of such events, which requires not only infrastructures for the event itself, but also physical, human and economic resources to promote this type of event and enjoy a certain level of success concerning adherence and the purpose of making the region better known to other countries.

Lisbon remains the preferred place for organizing this type of events, and when comparing the number of participants by region, it is much higher than any other places, even if one takes into account events that supposedly should not be taking place in the capital of the country. Although the number of participants is not much larger, it is noticeable that participants like to help to improve not only the organization of the events in which they participate, but all the other ones that might generally promote outdoor sports activities.

In the participants’ open answers, in general responders added some improvements required, such as support during the event to participants by providing more information; logistics support such as accommodation and catering served during the sojourn; more accurate schedules and support infrastructures at the venue (such as toilet facilities, shade, extra activities for company), and especially the conditions to attract a larger audience during the whole route.

Another aspect noted which may give rise to some considerations is associated with event fees. Contrary to entertainment events that rely entirely on the ticket value paid by the attendants, these events are paid for by the enrolment fee charged to the

participants. When questioned about these issues in general, respondents said the price per participant was accessible, with only 10% thinking otherwise. However, and considering that prices are usually the same regardless the promoting organization (€10 for a 10 km race event), if a participant enrolls in more than one competition every month, he/she may find difficult to financially manage the situation of taking part in many events. It is important for organizers to ponder the strategy intended for the future to tackle this issue if they intend to raise the number of participations and, in that case, the amount should be analysed, or if they intend to increase revenue by attracting new participants who can purchase more expensive tickets.

The conclusions from this study might contribute to improving recreational sport tourism events in Portugal and give the organizing entities clues to boost these events throughout the country. Until now it was difficult to collect data because the number of events in this area was scarce. This prevented any analysis that might point out the existence or absence of an evolution. The conditions are now starting to be created for the development of these recreational events within tourism, thereby allowing the promotion of several tourism destinations. This work aims at helping in this path.

This first on-site survey, simultaneous with the event, was critical for understanding the whole context of recreational sport tourism events in Portugal. Despite the reoccurrence of many questions in this study’s quantitative survey, this was analysed through different methodologies to provide answers to the central issues of this research. The findings of these surveys, applied at two different moments, may be compared and provide conclusions in the future, although this is not the real purpose of the present work.

From this chapter it is possible to conclude that the study of sport tourism events might give answers on what makes the experience in this type of events unique from the participant’s perspective. From the sport events tourism literature in Portugal, the existing studies are still insufficient to understand and apply the various on-the-ground review methodologies.

Following the conclusion of the theoretical study on recreational sport tourism events in general and following the study of three specific recreational sport tourism

events in Portugal to collect sufficient data, it was possible to reach the basic conclusions on the conceptual model. The surveys applied in the first phase to the participants in the events allowed an expansion of the study object to all recreational sport tourism events in Portugal, as well in the respondents’ universe. Considering there were hardly any data on this subject, it was necessary to establish if there was a behaviour pattern and undertake a comprehensive survey in a controlled specific location in order to try to cover the whole universe of the event. However, the need arose to apply new surveys on larger events in order to collect enough responses that might safely validate the hypotheses drawn at the beginning of this work.

The next chapter, included in the empirical development of the study, aims to describe the methodology adopted for the study. The statistical techniques used for data processing are also described in detail, namely the structural analysis of the scale, analysis of principal components and also the descriptive analysis.

A model for “Recreational Sport Tourism Events’ Experience”
- A participant’s perspective -

7. Methodology

7.1. General Considerations

This chapter describes the methodology adopted for the empirical development of this study, bearing in mind the associated objectives and hypotheses, which will allow answers to be presented to the goals set. The conceptual model of the research and the data collection instruments will support all the analysis.

A set of statistical techniques available for the qualitative data most used in social sciences were applied to support analysis of the same nature. As the data in this work are predominantly qualitative, it does not entail an easy analysis, as this type of techniques often tend to fail to produce conclusive or relevant data in that area. The selection of specific study objects together with the definition of the research problem are paramount for the selection of the methods used and allows the goals to be attained, thereby providing the answer to the research problem. Considering the objectives set, the execution of three studies was decided upon:

- A first approach to three specific events in Portugal selected according to the physical environment (air, water, land) and the geographical location (north, centre, south) was implemented, to know the recreational sport tourism events area better in order to collect more data through surveys distributed among the participants, considering the scarcity of written elements on this subject and the possibility of creating work instruments after collection.
- Afterwards, a qualitative study was carried out, based in the inductive method grounded in observation, interpretation, and data significance, through in-depth interviews with organizers and those responsible for air, water and land events. This approach allowed more information to be collected on existing events and the organization of an event meeting the participants’ motivations. This information was processed with the software MAXQDA 12 through phenomena described with words, to build the final research design.

- Finally, a quantitative study focused on data analysis and observable phenomena through sampling quantification. An online survey was applied to those involved (tourists and excursionists) in this type of events, thereby contributing to checking and proving theories and hypotheses. Although the online survey implies a set of advantages and disadvantages, it allows an extensive and systematic study of the contents and also allows for quick, low-cost sampling.

This information was processed with the software SPSS 20.0, which relied on analysis and statistical interpretation, first through exploratory factor analysis with principal component analysis by the varimax rotation method, followed by internal consistency analysis using Cronbach’s alpha statistics. In this methodology phase the scale model created to measure the participants’ experience satisfaction level, based on the three constructs, was also tested via Amos to validate its solidity.

In this research, this mixed approach was chosen because of the need detected following the bibliographical revision to confirm and validate the variables within the constructs explaining the experience. The organizers are also important for their responsibility in the creation of recreational sport tourism events and making them grow, thus enjoying a prompter operational sensitivity of what is relevant or not to attract participants and allow them to have a different and unique experience. It is important to have a vision of all the relevant parties because they are motivated to attract participants in different ways. Only after the interviews was it possible to build a questionnaire with all the variables, which produced several different versions until the final conceptual model for experience of recreational participation in sport tourism events was reached.

Following the preliminary survey (air, water and land events) presented in Chapter 6, which allowed to draw some conclusions about recreational sport tourism events in Portugal, this chapter started with a first stage study with in-depth interviews to some events’ organizers. With these interviews the variables taken from the literature were complemented. Finally, in the second stage study, an online survey was applied through the databanks of the three events agencies.

7.2. First stage study – Data Collection Tools in Qualitative Research

An ongoing concern of several researchers in the course of time is the relevance of qualitative research, which leads to the definition of procedures, principles, or validation rules, as well as other suppositions contributing to the research quality. Lincoln and Guba (1985) emphasize this concern in their research and started by setting criteria that should be considered in order to ensure the validity of the qualitative research, especially credibility and objectivity.

In the preliminary survey were carried out on the above selected events, which were analysed to better understand how recreational sport tourism events have been organized in Portugal up to now. During the first stage, in-depth interviews with the organizers of these events were undertaken immediately after the study of the events. From these two research moments a large range of data was collected which allowing sufficient information to be gathered to characterize the events in the field research and their participants, and also allowing a perception of the organization and the different factors encountered in the events’ conceptualization phase.

In this research, credibility was sought through the development of a close relationship with the context, the subject and the various actors involved in the process, namely through being present at the events several times and carrying out surveys with their participants.

7.2.1. Methodology of the In-depth Interview

According to DiCicco-Bloom and Crabtree (2006, p.314), “Qualitative interviews have been categorised in a variety of ways, with many contemporary texts loosely differentiating qualitative interviews as unstructured, semi-structured and structured”.

Just like any other data collection technique, structured interviews have positive and negative aspects. From a positive perspective, structured interviews allow replication, if necessary, and may streamline data analysis, depending on the selected

processing technique. Considering the negative aspects, these interviews reduce the spontaneity of answers and the opportunity to deepen some questions (Altinay & Paraskevas, 2008).

The interview guide was designed to perceive and find answers on how the events sector operates and search for new variables in a real setting beyond those already identified in the bibliographical revision, and which might complement the conceptual model.

Kvale (1996) distinguishes seven steps of the interview process:

1. thematization: to clarify the purposes of the interview and the concepts to explore;
2. planning: to plan the process that leads to achieving the research goal, and thinking about the ethical dimensions;
3. conducting the interview;
4. writing: making a written copy or an extract from the interview;
5. analysis: to analyse the meaning of the data collected;
6. verification: checking the reliability and validity of the data and results;
7. reporting: communicating the result to others.

One of the techniques selected in this research was the interview because of its suitability, which was considered relevant in the information collection to allow support for the surveys at a later stage. In the guide-based interview selection, the main concern was the adjustment of the interview type to the study characteristics, bearing in mind that there is no one type of interview that is more correct than another.

All interviews were later analysed with the software MAXQDA12. This software is characterized by a systematic text interpretation technique according to the following stages: clarification through basic tools for text organization and qualitative analysis; coding, direct relevant information signalling in the data through codes, and finally subjects identification through extraction of coded segments for testing and development of new theories or simple data analysis (Hsieh & Shannon, 2005).

For qualitative semi-structured interviews with open questions that allow empirical data revelation, a guide was built based on the information from the items below:

- a) introduction and framework;
- b) interviewee profile;
- c) company characterization;
- d) to perceive how the recreational sport events concept appeared and where; if the relationship between “Activity”, “Place” and “People” was the most suitable to explain the experience of a sport tourism event and why; which are the participant’s motivational variables within each of the three dimensions.

The interview is divided into three major blocks:

1. The first intends to perceive how the concept of recreational sport events appeared and where.
2. The second approached specific questions about the event under the organizers’ responsibility.
3. Finally, questions were addressed on the organizer’s perception of participants’ experience in this type of events.

The interviews were taped and later transcribed, which allowed both the interviewer and the interviewee some flexibility in the dialogue and to point out some specific issues that required clarification. The average duration of each interview was 180 minutes. Later these interviews were inserted into the software. It should be stressed that the order of the questions set in the guide was not followed in every instance for the sake of the interviewee’s fluidity of speech and his/her points of view or subjects arising from the practice. These interviews allowed information to be collected from the organizers’ point of view to complement the information from the event’s participants to draw more comprehensive conclusions.

As mentioned above, following all interviews, the software MAXQDA12 was used, currently a common technique for communications analysis. This technique used systematic and objective content description procedures, in this specific case interviews and indicators that allow facts to be inferred concerning reception conditions (variables)

of the same interviews. This software allows an analysis of all types of unstructured data through organization and categorization after importing the interviews into the software.

In this study, the relevance of this software is connected with the need to establish whether the variables found in the literature are confirmed, given the importance of establishing a connection between theory and practice, and perceiving if the growth in this type of events would provide new variables justifying the motivation for this type of participants to join. The next step is to mark relevant information for the study through colour codes, in order to extract segments for analysis in a later phase.

7.2.2. Sampling and the Characteristics of the Sample

At this point the sample was characterized, and data collection, analysis procedures and tools used in this part of the study were described. These interviews (transcribed in appendix B) took place between November and December 2016.

In the first stage, a test interview with a representative of the company MasterFoot was made to validate the internal consistency of the instrument and test the perceptibility and clarity of the questions for the respondents. A preliminary study is a small-scale study that allows a preliminary version of the final questionnaire to be implemented (Hill & Hill, 2008). This pilot test allowed errors to be detected in the instrument’s structure and measure the application time for optimal planning of the procedure. Next, the three main interviews were executed with the study events’ organizers (De Sedentário a Maratonista, Associação Naval do Guadiana, Wind) and were used for qualitative analysis. The land event for which the study was planned but eventually annulled was replaced and for that reason another interview was scheduled with the substitution of another person responsible for the event with the same characteristics: land event, racing, in Lisbon. Finally, two more interviews were carried out to try to establish whether the replies’ tendencies were in line with the physical environment in question.

In the next stage, interviews were scheduled with the organizers at their workplace. The table below summarizes the interviewees and the days of the respective interviews.

Table 9 – Brief characterization of the interviewees.

Name	Company / Website	Sport	Event
Ricardo Gomes (guide test)	Master Foot <i>www.masterfoot.pt</i>	Football Land	Masterfoot Tournament
Jorge Azevedo Scheduled but not conducted	Urban Events <i>www.urbanevents.pt/</i>	Race Land	Urbantrail
José Guimarães (21.Nov.2016)	De sedentário a Maratonista <i>www.desedentarioama ratonista.com</i>	Race Land	Refood Race
Edgar Pádua (18.Nov.2016)	Guadiana Naval Association <i>www.anguadiana.com</i>	Sail Water	Up and Down the Guadiana River Sail Regatta
José Cardoso (17.Nov.2016)	Wind <i>www.sam-camp.com</i>	Paragliding Air	National Paragliding Festival
Eugénio de Almeida (25.Nov.2016)	Federação Portuguesa de voo Livre <i>www.fpvvl.pt</i>	Air	
Paulo Calisto (3.Dec.2016)	Survivorsrun <i>www.survivorsrun.com</i>	Race Land	All Nations Race

Source: Own elaboration

7.2.3. Data Analysis

The information collected through interviews was examined according to content qualitative analysis (Bardin, 2009; Mayring, 2014), which allowed specific deductions to be drawn on the variables that characterize the dimensions “Activity”,

“Place” and “People” and that might thus measure the satisfaction obtained from the experience in recreational sport tourism events. Despite the study results not being intended to be extrapolated, there are theoretical assumptions that might be applied in terms of other circumstances.

From the software analysis, it is possible to draw the following conclusions:

In José Guimarães’ interview (land event), 41 interview extracts were marked as relevant for processing and in a later stage the final conclusions were drawn and added to the conceptual framework; from José Cardoso’s interview (air event), only 37 extracts were marked; and the interview with Edgar Pádua (water event) provided 30 extracts, from a total of 108 observations, processed at a later stage.

Table 10 – Number of interview extracts considered relevant

Interviews	Code System
José Guimarães	41
José Cardoso	37
Edgar Pádua	30
Total	108

Source: Own elaboration

Subsequently, these 108 observations were divided by three codes, with the last one, Experience, subdivided into the three study dimensions, “Activity”, “Place” and “People”. The following table shows the distribution of these observations. The table also systematizes the number of observations accounted for in the interviews concerning the constructs and the expressions “experience”, “participant’s motivations” and “tourism events”, due to their importance in the development of this work.

A model for “Recreational Sport Tourism Events’ Experience”
- A participant’s perspective -

Table 11 – Observation distribution by analysis codes

CODE SYSTEM	Constructs	Total obs.
Tourism Events		42
Participants’ Motivations		25
Experience		10
	Activity	10
	People	8
	Place	13

Source: Own elaboration

This distribution shows that organizers also give greater relevance to the construct “Place”, followed by “Activity”, and finally “People”, according to how many times they are mentioned.

In the table below, the “words” marked in the interview for the construct “Activity” by the software MAXQDA are listed.

A model for “Recreational Sport Tourism Events’ Experience”
- A participant’s perspective -

Table 12 – Words marked in the interview for the construct “Activity”

Preview	Area
The pleasure of physical outdoor activities	80
Overcoming	9
Appreciation	11
Fear	4
Pleasure	6
Adventure	8
Unknown	12
Challenge	7
Try harder	25

Source: Own elaboration

As can be seen, there are many references in this construct connected to the pleasure of engaging in a sport. According to Edgar Pádua, participants search for adventure with this sport and the exploration of the unknown and to find a little more than what there is to be found at sea or up the river. José Cardoso claims that for this activity the major elements are “try harder” and “overcoming” and people are required to have the suitable requisites for that. This kind of activities involve “fear” and “the pleasure of physical outdoor activities” at the same time, that is, contact with nature together with the freedom of flying and being in a different place. In addition, José Guimarães adds that in terms of activity the “challenge” and quite often the “appreciation” are always implicit.

The next table shows the expressions taken from the software underlying the variables associated with the construct “Place”.

A model for “Recreational Sport Tourism Events’ Experience”
- A participant’s perspective -

Table 13 – Words marked in the interview for the construct “Place”

Preview	Area
Every country has two or three paragliding sites	117
Another well-known place is Serra da Estrela	49
Flight conditions	16
Weather conditions	22
Historic village as a picture	37
Unknown	12
Beauty	6
Landscapes	9
Our winter for many tourists is like summer	56
Change routes	17
Site	5
Landscape	8
The secret is a way of combining several things in the organization with the site	71
Linhares da Beira is indeed contemplated as a sanctuary of paragliding	64

Source: Own elaboration

Also according to José Guimarães’ interview, there are undoubtedly many infrastructures in Lisbon and simultaneously the “landscape” and “beauty” to host tourists. For his part, José Cardoso claims that the place must provide “flight conditions” (with enough flat areas for landing) and Linhares da Beira is indeed contemplated as a sanctuary of paragliding, also providing great “weather conditions”, because in the absence of wind it is impossible to fly out. Added to this, the fact of it being a “historic village like a picture” also contributes to attracting people, so that the event may grow and improve the place as a tourist destination. Edgar Pádua points out the “unknown” as the driver behind the will to know a place, together with “beauty”, keeping in mind that the winter in Portugal is, for many tourists, like summer.

The construct “People” turned out to be more complex. Some observations did not fit the existing variables, and two new variables came up and were integrated in the conceptual model: “team spirit”, pointed out by Edgar Pádua, and “event supporters”, by José Guimarães. For Edgar Pádua, in nautical sports, participants are especially attracted by entertainment. People have fun while boating, but conviviality comes first. José Cardoso stresses that “people need recognition” from others, because everything

comes down to competition, even gender competition. As for the construct “People”, and in this specific sport, some paragliding groups were formed recently and are usually seen as “crazy people” because of the hazards, although nowadays this activity takes place in complete safety.

Table 14 – Words marked in the interview for the construct “People”

Preview	Area
People need recognition	37
Competition, a sexual topic	30
Team spirit	18
Making friends	16
Creating bonds	11
Event supporters	29
Audience doesn’t work, it’s a cultural issue	45
Paragliding groups, usually called crazy people	67

Source: Own elaboration

To conclude, it is noticeable that the observations to qualify “Activity” and “Place” fit within the existing variables, already included in the conceptual model. Only two more variables were added, both in the construct “People”, which can be referred to as “Team spirit” and “Audience support”. However, this construct is still the one with the fewest variables. Edgar Pádua observes that quite often, in the end it is the “team spirit” and “making friends”, that later start creating that spirit and bonds while enjoying the activity. By his turn, José Guimarães claims that “event supporters” are a critical variable, but in Portugal this works differently, possibly due to cultural motives. The variable “Team spirit” was mentioned out of the necessity, in collective sports, for a motivation within the structure itself to improve the experience in recreational sport tourism events. According to the event organizers, group cohesion leads to a better

experience as compared to its absence. As regards to the variable “Audience support”, the importance of the public support to improve motivation and comprehensiveness in the experience was also mentioned, being largely studied in competition sport events, although it has been frequently forgotten until now.

These conclusions give rise to some questions, to which it makes sense to provide the answers during this research: is the construct “People” effectively less important than “Activity” and “Place” in the experience perception? Would it be interesting to have a deeper future study on this construct, to analyse its relevance in recreational sport tourism events?

In the interviews with the event organizers, they were asked if there was some type of support from a public authority that recognized the relevance of this type of events to raise tourism in the area during the events. The interviewees mentioned the growing importance given to this type of events and the potentialities these events may have in the region from a tourism perspective, during the event. However, none of the observations about this issue was taken from the interview in order to study the process of local promotion by these events.

Based on the constructs and defined variables inherent to the study objectives, a conceptual model was built that will be the starting point for the creation of the last survey.

A model for “Recreational Sport Tourism Events’ Experience”
- A participant’s perspective -

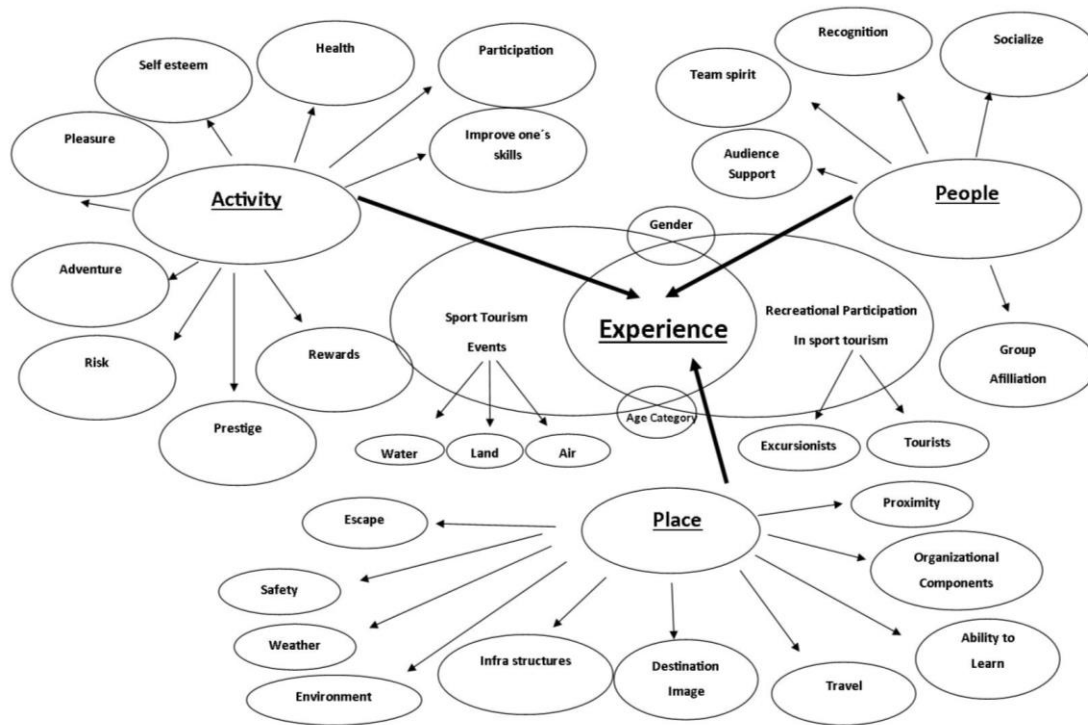


Figure 41 – Conceptual Model III for Recreational Participation in Sport Tourism Events Experience

Source: Own elaboration

7.3. Second stage study – Data Collection Tools in Quantitative Research

The quantitative approach focuses on factor analysis through quantification in data collection and analysis as well as theoretical research (Coutinho, 2011; Bryman, 2012). The theoretical support used in this approach allows operationalization of the concepts and variables, as well as testing, checking, and proving the hypotheses provided in this study.

The survey through questionnaires was the instrument used for the quantitative research adopted in this study. This data collection tool might be applied in several research situations and contexts, and its popularity is known in social and human sciences research (Moreira, 2009). As mentioned above, this last questionnaire was built based on the bibliographical review, on a preliminary survey and on an exploratory research (in-depth interview) with the CEOs of sport events organization companies,

and was the final stage to draw the study findings concerning sport tourism events and their participants.

7.3.1. The Methodology of the Survey

In the following subsections we will present the main methodological steps used, including the construction of the questionnaire (scale, other items), the sample and the sample’s characteristics, and data analysis, namely the techniques used in data analysis and the results observed.

7.3.1.1. Scale

To develop the scale, considering Weed and Bull’s (2004) conceptualization of sports tourism as a phenomenon arising from the field of unique interactions between “Activity”, “People” and “Place”, the DeVellis’s (2003) procedure was followed. Steps included the following: a) a clear determination of what was going to be measured using the theory to delimit the meaning of the construct, b) a generation of a large pool of items and reflection of the scale’s purpose, c) a definition of the measurement format, d) a review of the initial pool of items by experts, e) an inclusion of validation items, f) implementation of the items for the sample development, g) evaluation of the items, and h) the optimization of a scale length.

To do this, it was necessary to build and validate a measuring scale for the experience in a recreational sport tourism event. As mentioned in the bibliographical review, the existing sport events scales measured other kind of events and participants, not the recreational sport tourism events experience. This scale was built from the suggestions included in the bibliographical review, specifically Weed and Bull’s (2004) theoretical proposition, and from processing the interviews with specialists in the sport tourism events area.

To validate the instrument’s reliability, exploratory factor analysis was used with the varimax rotation method, and internal consistency was analysed through Cronbach’s alpha. It was concluded that the number of initial variables should be retained, although

some of them changed to another construct considering the initial proposition. Exploratory factor analysis, on the one hand, intends to verify how the variables are grouped, and, on the other hand, which variables are useful to create the dimensions. According to Tabachnick and Fidell (2007) we may use statistical techniques applied to a single set of variables to discover which variables in the set form coherent subsets that are relatively independent of one another. Variables that are correlated with one another but largely independent of other subsets of variables are combined into factors. Cronbach’s alpha coefficient is considered one of the most frequently used indicators to assess internal consistency of a set of variables, as well as instruments using Likert-type scales (Pestana & Gageiro, 2008; Coutinho, 2011). According to Pestana and Gageiro (2008), this indicator comprehends values between 0 and 1, and internal consistency is: i) very good (over 0.9); ii) good (0.8-0.9); iii) reasonable (0.7-0.8); iv) weak (0.6-0.7); v) inadmissible (under 0.6).

A Likert scale consists of the proposal of answer options with the same number of possibilities on the negative and positive side, and a neutral position to which a value for each answer option is subsequently allocated. The positive answers are allocated if there is a higher value than the negative ones. The answers resulting from the sum of the obtained values are analysed (Fortin, 2003). A 5-point Likert satisfaction scale was applied with the indicators from 1 – no relevance to 5 – very relevant. The constructs assessed were “Activity”, “Place” and “People”.

7.3.1.2. Other Items

The remaining relevant items that allow an answer to the hypotheses initially placed and which were part of the survey are connected to sociodemographic elements, type of participant and, finally, the type of event.

For sociodemographic elements, “gender”, “age” and “country of residence” were selected. Two of these elements were considered in the participant’s perspective of the recreational sport tourism event experience.

According to Chen (2010) male and female study participants cited different attributes, consequences, and values. Men are motivated by high levels of eustress,

group affiliation, entertainment stimulation, and take the actual competition seriously, while women valued loyalty to the team, social support, social responsibility, altruism, and support for gender equality.

McPherson (1984) considers age as more than just a chronological variable, viewing it also as social construct that defines role behaviour at specific points in the life cycle. Age is an important form of social differentiation. The following age categories were considered: <30 years old; 30-60 years old; and >60.

The classification of the participant type in recreational sport tourism events considered in this study drew on Nogawa, Yamguchi and Hagi (1996). These authors drew a distinction between Sport Tourists (who sojourn at least one night at the venue), Sport Excursionists (less than 24 hours at the venue) and a Sport for All Event (that does not require any entry qualifications); however, this latter was not taken into consideration. As regards to the type of event, and based on Aspás (2000), events might be divided according to the physical environment where they take place, that is air, water, and land. The hypotheses subject to statistical testing with the intention of validation are the ones already mentioned above.

7.3.2. The Sample and Sample Characteristics

The sample selection methods were of convenience, since surveys are made through a questionnaire of which the process of sending and collecting data is carried out by companies that organize these events through participants’ e-mails over the months of registration. After gathering questionnaires, information is statistically treated through SPSS software program. Results obtained from this study are treated and presented in a descriptive and qualitative manner to understand the motivations of tourists who participate in recreational sports events. According to the methodological procedures, the online surveys were applied to participants who already had been engaged in events of this type, either tourists or excursionists. There was a limited control of the answers on the pages of recreational sport tourism events’ organizers. The type of sampling used to collect empirical data was selected for the sake of convenience and accessibility.

Thus, a range of clubs and sport events’ companies were contacted to push this survey to reach their participants and followers. Following the initial contact with approximately 30 companies in the area of sport tourism events, an affirmative reply was obtained from *B2Run*, *Clube Natura*, *Wind*, *Malta da Vela*, and *We Run*, and as the selection coherence with the first sampling was the main concern, there is one company for each physical environment. The total of selected companies’ followers was 10,830 distributed as follows: *Malta da Vela* (water, 2,105 online followers); *Wind* (air, 4,236 online followers); and the company *We run* (land, 4,489 online followers).

In this study, recreational sport tourism event participants are subject to analysis. It is impossible to determine the universe of the analysis object in methodological terms; however, it is possible to know the rate of response for the number of participants reached by the survey, that is, by the time the surveys were published online (July 2017) through the databanks of the three companies. Not all the registered names in these databanks participated in any type of event. These surveys were collected between July and August 2017.

Considering the characteristics of the sample, whose criteria are heterogeneous (regarding the sampling environment and the expanded number of participants), participants in water events were selected through the group *Malta da Vela* (348 members), air participants through *Wind* (122 members), and for land participants the company *We run* (1,015 members). The sample is composed by 401 individuals, of whom there were 57 for the water event; 14 for the air event and 330 for the land event. Despite the few responders for air and water events, the sample is considered representative of the universe considering the total of the universe is unknown. Also, derived from the sampling method it was impossible to control the proportion by physical environment, otherwise the sample would be manipulated.

Also, benefiting from the experience of local collection the first survey and considering that this time there would not be an interviewer at the venue, the survey was adapted accordingly by shortening it and simplifying the answers to prevent dropouts and misinterpretations. The intention of perceiving whether the hypotheses raised are validated or not was retained. This questionnaire was launched online during the

summer, following the organizers’ suggestion, and due to time constraints it was available only during July and August 2017.

The questionnaire (Appendix 3), similarly to the first one, is also structured in three parts, with a total of 19 questions: the first part was designed to identify the participant’s demographic data. The questions focused on gender, age range and country of residence. The sample is characterized by participants with a minimum age of six years old and no maximum age. The second part includes questions on the variables and constructs capable of assessing the participant’s experience in the recreational sport tourism event. A 5-point Likert satisfaction scale was applied with the following indicators: 1 – no relevance; 2 – little relevance; 3 – neither little relevance nor great relevance; 4 – relevant; 5 – very relevant. The third part of the questionnaire includes questions in connection to the type of event in which the participant took part and to the participant’s profile, in order to identify indicators on participation. Two open-ended questions were placed to allow the collection of opinions on what could improve the event itself, in order to help the organizers to better plan their next events.

7.3.3. Data Analysis

Data analysis should relate the survey results to the questions and issues identified by the Statement of Objectives. Data analysis on survey uses the following techniques:

- Descriptive Statistics used to describe the basic features of the data in a study. This provide simple summaries about the sample and the measures. Descriptive statistics helps describe, show or summarize data in a meaningful way such that, for example, patterns might emerge from data.
- Principal component analysis (PCA) with the varimax rotation method was the first method used – PCA is a dimension reduction tool that can be used to reduce a large set of variables to a small set that still contains most of the information in the large set with varimax. One of the most popular orthogonal factor rotation methods is a simple structure that attempts to clarify the relationships among variables by producing factors with either very high or very low coefficients and variables with high

coefficients on only one variable. Rotation to simple structure generally simplifies the relationships among the variables and clarifies the interpretation of the factors.

- The reliability of the factors with internal consistency was explored using Cronbach’s alpha statistics. Internal consistency is the extent to which a group of items measures the same construct, as evidenced by how well they vary together, or interrelate. Cronbach’s alpha measures the internal consistency of a group of items by measuring the homogeneity of the group of items.

According to Litwin (2003), Cronbach alpha indicates how well the different items complement each other in their measurement of different aspects of the same variable or quality. It ranges in values between zero and one. Values closer to one indicate a higher internal consistency; values closer to zero indicate a lower internal consistency. McMillan and Schumacher (2001) suggest that groups of items with an alpha below 0.70 should be used with caution. The internal consistency of a scale can also be examined with item-to-scale correlations and interrelations of items within a scale (DeVellis, 2003). If a group of items measures a single latent construct, we would assume that each item alone correlates with the scale overall and that items within such a scale are positively correlated. According to Clark and Watson (1995), average inter-item correlations should fall somewhere between 0.15 and 0.50.

- Afterwards, a confirmatory factor analysis was applied, with the maximum likelihood estimation method, to test the factorial structure informed by the results of the exploratory factor analysis. For this statistical procedure, the software AMOS was used, which is a structural equation modelling software which allows the researcher to build models that reflect complex relationships more accurately than with standard multivariate statistics techniques.

- Finally inferential statistics were used, namely t-tests, to compare groups on the scores obtained in the scale. Other t-tests were also used to compare sociodemographic groups on their scale scores.

7.3.3.1. Descriptive Statistics

For the full sample (n = 401) the following tables present the subtotals for the frequencies and percentages of the different categories of assessed variables, and are not considered missing values, which have a higher residual impact in the sample’s full dimension whenever they occur.

Descriptive statistics of the study’s sample regarding gender are presented in Table 15. Results indicated that the majority of the participants were female (n = 225; 56.1%).

Table 15 – Frequency and percentage of male and female participants (N = 401)

<i>Frequency and Percentage of Male and Female Participants (N = 401)</i>			
	Frequency	Percentage	Valid Percentage
Male	176	43.9	44
Female	225	56.1	56
Total	401	100.0	100

Source: Own elaboration

Results regarding the distribution of the sample by age categories are presented in Tables 16 and 17. The results in Table 16 indicate that most participants of the sample are between 40 and 49 years old (n = 164; 40.9), and the majority of the sample are less than 50 years old. The least represented age categories on the sample are between 6 and 18 years old (n = 5; 1.2%) and more than 70 years old (n = 2; 0.5%). The results in Table 17 suggest that the majority of participants of the sample are aged between 30 and 60 years old (n = 340; 84.8%), and the least represented category is that of more than 60 years old (n = 18; 4.5%).

A model for “Recreational Sport Tourism Events’ Experience”
- A participant’s perspective -

Table 16 – Frequency and percentage of participants by age category (N = 401)

<i>Frequency and Percentage of Participants by Age Category (N = 401)</i>			
	Frequency	Percentage	Cumulative Percentage
6-18 years	5	1.2	1.2
19-29 years	38	9.5	10.7
30-39 years	117	29.2	39.9
40-49 years	164	40.9	80.8
50-59 years	59	14.7	95.5
60-69 years	16	4	99.5
> 70 years	2	0.5	100
Total	401	100	

Source: Own elaboration

Table 17 – Frequency and percentage of participants by age category (N = 401)

<i>Frequency and Percentage of Participants by Age Category (N = 401)</i>			
	Frequency	Percentage	Cumulative Percentage
< 30 years	43	10.7	10.7
30-60 years	340	84.8	95.5
> 60 years	18	4.5	100
Total	401	100	

Source: Own elaboration

The distribution of participants by gender and age categories is presented in Table 18. For both male and female participants, the majority of the sample are between 30 and 60 years old (n = 144; 81.8% for males and n = 196; 87.1% for females).

Table 18 – Frequency and percentage of participants distributed by gender and age category (N = 401)

<i>Frequency and Percentage of Participants Distributed by Gender and Age Category (N = 401)</i>				
		Frequency	Percentage	Cumulative Percentage
Male	< 30 years	19	10.8	10.8
	30-60 years	144	81.8	92.6
	> 60 years	13	7.4	100
	Total	176	100	
Female	< 30 years	24	10.7	10.7
	30-60 years	196	87.1	97.8
	> 60 years	5	2.2	100
	Total	225	100	
Total		401	100	

Source: Own elaboration

7.3.3.2. Type of Event

In this section, descriptive statistics are presented regarding the type of event attended by participants, taking into account participants’ gender and age. Table 19 presents the results for the distribution of participants according to the type of event and gender, and indicates that the majority of participants in the “air” event were female (n = 9; 64.3%), the majority of participants on the “water” event were male (n = 29; 50.9%), although close to the number of female participants, and for the “land” event, the majority of participants were female (n = 188; 56.7%). Regarding the distribution of participants by type of event and age, results indicate that for the “air” event the majority of participants are between 30 and 60 years old (n = 12; 85.7%), for the “water” event the majority of participants are also between 30 and 60 years of age (n = 48; 84.2%), the same as for the “land” event (n = 280; 84.8%) (Table 20).

The sample size in relation to the type of event is considered sufficient given the calculated size of the study population, even considering a very conservative estimate of

this. Also, in this area, it should be mentioned that all variables considered are qualitative ones, and therefore the valuation of parameters concerning quantitative variables, with its assumption’s verification concerning the adjustment to a Gauss curve, do not apply in this study. Still concerning this study, the same considerations should be made in relation to the population variance. In this type of qualitative studies, as regards population size, in general this does not directly influence the sample size, that is, there is no relation of proportionality between the population size and the sample size.

Concerning the distribution of sample elements by physical environment (air, land and water) it is natural that the population underwent some changes since 2016; however, the analysis followed in this work is still a means for qualitative data processing considering these same distributions. Finally, it should be mentioned that the planning followed for this study sampling aimed firstly at data collection that might complement each other considering the nature of the environment where they were collected (on site and online), thereby reducing potential discrepancies.

Table 19 – Frequency and percentage of participants distributed by type of event and gender (N = 401)

<i>Frequency and Percentage of Participants Distributed by Type of Event and Gender (N = 401)</i>				
		Frequency	Percentage	Cumulative Percentage
Air	Male	5	35.7	35.7
	Female	9	64.3	100
	Total	14	100	
Water	Male	29	50.9	50.9
	Female	28	49.1	100
	Total	57	100	
Land	Male	142	43	43.2
	Female	188	56.7	100
	Total	330	99.7	
Total		401	100	

Source: Own elaboration

A model for “Recreational Sport Tourism Events’ Experience”
- A participant’s perspective -

Table 20 – Frequency and percentage of participants distributed by type of event and age categories (N = 401)

<i>Frequency and Percentage of Participants Distributed by Type of Event and Age Categories (N = 401)</i>				
		Frequency	Percentage	Cumulative Percentage
Air	< 30 years	2	14.3	14.3
	30-60 years	12	85.7	100
	Total	14	100	
Water	< 30 years	5	8.8	8.8
	30-60 years	48	84.2	93
	> 60 years	4	7	100
	Total	57	100	
Land	< 30 years	36	10.9	10.9
	30-60 years	280	84.8	95.8
	> 60 years	14	4.2	100
	Total	330	100	
Total		401	100	

Source: Own elaboration

Participants were also asked whether this was the first time they had attended the event. Results are presented in Table 21 and indicate that the majority of participants were not attending the event for the first time (n = 250; 62.3%). The same question was analysed considering the type of event. Results are presented in Table 22 and indicate that the majority of participants were attending the “air” event for the first time (n = 8; 57.1%), for the “water” event the majority of participants were not attending the event for the first time (n = 31; 54.4%), and for the “land” event the majority of participants were also not attending the event for the first time (n = 213; 64.5%).

A model for “Recreational Sport Tourism Events’ Experience”
- A participant’s perspective -

Table 21 – Frequency and percentage of participants that responded ‘yes’ and ‘no’ to the question

“Was this the first time you attended this event?” (N = 401)

Frequency and Percentage of Participants that Responded ‘Yes’ and ‘No’ to the Question “Was This the First Time You Attended This Event?” (N = 401)			
	Frequency	Percentage	Cumulative Percentage
No	250	62.3	62.3
Yes	151	37.7	100
Total	401	100	

Source: Own elaboration

Table 22 – Frequency and percentage of participants distributed by type of event and responded ‘yes’ and ‘no’ to the question “Was this the first time you attended this event?” (N = 401)

Frequency and Percentage of Participants Distributed by Type of Event and Responded ‘Yes’ and ‘No’ to the Question “Was This the First Time You Attended This Event?” (N = 401)				
		Frequency	Percentage	Cumulative Percentage
Air	No	6	42.9	42.9
	Yes	8	57.1	100
	Total	14	100	
Water	No	31	54.4	54.4
	Yes	26	45.6	100
	Total	57	100	
Land	No	213	64.5	64.5
	Yes	117	35.5	100
	Total	330	100	
Total		401	100	

Source: Own elaboration

Participants were also asked whether they were attending the event alone or whether they had company. Results from these analyses are presented in Table 23 and indicate that, for all and each one of the events, the majority of participants were not

A model for “Recreational Sport Tourism Events’ Experience”
- A participant’s perspective -

attending the event alone (for “air” event: n = 13; 92.9%), (for the “water” event: n = 50; 87.7%), and (for the “land” event: n = 271; 82.1%).

Table 23 – Frequency and percentage of participants distributed by type of event and whether they were attending the event alone (‘yes’) or with company (‘no’) (N = 401)

<i>Frequency and Percentage of Participants Distributed by Type of Event and Whether they were Attending the Event Alone (‘Yes’) or With Company (‘No’)</i> <i>(N = 401)</i>				
		Frequency	Percentage	Cumulative Percentage
Air	No	13	92.9	92.9
	Yes	1	7.1	100
	Total	14	100	
Water	No	50	87.7	87.7
	Yes	7	12.3	100
	Total	57	100	
Land	No	271	82.1	82.1
	Yes	59	17.9	100
	Total	330	100	
Total		401	100	

Source: Own elaboration

Additionally, participants that were accompanied at the event were asked about the motives for their company coming along. Results for this question by type of event are presented in Table 24 and indicate the same result for all: the majority of the companions prefer to travel to participate instead of just visiting or engaging in a more traditional type of tourism (“air” event, n = 9; 64.3%; “water” event n = 37; 64.9%; “land” event, n = 206; 62.4%).

A model for “Recreational Sport Tourism Events’ Experience”
- A participant’s perspective -

Table 24 – Frequency and percentage of participants distributed by type of event and the reason they were attending the event (N = 401)

<i>Frequency and Percentage of Participants Distributed by Type of Event and the Reason for Supporting the Event (N = 401)</i>				
		Frequency	Percentage	Cumulative Percentage
Air	Participate in the event	9	64.3	64.3
	Leisure	2	14.3	78.6
	Missing	3	21.4	100
	Total	14	100	
Water	Participate in the event	37	64.9	64.9
	Leisure	8	14	78.9
	Participate in the event and leisure	5	8.8	87.7
	Missing	7	12.3	100
	Total	57	100	
Land	Participate in the event	206	62.4	62.4
	Leisure	39	11.8	74.2
	Participate in the event and leisure	12	3.6	77.9
	Missing	73	22.1	100
	Total	330	100	
Total		401	100	

Source: Own elaboration

Participants were also asked whether they were a sports tourist (staying on the place of the event for the night), or a sports excursionist (staying in the event for less than 24 hours). Results for this question are presented in Table 25 and indicate that the majority of participants were sports excursionists (n = 204; 50.9%) meaning that they stayed at the event for less than 24 hours.

A model for “Recreational Sport Tourism Events’ Experience”
- A participant’s perspective -

Table 25 – Frequency and percentage of “Sports Tourists” and “Sports Excursionist” (N = 401)

Frequency and Percentage of “Sport Tourists” and “Sport Excursionist” (N = 401)		
	Frequency	Percentage
Sport Tourists	197	49.1
Sport Excursionists	204	50.9
Total	401	100

Source: Own elaboration

The same question was analysed considering the type of event. Results are presented in Table 26 and indicate that for the “air” event, the majority of participants were sports tourists (n = 10; 71.4%), for the “water” event the majority of participants were also sports tourists (n = 41; 71.9%), but for the “land” event the majority of participants were sports excursionists (n = 184; 55.8%).

Table 26 – Frequency and percentage of “Sports Tourists” and “Sports Excursionist” by type of event (N = 401)

Frequency and Percentage of “Sport Tourists” and “Sport Excursionist” by Type of Event (N = 401)				
		Frequency	Percentage	Cumulative Percentage
Air	Sport Tourists	10	71.4	71.4
	Sport Excursionists	4	28.6	100
	Total	14	100	
Water	Sport Tourists	41	71.9	71.9
	Sport Excursionists	16	28.1	100
	Total	57	100	
Land	Sport Tourists	146	44.2	44.2
	Sport Excursionists	184	55.8	100
	Total	330	100	
Total		401	100	

Source: Own elaboration

7.3.3.3. Analysis of the Scale

7.3.3.3.1. Exploratory Factor Analysis

A principal component analysis with the varimax rotation method was conducted on the 24 items that compose the scale to explore its dimensionality.

According to the rule eigenvalue > 1.3 components were extracted, explaining 68% of the total variance. Factor 1 explained 27% of variance, Factor 2 explained 23% of the variance, and Factor 3 explained 19% of variance. The KMO was 0.961 and Bartlett’s Test of Sphericity was significant ($\chi^2 = 8056.76$, $p < .001$). All items’ standardized loadings and communalities are presented in Table 27. Regarding Component 1, which is named “Place”, results indicate that all 10 items that were theoretically designed to measure this factor loaded on this factor. With respect to Component 2, which is named “Activity”, results indicate that the majority of the 9 items that were designed to measure this factor loaded on the respective factor, with the exception of three items that loaded on Component 3. These items were Risk, Prestige and Rewards. Finally, for Component 3, which is named “People”, results indicated that of the original 5 items designed to measure this factor, three loaded on the respective factor and the remaining two items loaded on the factor “Activity”. These items were Socialize and Team spirit.

A model for “Recreational Sport Tourism Events’ Experience”
- A participant’s perspective -

Table 27 – Summary of Factor loadings and communalities (h^2) of the scale (N = 401)

Summary of Factor Loadings and Communalities (h^2) of the Scale (N = 401)				
	Rotated Component Matrix			
Item	1	2	3	h^2
Environment	.831	.339	.149	.827
Safety	.771	.398	.219	.801
Weather	.766	.264	.231	.710
Infrastructures	.761	.336	.260	.759
Organizational components	.718	.330	.249	.687
Escape	.704	.377	.176	.670
Destination image	.686	.193	.347	.628
Proximity	.675	.115	.210	.513
Travel	.645	.164	.363	.574
Ability to learn	.636	.397	.333	.672
Pleasure	.326	.804	.262	.821
Improve one’s skills	.272	.759	.213	.695
Health	.374	.751	.282	.784
Self-esteem	.284	.747	.305	.732
Participation	.303	.741	.249	.703
Team spirit	.326	.645	.487	.759
Adventure	.276	.584	.421	.595
Socialize	.316	.564	.419	.594
Recognition	.210	.349	.767	.754
Rewards	.300	.104	.741	.650
Prestige	.270	.273	.712	.655
Audience support	.209	.382	.680	.652
Group Affiliation	.244	.307	.670	.603
Risk	.292	.302	.560	.489

Source: Own elaboration

7.3.3.3.2. Reliability (Internal Consistency) of the Factors of the Scale

To explore the reliability of the three factors that compose the scale, internal consistency was estimated for the three factors separately, using Cronbach’s alpha statistics. Descriptive statistics for each item and for the item-total are also presented.

Factor 1 – Place: The internal consistency of the factor 1 “Place” composed by 10 items was excellent, with a Cronbach’s alpha of .943. Descriptive statistics for each item of the scale are provided in Table 28.

Table 28 – Items’ descriptive statistics (mean and standard deviation for the Factor 1 “Place”) (N = 401)

<i>Items’ Descriptive Statistics (Mean and Standard Deviation for the Factor 1 “Place”) (N = 401)</i>		
Item	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>
Proximity	3.44	1.21
Organizational components	4.05	1.11
Ability to learn	3.71	1.12
Travel	3.33	1.21
Destination image	3.42	1.22
Infrastructures	3.94	1.09
Environment	4.06	1.08
Weather	3.69	1.15
Safety	4.30	1.10
Escape	3.92	1.17

Source: Own elaboration

Regarding item-total statistics, results indicate that all items presented high correlations with the total scale. Moreover, no item if deleted would substantially increase Cronbach’s alpha (Table 29).

A model for “Recreational Sport Tourism Events’ Experience”
- A participant’s perspective -

Table 29 – Item – total statistics for the Factor 1 “Place” (N = 401)

Item - Total Statistics for the Factor 1 “Place” (N = 401)				
Item	Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Cronbach’s Alpha if Item Deleted
Proximity	34.42	72.76	.625	.944
Organizational components	33.81	71.33	.782	.937
Ability to learn	34.15	71.32	.768	.937
Travel	34.53	71.64	.688	.941
Destination image	34.44	70.63	.733	.939
Infrastructures	33.92	70.64	.833	.935
Environment	33.80	70.38	.861	.933
Weather	34.17	70.66	.788	.937
Safety	33.56	70.16	.854	.934
Escape	33.94	70.79	.761	.938

Source: Own elaboration

Factor 2 – Activity – The internal consistency of the factor 2 “Activity” composed by eight items was excellent, with a Cronbach’s alpha of .937. Descriptive statistics for each item of the scale are provided in Table 30.

Table 30 – Items’ descriptive statistics (mean and standard deviation for the Factor 2 “Activity”) (N = 401)

Items’ Descriptive Statistics (Mean and Standard Deviation for the Factor 2 “Activity”) (N = 401)		
Item	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>
Health	4.12	1.14
Self-esteem	3.93	1.19
Pleasure	4.24	1.07
Participation	3.94	1.18
Adventure	3.54	1.18
Team spirit	4.11	1.30
Socialize	3.71	1.29
Improve one’s skills	3.90	1.13

Source: Own elaboration

An inspection of item-total statistics indicates that all items presented high correlations with the total scale. Also, no item if deleted would substantially increase Cronbach’s alpha (Table 31).

A model for “Recreational Sport Tourism Events’ Experience”
- A participant’s perspective -

Table 31 – Item – total statistics for the Factor 2 “Activity” (N = 401)

Item – Total Statistics for the Factor 2 “Activity” (N = 401)				
Item	Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Cronbach’s Alpha if Item Deleted
Health	27.37	48.19	.836	.925
Self-esteem	27.57	48.08	.798	.928
Pleasure	27.25	48.64	.863	.924
Participation	27.55	48.65	.773	.930
Adventure	27.95	49.63	.705	.934
Team spirit	27.38	46.60	.813	.927
Socialize	27.78	48.34	.713	.934
Improve one’s skills	27.59	49.48	.752	.931

Source: Own elaboration

Factor 3 – People – The internal consistency of the factor 3 “People” composed by 6 items was good, with a Cronbach’s alpha of .883. Descriptive statistics for each item of the scale are provided in Table 32.

Table 32 – Items’ descriptive statistics (mean and standard deviation for the Factor 3 “People”) (N = 401)

Items’ Descriptive Statistics (Mean and Standard Deviation for the Factor 3 “People”) (N = 401)		
Item	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>
Audience support	3.49	1.45
Recognition	3.27	1.33
Group affiliation	3.36	1.38
Rewards	2.63	1.26
Prestige	3.03	1.28
Risk	3.04	1.35

Source: Own elaboration

Finally, an inspection of item-total statistics indicates that all items presented high correlations with the total scale. The item that presented the lowest correlation with the total scale was *Risk* (0.590). However, if this item was deleted from the scale, Cronbach’s alpha would decrease. No other item if deleted would substantially increase Cronbach’s alpha (Table 33).

Table 33 – Item – total statistics for the Factor 3 “People” (N = 401)

<i>Item – Total Statistics for the Factor 3 “People” (N = 401)</i>				
Item	Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Cronbach’s Alpha if Item Deleted
Audience support	15.33	27.90	.708	.859
Recognition	15.55	27.90	.790	.844
Group affiliation	15.47	28.89	.675	.864
Rewards	16.19	29.97	.671	.864
Prestige	15.79	29.21	.720	.857
Risk	15.79	30.25	.590	.877

Source: Own elaboration

7.3.3.3.3. Confirmatory Factor Analysis

A confirmatory factor analysis with the maximum likelihood estimation method was conducted to test the factorial structure informed by the results of the exploratory factor analysis. Thus, an initial model was tested with three factors, namely “Place” (10 items), “Activity” (eight items), and “People” (six items). All items present factor loadings above 0.50, which is a conservative threshold for factor loadings (Table 34). Regarding factor 1 “Place”, the item with highest factor loading was *Safety* (0.893) and the item with the lowest factor loading was *Proximity* (0.639). Regarding factor 2 “Activity”, the item with the highest factor loading was *Improve one’s skills* (0.889) and the item with the lowest factor loading was *Pleasure* (0.734). Finally, regarding factor 3 “People”, the item with highest factor loading was *Recognition* (0.850) and the item with the lowest factor loading was *Risk* (0.646).

A model for “Recreational Sport Tourism Events’ Experience”
- A participant’s perspective -

Table 34 – Standardized regression weights of each item of its respective factor

<i>Standardized Regression Weights of each Item of its Respective Factor</i>	
Item	Estimate
Factor 1 “Place”	
Proximity	.639
Organizational components	.814
Ability to learn	.801
Travel	.687
Destination image	.732
Infrastructures	.866
Environment	.890
Weather	.817
Safety	.893
Escape	.798
Factor 2 “Activity”	
Socialize	.746
Team spirit	.843
Participation	.802
Improve one’s skills	.889
Health	.777
Self-esteem	.875
Adventure	.829
Pleasure	.734
Factor 3 “People”	
Risk	.646
Group affiliation	.738
Audience support	.786
Prestige	.766
Rewards	.694
Recognition	.850

Source: Own elaboration

A model for “Recreational Sport Tourism Events’ Experience”
- A participant’s perspective -

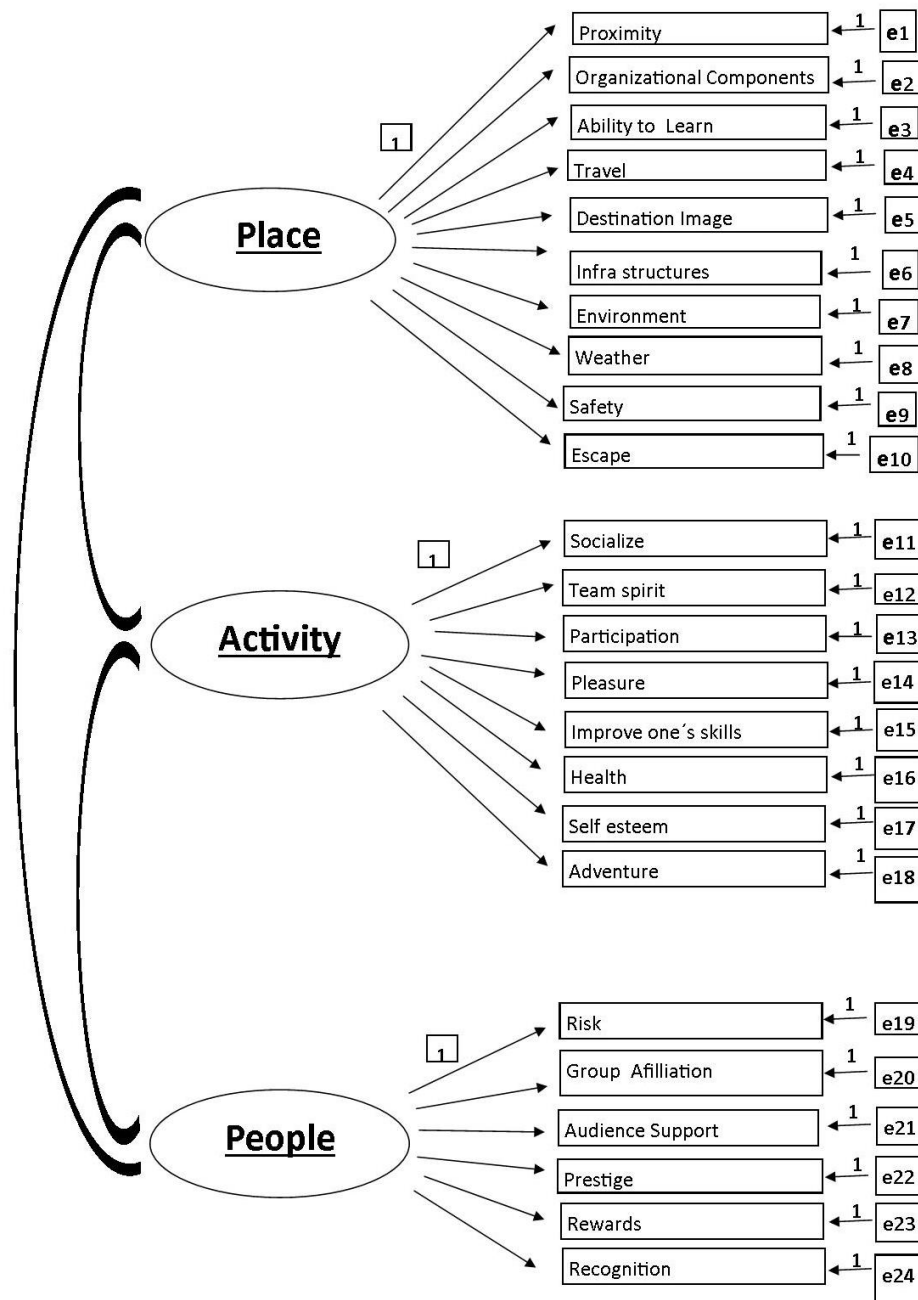


Figure 42 – Model I

Source: Own elaboration

Model fit statistics for this model were: $\chi^2/df = 3.858$, CFI = .911, TLI = .911, GFI = .824, RMSEA = .085, $p < .001$, AIC = 1062.606 and ECVI = 2.657. These results suggest that this model has an overall acceptable fit to the data. A good fit is obtained

when the χ^2/df is 2 or lower, the CFI, GFI and TLI are 0.90 or higher and the RMSEA is 0.10 or lower. To compare the relative fit of the competing models, the Akaike information criterion (AIC) and the expected cross-validation index (ECVI) were used. The model with the smallest AIC and ECVI has the better fit (Figure 43).

There were also significant correlations between the factors, namely .785 between factor 1 “Place” and factor 2 “Activity”, .709 between factor 1 “Place” and factor 3 “People”, and .808 between factor 2 “Activity” and factor 3 “People”. However, an inspection of Modification Indices suggested a correlation between the error terms of items *Travel* and *Destination image* (M.I. = 123.229), and between the error terms of the items *Socialize* and *Team spirit* (M.I. = 70.362). Given that the correlation between these pairs of items was not only statistically but also theoretically justified (given that the suggested correlations were between items belonging to the same factor), the initial model was respecified and a new confirmatory factor analysis was computed on the 24 items of the scale with two pairs of correlated error terms (Figure 43).

A model for “Recreational Sport Tourism Events’ Experience”
- A participant’s perspective -

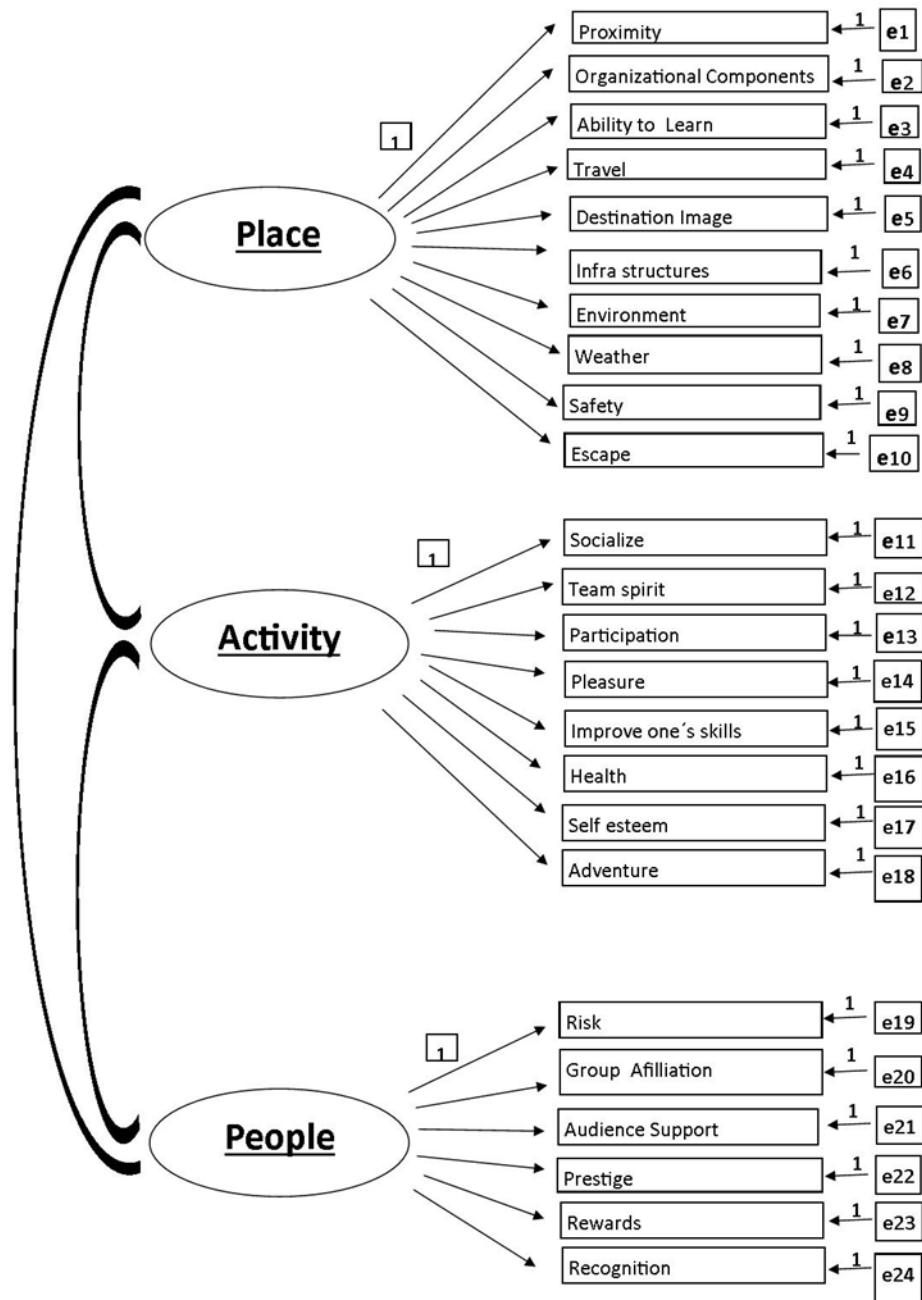


Figure 43 – Model II correlated

Source: Own elaboration

Model fit statistics for this respecified model were: $\chi^2/df = 3.013$, CFI = .938, TLI = .930, GFI = .866, RMSEA = .071, $p < .001$, AIC = 850.197 and ECVI = 2.125. These results suggest that the respecified model with two pairs of correlated error terms presented an overall better fit of the data when compared to the original model with no correlated error terms.

A second order model (Figure 44) was also tested to explore the hypotheses that an overarching factor “Experience” would explain the three first-order factors. To explore these hypotheses, a model with a higher-order factor named “Experience” and three first-order factors namely “Place”, “Activity”, and “People” was subjected to confirmatory factor analysis.

Model fit statistics for this second-order model were: $\chi^2/df = 3.013$. CFI = .938. TLI = .930. GFI = .866. RMSEA = .071. $p < .001$. AIC = 850.197 and ECVI = 2.125. These results indicate that a second-order model has the same fit to the data as the respecified first-order model, suggesting that the scale might be used as a global score or as three distinct sub-scales.

A model for “Recreational Sport Tourism Events’ Experience”
- A participant’s perspective -

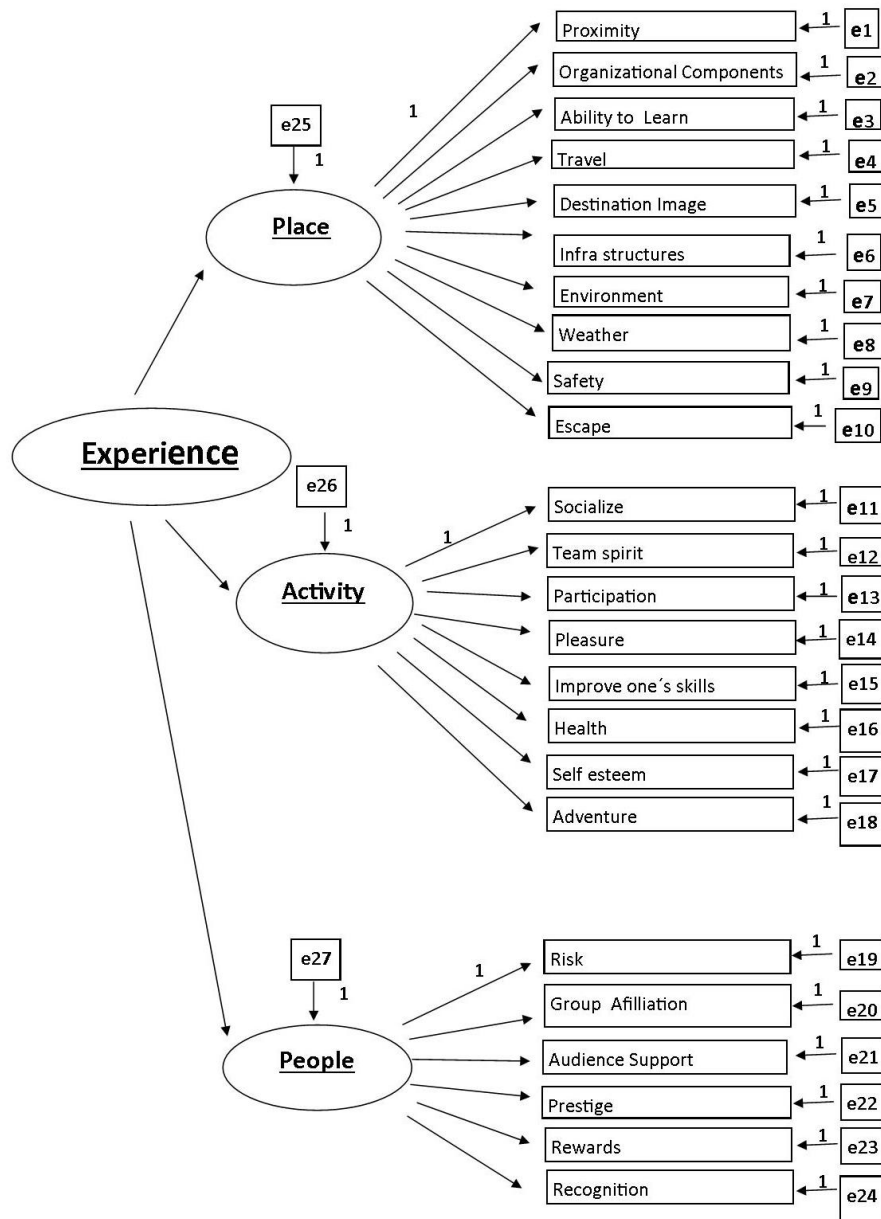


Figure 44 – Model III with “Experience”

Source: Own elaboration

7.3.3.4. Comparative Studies

In this section, several tests were conducted to explore potential differences between groups of participants on their levels of satisfaction with the experience, by comparing their total scores and also by comparing their scores on the three factors separately. Differences between satisfaction with the experience were tested, taking into

account participants’ gender, age, the type of event, whether they are sports’ excursionist or tourist, whether they were attending the event for the first time or not, whether they travel alone or with others, and finally the intention to return to the event.

7.3.3.4.1. Gender

An exploration of potential statistically significant differences in the mean scores of the Experience total scale and the three factors between men and women was conducted. Results from the independent sample t-tests suggested that there were statistically significant differences in the mean scores of men and women in the scale’s total score ($t = -2.316$, $p = .021$), in factor 1 “Place” scores ($t = -2.620$, $p = .009$), and in factor 3 “People” scores (-2.275 , $p = .023$) (Table 35). In the scale’s total score and on the two factors, women scored significantly higher than men.

Table 35 – Independent samples t-test results for the comparison between women and men’s mean scores on the total scale and the three factors of the scale (N = 401)

<i>Independent Samples t-test Results for the Comparison between Women and Men’s Mean Scores on the Total Scale and the Three Factors of the Scale (N = 401)</i>						
	Levene’s Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means			
Variable	<i>F</i>	<i>p</i>	<i>t</i>	<i>df</i>	<i>p</i>	Mean Difference
Experience Total	.163	.687	-2.316	398	.021	-.208
Factor 1 “Place”	.639	.425	-2.620	398	.009	-.244
Factor 2 “Activity”	.408	.524	-1.375	398	.170	-.137
Factor 3 “People”	.112	.738	-2.275	398	.023	-.243

Source: Own elaboration

7.3.3.4.2. Age Categories

Differences between age categories in the mean scores of the total scale and its respective factors were tested using one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA). Results suggested that there were statistically significant differences in the mean scores between age categories on factor 3 “People” (Table 36). An analysis of the mean differences between age categories suggested that participants under 30 years old scored higher on

the total scale Experience when compared to participants with ages between 30 and 60, but were no different from those more than 60 years old.

Table 36 – Analysis of Variance results for the comparison between age categories on the total scale and the three factors of the scale (N = 401)

<i>Analysis of Variance Results for the Comparison Between Age Categories on the Total Scale and the Three Factors of the Scale (N = 401)</i>					
Variable	Sum of Squares	<i>df</i>	Mean Square	<i>F</i>	<i>p</i>
Experience Total	4.470	2.398	2.235	2.817	.061
Factor 1 “Place”	3.041	2.398	1.521	1.751	.175
Factor 2 “Activity”	3.491	2.398	1.745	1.788	.169
Factor 3 “People”	9.241	2.398	4.620	4.139	.017

Source: Own elaboration

7.3.3.4.3. Type of Event

Differences in the mean scores of the total scale and their respective factors between participants attending different events were tested using one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA). Results suggested that there weren’t statistically significant differences in the mean scores of participants attending the air, water and land events on the total scale or on the three factors (Table 37).

Table 37 – Analysis of Variance results for the comparison between type of event on the total scale and the three factors of the scale (N = 401)

<i>Analysis of Variance Results for the Comparison Between Type of Event on the Total Scale and the Three Factors of the Scale (N = 401)</i>					
Variable	Sum of Squares	<i>df</i>	Mean Square	<i>F</i>	<i>p</i>
Experience Total	.308	2.398	.154	.192	.826
Factor 1 “Place”	1.070	2.398	.535	.613	.542
Factor 2 “Activity”	.312	2.398	.156	.158	.853
Factor 3 “People”	.786	2.398	.393	.346	.708

Source: Own elaboration

7.3.3.4.4. Sport Excursionists and Sport Tourists

Differences in the mean scores of the total scale and their respective factors between sports excursionists and sports tourists were tested using an independent samples t-test. Results suggested that there weren’t statistically significant differences in the mean scores of sports excursionists and sports tourists on the total scale or on the three factors (Table 38).

Table 38 – Independent samples t-test results for the comparison between sports excursionists and sports tourists on the total scale and the three factors of the scale (N = 401)

<i>Independent Samples t-test Results for the Comparison between Sports Excursionists and Sports Tourists on the Total Scale and the Three Factors of the Scale (N = 401)</i>						
	Levene’s Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means			
Variable	<i>F</i>	<i>p</i>	<i>t</i>	<i>df</i>	<i>p</i>	Mean Difference
Experience Total	.045	.832	.485	399	.628	.043
Factor 1 “Place”	2.879	.091	.561	399	.575	.052
Factor 2 “Activity”	.299	.585	.237	399	.813	.023
Factor 3 “People”	1.793	.181	.556	399	.578	.059

Source: Own elaboration

7.3.3.4.5. Attending the Event for the First Time

We also explored whether there would be statistically significant differences in the mean scores of the Experience total scale and the three factors between participants who were attending the event for the first time and those who were not. Results from the independent samples t-tests suggested that there were no statistically significant differences in the mean scores between these two groups.(Table 39).

Table 39 – Independent samples t-test results for the comparison between participants who were attending the event for the first time and those who were not on the total scale and the three factors of the scale (N = 401)

Independent Samples t-test Results for the Comparison between Participants Who Were Attending the Event for the First Time and Those Who Were Not on the Total Scale and the Three Factors of the Scale (N = 401)						
	Levene’s Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means			
Variable	<i>F</i>	<i>p</i>	<i>t</i>	<i>df</i>	<i>p</i>	Mean Difference
Experience Total	.924	.337	..415	399	.678	-.038
Factor 1 “Place”	.674	.412	-.564	399	.573	-.054
Factor 2 “Activity”	.674	.412	-.564	399	.573	-.054
Factor 3 “People”	.269	.604	.316	399	.752	.035

Source: Own elaboration

7.3.3.4.6. Attending the Event Alone or With Others

Differences in the mean scores of the total scale and their respective factors between participants attending the event alone or with others were tested using an independent samples t-test. Results suggested that there weren’t statistically significant differences in the mean scores of participants attending the event by themselves or with company on the total scale or on the three factors (Table 40).

Table 40 – Independent samples t-test results for the comparison between participants who attended the event by themselves or with company on the total scale and the three factors of the scale (N = 401)

Independent Samples t-test Results for the Comparison between Participants Who Attended the Event by Themselves or With Company on the Total Scale and the Three Factors of the Scale (N = 401)						
	Levene’s Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means			
Variable	<i>F</i>	<i>p</i>	<i>t</i>	<i>df</i>	<i>p</i>	Mean Difference
Experience Total	.924	.337	-.415	399	.678	-.038
Factor 1 “Place”	.674	.412	-.564	399	.573	-.054
Factor 2 “Activity”	.650	.421	-.739	399	.460	-.075
Factor 3 “People”	.269	.604	.316	399	.752	.035

Source: Own elaboration

7.3.3.4.7. **Intention to Return to the Event**

Results from the non-parametric Mann-Witney U test for independent samples suggested that there were significant differences in the scores of the scale between participants that intended to return to the event and those who didn’t intend to return to the event. Specifically, results indicated statistically significant differences for the total scale ($p = .002$) and for the three factors “Place” ($p = .013$), “Activity” ($p = .001$) and “People” ($p = .005$), and an analysis of mean scores suggests that participants who intend to return to the event showed higher scores indicating greater satisfaction with the event.

7.3.3.5. **Logistic Regression**

Logistic regression is an in-depth analytical method. Often the dependent variable is qualitative and assumes only values of discrete mutually exclusive classes. In those cases, categorical regression is an applicable regression analysis technique. It should be noted that categorical regression serves the same linear regression purposes, namely inferential and estimation. The differences between both models can be found in the implementation assumptions and in the method for obtaining the model coefficients estimates. Whereas in linear regression the dependent variable is quantitative, with categorical regression the dependent variable is qualitative and the independent or predictive variables, also referred to as covariates, may be either quantitative or qualitative. However, categorical regression has different names depending on the qualitative dependent variable type intended to model. When the dependent variable is nominal dichotomous, the linear regression is referred to as logistic regression; if the dependent variable is nominal polychotomous, the regression is named multinomial and is an extension of the logistic regression.

This set of models proved to provide a good data adjustment and hence it might be tested in data of the same nature in future events. The readable results are considered good, albeit expectable, considering most analysed variables are ordinals between 1-5 and are excellent forecasting means to estimate whether an experience was good or bad (a high absolute frequency among the responses between 4-5 also contributed to this).

Categorical regression is the most extensive application, considering:

- It takes qualitative and quantitative predictors;
- Does not take linear relationships between the dependent variable and the covariables;
- Does not require the predictor variables to present a normal distribution;
- It is less sensitive to outliers

The logistic multinomial regression models are efficient only when the dependent variable classes have similar frequencies. For classes with unbalanced frequencies, these models have little efficacy to predict less frequent class(es).

Considering the logistic model errors do not follow the normal distribution nor present constant variance, it is impossible to get optimal estimates from the model coefficients by the least squares method applied in linear regression. The adjustment method in logistic regression is the maximum likelihood method. This estimates the regression coefficients maximizing the probability to find the sampled dependent variable realizations (y_1, y_2, \dots, y_n), that is, maximizing the likelihood of these values.

Once the logistic regression model is adjusted, and similarly to the other models, it is necessary to evaluate the significance and quality of the adjusted model, as well as the logistic regression coefficients’ significance.

To test the adjusted model’s significance, it is necessary to test the hypotheses:

- $H_0: \beta_1 = \beta_2 = \dots = \beta_p = 0$, that is, the model is not statistically significant,

vs.

- $H_1: \exists i: \beta_i \neq 0 \ (i=1, \dots, p)$ that is, the model is statistically significant.

To test the significance of the adjustment to the full model it is necessary to verify the following hypotheses:

- H_0 : The model adjusts to data,

vs.

- H_1 : The model does not adjust to data.

If data are grouped in j cells resulting from cross-checking qualitative predictors, the classic test statistics is Pearson’s chi-square (Hosmer & Lemeshow, 2000). Thus, with Hosmer and Lemeshow’s (2000) test, it is intended not to reject the hypothesis that there are no differences between the predicted values and the observed values.

- H_0 : There are no significant differences between the outcomes predicted by the model and those observed,

vs.

- H_1 : There are significant differences between the outcomes predicted by the model and those observed.

To test the model’s coefficient significance, the following hypotheses should be tested:

- $H_0: \beta_i = 0 \mid \beta_0, \beta_1, \beta_{i-1}, \beta_{i+1}, \beta_p,$

vs.

- $H_1: \beta_i \neq 0 \mid \beta_0, \beta_1, \beta_{i-1}, \beta_{i+1}, \beta_p \quad (i = 1, \dots, p).$

The conclusion of the adjusted model is significant; it implies the existence of at least one independent variable linearly correlated with the Logit (π_j). To identify which independent variables have a significant influence on Logit (π_j), it is normal to apply the Wald Test. This test aims to ascertain whether a certain coefficient is zero or not, depending on the values assessed by other coefficients.

Concerning the selection of variables with predictive power in logistic regression, it is possible to use some selection algorithms.

- Forward Selection (Conditional);
- Forward Selection based on Likelihood Ratio;
- Forward Selection based on Wald’s Test;
- Backward Elimination (Conditional);
- Backward Elimination based on Likelihood Ratio;
- Backward based on Wald’s Test.

If a percentage of correctly classified cases by the model is over a minimum of 25%, the percentage of proportional classification by case, the model is considered as having good qualifying capacity. The model’s qualifying efficiency can also be assessed through its sensitivity and its model specificity.

The sensitivity is the percentage of correct qualifications in the reference class “1 – Success” of the dependent variable, that is, that the participant has a good experience and the model correctly predicts this characteristic.

- Sensitivity = $P [Y^{\wedge} = 1 | Y = 1]$.

The specificity corresponds to the percentage of correct qualifications in the model’s “0 – Failure”, that is, that the participant does not have a good experience and the model predicts that the individual does not have that characteristic.

- Specificity = $P [Y^{\wedge} = 0 | Y = 0]$.

A model with good predictive capacity has a sensitivity and specificity over 80%. For percentages between 50% and 80% it is considered that the model has reasonable predictive capacities. Under 50%, the predictive capacities are weak or mediocre.

Another measure of the model’s capacity to differentiate the participants with a positive experience versus participants with a negative experience is the area under the ROC curve (AUC). This curve’s area ranges between 0 and 1. With an area equal to 0.5, the model is incapable of better differentiating the participants with a positive experience versus participants with a negative experience as compared to the choice by chance. On the other hand, the closer the AUC is to 1, the better the model’s capacity to differentiate the participants with a positive experience (success) versus participants without it (failure).

Another way to analyse this issue is through C-statistic equivalent to the area under the curve and ranging between 0.5 and 1. It is possible to test the following hypotheses:

- $H_0: c = 0.5$ vs. $H_1: c > 0.5$.

However, it is important to consider that the C-statistic assesses only whether the probability of the “success” event occurring is higher, or not, than the probability of a “failure” event occurring. A model might provide a high value for the statistic and still provide a poor prediction the observed probabilities of success. The variables significantly impact the model, that is, they are much more relevant than randomly viewed information. These variables, besides showing their significance for the model, also reveal significant differences in the previously executed hypothesis test, thereby strengthening the conclusions.

To assess the significance of the 33 independent variables considered for this model (gender, audience support, socialize, recognition, group affiliation, team spirit, rewards, prestige, risk, adventure, pleasure, self-esteem, health, participation, overcoming, proximity, organizational capacity, ability to learn, travel, destination image, infrastructure, environment, weather, safety, sense of freedom, the most important element in a sport event, last sport event he/she took part in, length of the stay, whether it was the first time he/she participated, intention to return, age over/under 40, and variable depending experience for the model) on the probability of a good experience occurring, which is the dependent variable, logistic regression was used, initially through the method *Enter* and later through the method *Forward Conditional*, to obtain better results. The variables were allocated a code to ease identification and two or three categories were created. Only three categories were applied to the most important element in a sport event and to the last sport event the participant took part in, with the three categories air, water, land.

It is intended to analyse the significance and/or weight contributing to predicting the dependent variable for these independent variables, except for the experience to predict and assess as good or bad. Among them, the following data provided significant values ($p\text{-value} \leq 0.05$): the variable socialization in the construct “People”; the variables risk, adventure, pleasure, self-esteem and overcoming, concerning the construct “Activity”; the variables organizational components, ability to learn, weather, safety and sense of freedom, concerning “Place” and, finally, the age category $< \text{or} > 40$ years pertaining to demographics. These findings allow an understanding that the

construct “Activity” holds the most significant variables, followed by “Place” and consequently “People” is third.

Initially, logistic regression was applied and Table 41 shows the major indicators for each model applied to all the analysed variables *All* (specifically 33 variables) to each construct (“People”, “Activity” “Place”) and the remaining variables *Others* (most important element, air, water, land, last sport event he/she took part in, length of the stay, whether it was the first time he/she participated, intention to return, age over/under 40).

Table 41 – Results for 5 initial models

Indicators	Model				
	<i>All</i>	<i>People</i>	<i>Activity</i>	<i>Place</i>	<i>Others</i>
R^2 Cox and Snell	0.351	0.089	0.294	0.143	0.112
R^2 Nagelkerke	0.670	0.170	0.117	0.311	0.213
Hosmer and Lemeshow Test	< 0.001	0.844	0.224	0.302	0.309
Specificity	57.4	8.5	6.9	23.4	12.7
Sensitivity	97.6	99.4	99.4	99.1	99.2
ROC Curve	0.679	0.773	0.794	0.823	0.775
Lower limit	0.599	0.691	0.730	0.752	0.714
Upper limit	0.760	0.855	0.857	0.894	0.836

Source: Own elaboration

The above table applies only five models with the significant variables, that is, with a p -value ≤ 0.05 , namely socialization, risk, adventure, pleasure, self-esteem, overcoming, organizational components, ability to learn, weather, safety, sense of freedom and age category. Two variables stand out with a p -value ≤ 0.01 , that is safety and age. According to the values given by the table indicators it was possible to assess that the Model *All* is not significant because its value is < 0.001 in the Hosmer-Lemeshow test.

After that and in the variables group, those variables that were significant to build a new model and perceive the indicators resulting from this model were selected. Despite the satisfactory outcomes, there was a search to identify outliers. Outliers are observations contained in the surveys carried out and somehow inconsistent with the standard, thereby escaping the standard deviation. All analyses were executed with the software SPSS Statistics (v.25, IBM SPSS, Chicago, IL). Table 42 identifies all outliers found.

A model for “Recreational Sport Tourism Events’ Experience”
- A participant’s perspective -

Table 42 – First Outliers Diagnostic

Case	Status selected	Observed	Anticipated	Anticipated Group	Transient Variable		
		Experience			Resid	ZResid	SResid
22	S	1**	0.749	2	-0.749	-1.726	-2.127
34	S	1**	0.933	2	-0.933	-3.725	-2.531
71	S	1**	0.713	2	-0.713	-1.575	-2.209
146	S	1**	0.973	2	-0.973	-6.022	-2.750
174	S	1**	0.727	2	-0.727	-1.631	-2.605
177	S	1**	0.752	2	-0.752	-1.741	-2.138
186	S	1**	0.980	2	-0.980	-7.080	-2.857
216	S	1**	0.865	2	-0.865	-2.526	-2.195
244	S	2**	0.209	1	0.791	1.946	2.372
260	S	1**	0.968	2	-0.968	-5.544	-2.681
264	S	1**	0.747	2	-0.747	-1.720	-2.012
272	S	1**	0.913	2	-0.913	-3.241	-2.411
299	S	1**	0.923	2	-0.923	-3.473	-2.499
310	S	1**	0.804	2	-0.804	-2.029	-2.304
317	S	1**	0.910	2	-0.910	-3.184	-2.560
360	S	1**	0.737	2	-0.737	-1.673	-2.446
373	S	1**	0.911	2	-0.911	-3.209	-2.371

Source: Own elaboration

The validation of the assumptions was also carried out through diagnosis of influential cases and residuals graphic analysis. 17 candidate outlier observations were identified. They were integrated into the initial model and were withdrawn from the optimized model, considering that, following their removal, both the logistic model adjustment quality and its significance improved.

The figure immediately below shows the study values that affect the findings. All visible points above a value of 4 are observations that might introduce bias in the results, besides which, it is possible, through the graphic, to see the dimension of each of these points representing the Cook’s influence statistics, the dimension of which is proportional to the influence capacity of that same observation.

A model for “Recreational Sport Tourism Events’ Experience”
- A participant’s perspective -

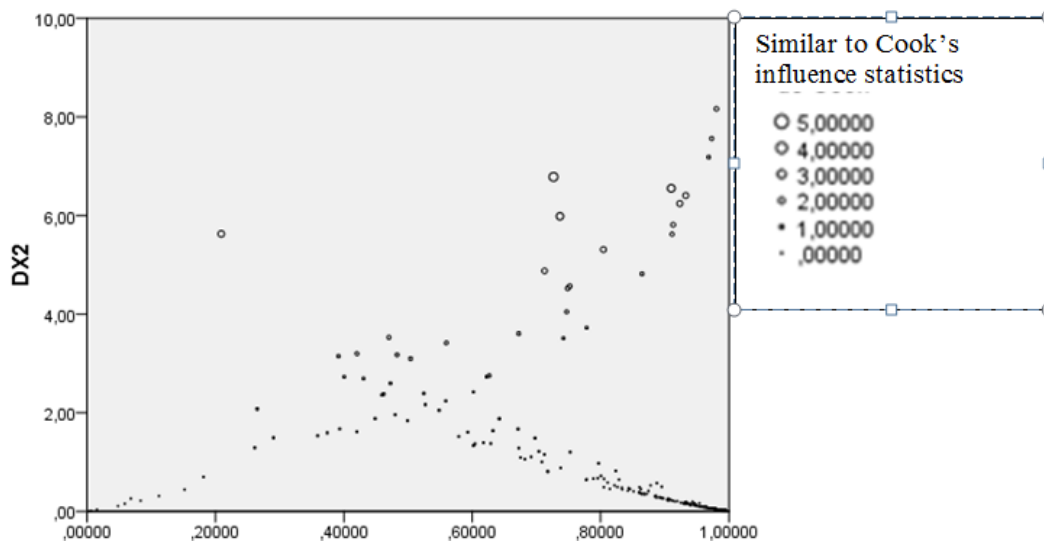


Figure 45 – Dispersion diagram – influence points in the in the model’s quality

Source: Own elaboration

In the model without removal of outliers, the *Enter* method was applied and a new model, with statistical significance, was adjusted. The adjusted *Logit* model provided the following results ($G^2(49) = 123.464$; $p < 0.001$; $X^2_{\text{Wald}}(8) = 5.471$; $p = 0.706$; $R^2_{\text{CS}} = 0.275$ e $R^2_{\text{N}} = 0.524$). The percentage of correct classifications is 91.4%, which is considerably higher than the classifications’ proportional percentage through the 50% reference line, thereby proving the model with utility to classify new observations.

A model for “Recreational Sport Tourism Events’ Experience”
- A participant’s perspective -

Table 43 – The Model’s Logit Coefficients

	B	S.E.	Wald	df	Sig.
(....)			(...)		
6. [Risk](1)					
6. [Risk](2)	2.406	0.975	6.096	1	0.014
6. [Risk](3)	3.846	1.145	11.282	1	0.001
6. [Adventure](2)	-2.552	1.221	4.364	1	0.037
6. [Pleasure](2)	5.195	1.907	7.420	1	0.006
6. [Overcoming](1)	-3.633	1.513	5.765	1	0.016
6. [Overcoming](2)	-2.696	1.375	3.847	1	0.050
8. [Ability to learn](2)	5.407	2.260	5.726	1	0.017
8. [Destination image](1)	4.189	1.715	5.968	1	0.015
8. [Safety](2)	-7.066	2.542	7.726	1	0.005
8. [Safety](4)	-2.552	0.684	13.928	1	0.000
Age40J(1)	-3.177	0.801	15.715	1	0.000
(...)			(...)		
Constant	5.790	1.281	20.441	1	0.000

Source: Own elaboration

Table 44– Résumé of results for the final model with and without outliers

	Optimized Model	
	O	O*
R^2 Cox & Snell	0,275	0,418
R^2 Nagelkerke	0,524	0,952
Hosmer & Lemeshow Test	0,706	0,970
Specificity	46,8	87,1
Sensitivity	97,6	98,7
ROC Curve	0,916	0,980
Lower limit	0,878	0,979
Upper limit	0,953	0,981

Source: Own elaboration

In Table 44, the column of model “O” (*Forward Conditional* method in 4 steps, with choice of optimal solution concerning the predictive capacity of the model) shows the significant variables and the column of model “O*” (same method applied with

removal of 17 candidate outlier observations, which, by their nature, might influence either the quality of the logistic model adjustment or its significance).

In the model without outliers the Enter method was used and a new model was adjusted, following removal of the 17 observations capable of influencing the model’s predictive power and a new statistically significant model was obtained with improved indicators compared to the previous model. The adjusted Logit model presented the following results ($G^2(49) = 198.896$; $p < 0,001$; $X^2Wald(8) = 4.698$; $p = 0,970$; $R^2CS = 0.418$ and $R^2N = 0.952$). The adjusted model shows a sensitivity value (97.6% and low specificity (46.8%) as well as exceptional discriminating capacity ($AUC = 0.916$; $p < 0.001$; $IC =] 0.878 ; 0.953 [$).

The percentage of correct classifications is 91.6%. This value is considerably higher than the classification’s proportional percentage by the reference line of 50%, thereby proving the model’s utility to classify new observations. The adjusted model provides a sensitivity value (98.7%) and high specificity (87.1%), and also an exceptional discriminating capacity ($AUC = 0.980$; $p < 0.001$; $IC =] 0.979 ; 0.981 [$). The major advantage observed at the specificity level and consequently the results obtained for the AUC should be stressed.

Considering all predictors, the logistic regression model revealed that the variables provide a statistically significant effect on the Logit of the probability of a “good experience” occurring.

Logit coefficients of the logistic regression model of the dependent variable are based on the independent variables. The table below summarizes some of the model’s coefficients and their significance. In Figure 46, the diagonal red reference line shows the exceptional discriminating capacity of the model.

A model for “Recreational Sport Tourism Events’ Experience”
- A participant’s perspective -

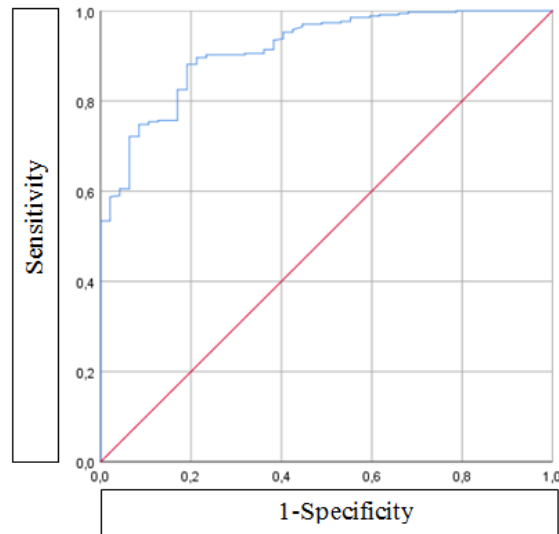


Figure 46 – ROC curve for the final model without outliers
Source: Own elaboration

Figure 47 shows the moment in which, although the outliers still exist, their removal no longer improves both the quality of the logistic model adjustment and its significance. In Table 45, the 3 points of the figure are identified.

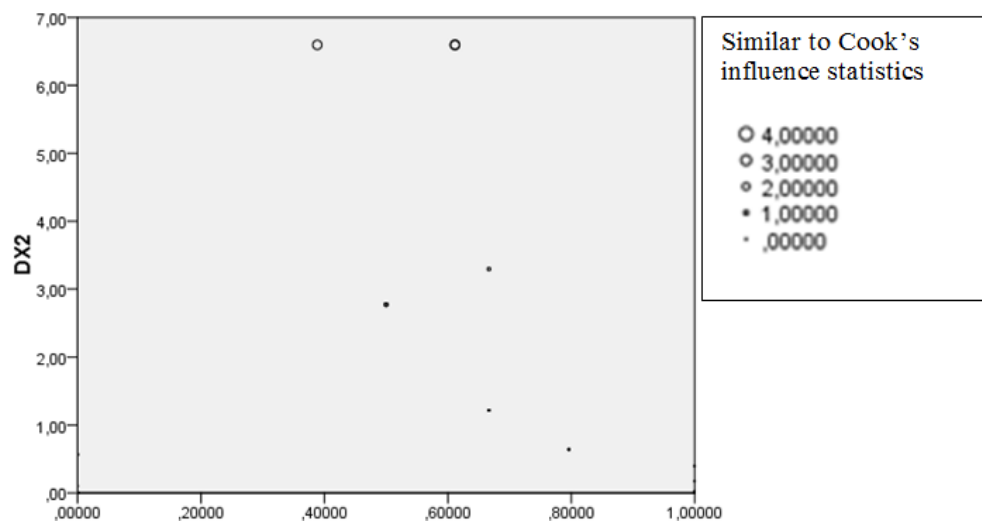


Figure 47 – Leverage points in the model’s quality
Source: Own elaboration

Table 45 – Outliers last diagnostic

Case	Selected Status	Observed	Expected	Expected Group	Temporary variable		
					Resid	ZResid	SResid
97	S	1**	0,612	2	-0,612	-1,255	-2,569
142	S	1**	0,612	2	-0,612	-1,255	-2,569
257	S	2**	0,388	1	0,612	1,255	2,569
<i>a. S = Selected, U = Not selected cases, and ** = Cases incorrectly classified.</i>							
<i>b. The cases with studentized residues larger than 2,000 are listed.</i>							

Source: Own elaboration

7.3.3.6. Homals

Homals or homogeneity analysis allows the study of the relationship between more than two nominal variables and depicts them in few dimensions, usually two or three. It is considered a main component analysis for nominal data, partitioning the variables into homogenous groups. If all variables were quantitative and there were a linear association between them, factor analysis would be appropriate. Homals transforms qualitative data by associating scores with it (optimal quantifications) allowing not only its graphic representation, but also a larger separation between categories.

The scores associated to each case and to each category are named, respectively, object scores and category quantifications. The object scores represent the quantifications average for all categories with which the case is associated. The quantification category represents the average of the scores of all cases included in it.

The eigenvalues contain the contribution of each dimension to explain the variability included in the data and make the average values of the discrimination measures of the variables allocated to each dimension. Because these are an average, it may be that the variables do not all have the same importance in each dimension. By eliminating less important variables to explain the study relationship, the eigenvalues might undergo increases, but this does not imply an increase of each dimension’s importance. Eigenvalues range between zero and one, with 1 occurring when the categories characterising this dimension are fully explained by it. Thus, the larger the

eigenvalues, the more important are the dimensions to explain the data variability and the better is the solution found because it is more discriminating.

The first step consists of determining the maximum number of dimensions as a result of the difference between the total of present categories and the number of variables.

- $(2 \times 29) + (3 \times 2) - 31 = 33.$

The eigenvalues are sorted in decreasing order, with the two first dimensions explaining almost half the data variation (0.4087).

As shown in figure 48, there is an explanatory improvement between one and two factors, and from there on, the improvement of the data variability is low and the more factors included to explain it, the larger is the reading complexity of the findings.

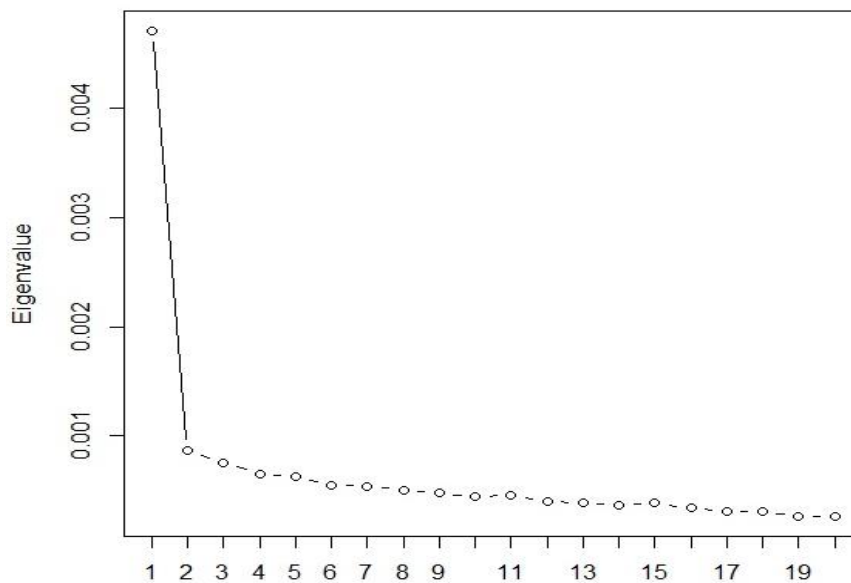


Figure 48 – Scree plot
Source: Own elaboration

The scree plot confirms the retention of two dimensions, the eigenvalues by dimension of which correspond to the larger variations between the points.

The discrimination measures inform on the variables that contribute the most to the definition of each dimension and are more relevant in terms of graphic

interpretation. Priority is given to the variables with not only a contribution larger than expected by dimension, but also the variables simultaneously distant from the source in the plot. Following identification of the most discriminating variables by dimension, it is important to analyse the relationships established between their categories, because of the proximity showed in the categories quantifications’ plot and because they are scores of the same signal in each dimension. The categories should be emphasized which belong to the variables that better discriminate because they are farther from the source, not mentioning those closer to the source, considering these variables are undistinguishable from the average behaviour, that is, the most shared behaviour between the respondents. The quantifications of different variables categories get closer when they have similar scores. The proximity between categories of different variables means that they are shared by the same objects or cases, translating association relationships, that is, quantifications of the same signal. Conversely, the gap between the categories translates opposition relationships, that is, quantifications of opposing signals.

Figure 49 exhibits the variables and their relationship to the factors represented by two axes crossing at a point. The farther the variables points are from the intersection of the axes, the more relevant they are, considering that this distance is directly proportional to the influence of this information for the variable “Experience”.

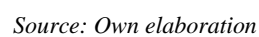
The figure can confirm that the variables furthest in quadrants I and IV have negative or null replies, meaning that their explanatory power associated with the experience is not very significant. Quadrants II and III have many more replies related to the explanatory power of experience.

Another conclusion relates to the position, in the figure, of the points concerning the physical environment (V2G). The figure shows that the physical environment air is quite far from the intersection of the axes as compared to the physical environments land and water. The same applies to the variables related to the constructs (V1G). The construct “Place”, in quadrant III, ranks the experience as positive, as well as the construct “People”, although this last construct is much closer to the intersection. Conversely, “Activity”, besides being closer to the intersection, is located in the

A model for “Recreational Sport Tourism Events’ Experience”
- A participant’s perspective -

negative experience explanatory quadrant, that is, the participants, when commenting on the “Activity”, often provided negative replies.

- A participant's perspective -



A model for “Recreational Sport Tourism Events’ Experience”
- A participant’s perspective -

Legend

Exp	Experience	V4A	Adventure
Genero	Gender	V4G	First time participating in this event?
IV	Intention to Return	V4L	Travel
Qanos	Age category (over/under 40)	V4P	Group affiliation
V10L	Sense of Freedom	V5A	Pleasure
V1A	Rewards	V5G	Individual or Group Participation
V1G	Foremost Physical Element	V5L	Destination Image
V1L	Proximity	V5P	Team Spirit
V1P	Audience Support	V6A	Self-esteem
V2A	Prestige	V6L	Infrastructures
V2G	Physical Element of the Last Sport Event Joined	V7A	Health
V2L	Organizational Components	V7L	Environment
V2P	Socialize	V8A	Participation
V3A	Risk	V8L	Weather
V3G	Length of Stay	V9A	Improve one’s Skills
V3L	Ability to Learn	V9L	Safety
V3P	Recognition		

In this chapter, the results of the empirical research were analysed and discussed, based on the bibliographical revision. Several statistical analysis techniques were applied, namely exploratory descriptive analysis, exploratory factor analysis, inferential analysis and internal consistency analysis. To answer the three major study objectives, the specific objectives and research hypotheses were analysed, thereby confirming some hypotheses, specifically two out of the four hypotheses posed.

In the next chapter, the major results of the empirical study and the main conclusions of the study will be approached. After that, the last chapter will focus on the inherent limitations to this research process and the research contributions, as well as on some future research guidelines.

8. The Empirical Results and Study Conclusions

Following the data collection method explanation, this chapter aims to present and discuss the main conclusions of the empirical study, considering that they must constitute a starting point for improving knowledge in this research area. Thus, there is an initial analysis, the findings of which were not determinant (and were not constituted to define any hypotheses) for the research but were crucial to allow the challenges to be met which were set right from the beginning and for which it was intended to find answers by the end of this research. Hence, general and specific study objectives and research hypotheses are considered points of analysis.

This study intends to contribute to the sport management and tourism literature from an academic and managerial perspective. According to Gibson and Mirehie (2018) for twenty-five years some gaps persist because the research is not executed by sport tourism studies. The interconnection between sport, tourism and leisure is still weak and distant.

Focusing on recreational sport tourism events, the major objective of this study was defined to complete the characterization initiated by Gammon and Robinson (2003), exploring the recreational participants that are considered important for the experience satisfaction, thereby creating and validating a data collection instrument to measure this kind of experience. The scale was built from the bibliographical revision and structured interviews with specialists in the organization of recreational sport tourism events. Since this target is beginning to emerge in the literature, it becomes necessary to study it in a way that contributes to the definition of strategies based on the study’s results, leading to the sustainable growth of revenue in this area.

In this way, based on the descriptive analysis of our findings, it was possible to conclude that the vast majority of participants (92.9%) are accompanied, that is, from a tourism point of view, this can be boosted with activities for the accompanying persons.

To build the scale, it was intended to appraise the contribution of each variable (a total of 24) to the global scale and perceive if this contribution is useful or it would

justify the withdrawal of any one. The results show that all variables contribute to explaining the scale and measure the recreational sport tourism event’s experience from the participants’ perspective, which somewhat validates Weed and Bull’s (2004) theoretical proposition that was used as starting point to define our research central object for the study. Following the analysis of the three constructs of this theoretical model, it can be said that each one has an excellent explanatory power.

These results could be different if some aspects also changed:

- If they had been tested in another context or different circumstances. Portugal is still a developing country in far as sport events organization is concerned and its use as a tourist attraction. In some other countries, due to their practices and established habits, this practice allows other type of experiences. Therefore, it is possible that this theoretical model applied to a different situation could reach different results.
- If another theoretical model was used to justify the sport tourism events experience. If the constructs tested to assess this experience were different, new variables would have to be found according to what was under study and therefore the results concerning these constructs could allow different conclusions.
- If the participant type was different. The experience assessed by the participant differs from his/her participation intention because he/she needs another type of specificities according to his/her purposes. It is important to observe that a competitive participant does not have the same interests as those of the recreational participant.

However, and although the aspects and the results might differ, no studies were made for any of the above topics allowing it to be stated that the results can be different. There is nothing that makes possible it to say that the results could be the same considering a different context.

Based on the answers provided by respondents to the questionnaires, the construct “Place” is the one with the greatest explanatory power to measure the experience according to the factorial analysis made on our sample. This is one of the

constructs which has been put forward to advertise the tourist destination, and which compels individuals to join, considering that the experience will be determined by the available conditions for playing the sport. According to Laws (1995), tourism destinations are places that attract people when, in fact, they provide for the participant’s needs. When the required resources, infrastructures and services are present, the participant enjoys a good experience in that destination. Besides, in converged conditions, sports can contribute to the unique experience in the destination (Hinch & Higham, 2004).

From among the constructs that best explain the experience, the second one is “Activity”. Naturally, if someone takes part in a sport event, the activity is a factor that necessarily explains the experience, although, for most of those respondents, who are Portuguese and for whom the reality of sport practice is still a novelty, this type of sport event is still quite unusual. In other realities, such as countries where sport practice is a routine, and consequently people are more used to this type of events, this construct would probably rank first. Clearly the concepts of tourism and sport are related and overlap. According to Hinch and Higham (2001) there is an evident relationship between sport and tourism, with a special deep connection of the participant to the “Activity”. In line with this connection, Shipway and Jones (2008b), considered that certain forms of active sport tourism could provide a valued social identity.

The importance of “Place” and “Activity” is very easily understood, as explained above. “People” is the other construct to be considered. In fact, this construct was pointed out by the respondents as contributing the least among the constructs to explaining the experience. In this topic, some considerations are important to clarify the participant relation with “People” and to understand some points resulting from some studies already made, before initiating the development of the exposition. In this type of recreational sport tourism events, physical activities are taken for the sake of one’s well-being and not professionally. Thus, other factors, such as group affiliation, recognition, and prestige are not essential for this type of events. Also, in the context in which these results were collected, it is still quite unusual to gather a supporting crowd. Because of that, it might not contribute to significantly explaining the experience as a whole. According to this idea, some authors do not even consider this construct. For example,

Standeven and De Knop (1999) proposed a sport tourism definition based on the link between physical activity and experience of place or a two-dimensional experience of physical activity tied to a particular setting. Conversely Shipway and Jones (2007) defend the relevance of “People” to explain the experience, highlighting in their study the importance of the role of the running club and running event environments in fostering a sense of belonging, feelings of community and locations for the sharing of experiences.

Considering the variables of the construct “Place”, “Safety” expresses the largest contribution to a satisfactory experience, and it is easily explained following the recent terrorist events. Thus, tourists are currently more concerned with safety conditions provided by destinations. Safety, or the perception of safety in a venue, is one of the major requirements in a voyage and the best-selling characteristic (Mansfeld, 1992; Oppermann & Chon *cit in* Mansfeld, 2006). Also within the construct “Place”, other very important variables are “Environment” and “Infrastructures”, which seem to be quite obvious, considering that the participant leaves his/her environment to participate in an event and it is only natural that these items have a major relevance in the resulting experience. While the variable “Proximity” is the least influential, that is, it is not relevant for the participant how far he/she travels in terms of enjoying the experience, this result agrees with the equality of answers in number of hiker or tourist participants.

In relation to the construct “Activity”, the major explanatory factor is “Improve one’s skills”, which might also be easily justified considering that the participant, despite the recreational nature of the tourism event, appreciates the improvement in performance and the feeling of a good exhibition, although there is no official competition with anyone, and no prize is sought for. It is a very personal need of one who enjoys to constantly improve a little more, motivating the will to participate in more challenging events. Ramchandani and Coleman (2012) declare that, according to the experience, over two thirds of the participants in one event described a sense of inspiration to participate in more physical activities than usual. In this study, “Self-esteem” and “Team spirit” were also pointed out as explanatory of the experience. While the first item also refers to a very personal characteristic, the second item refers to sports, in which the competing team in the event is very important for the

performance and final outcome. The selected variable considered least explanatory by participants for a good experience is “Pleasure”. This may happen because every activity implicates some self-sacrifice to reach a goal.

Finally, for the construct “People”, the most explanatory variable is “Recognition”. According to Green and Jones (2005) a sense of social identity is one key-defining characteristic of serious leisure. Many participants in these events enjoy a certain status for having ability and participating in these events.

In the same construct, the variables “Audience support” and “Prestige”, both connected to the social aspect, and scored right after the above variable (recognition), reflect a need for identification and for sharing the experience gained during the event with someone. The least selected variable is “Risk”, considering that most of these events do not effectively include much risk apart from the usual ones. It is not thus considered relevant to a good experience.

In this connection, the constructs may be classified as more intrapersonal, inherent to the participant for the “Activity” dimension, and more social or having an interpersonal side for “People”. “Place” accumulates both dimensions.

As regards to the first two hypotheses, whether the evaluation of sport tourism event’s experience is affected by the type of event based on its physical environment, as stated by Aspas (2000) and on the type of participant as defined by Nogawa, Yamguchi and Hagi (1996), in the context of the present study, the data allow us to assume that the differences are not statistically significant. This result allows an analysis of this sample in order to understand that it is not the type of event that changes the perceived experience. Each event is unique for each participant, and it draws no comparison with other types of events. Besides, the participant does not change the type of experience. Participating is important, regardless of how much time it takes to get to the venue and the time spent there.

Considering excursionists’ versus tourists’ interests, it is possible to conclude that excursionists are more focused on engaging in land events, whereas air and water events, requiring different logistics and materials, are more tourist-oriented. This might

mean that if one’s intention is to attract more tourists, more complex events should be promoted, which require spending more time in the location.

With respect to the last two hypotheses, the evaluated experience is influenced by gender, that is, in this case the values indicate that women enjoy an experience more than men. According to Chen (2010) male and female study participants cited different attributes, consequences, and values. Men are motivated by high levels of eustress, group affiliation, entertainment stimulation, and take the actual competition seriously, while women valued loyalty to the team, social support, social responsibility, altruism, and support for gender equality.

This conclusion is connected with the fact that women’s participation in sport events is much more recent, and, therefore, the reference to establish a comparison is smaller, because at this stage it is still a novelty and much more exciting, while men, who already experienced other events, prefer to try different types of events and have a stronger critical awareness. Quoting Felshin and Oglesby (1986), Bell (2014) declared that men dominated sport through history assuming women to be socially unfit to participate.

Also, age category is a distinguishing factor concerning evaluation of the experience. Three age categories were defined (“< 30”, “30-60”, and “> 60”), in which participants in the group “< 30” scored higher when compared with the other groups. McPherson (1984) considers age as more than just a chronological variable, viewing it also as social construct that defines role behaviour at specific points in the life cycle. Age is an important form of social differentiation that can result in social inequality because of ageism.

Subsequently, and following the analysis of the results, it is possible to conclude that, of the four starting hypotheses, it was possible to validate two, whereas the other two were not validated. In particular, the two initial hypotheses, that is, ‘the evaluation of “Experience” varies according to the type of event (water, land, air)’ and ‘the evaluation of “Experience” varies according to the type of participant (tourist, excursionist)’, could not be sustained. Conversely, for the last two, that are ‘the

evaluation of “Experience” varies according to gender’ and ‘the evaluation of “Experience” varies according to the age category’, both are validated.

In relation to the other questions included in the third part of the questionnaire, they are dedicated to each specific event. The questions are open, allowing the respondents to express themselves further on the event’s organization, and to contribute directly to improving those events. The respondents are also questioned concerning their intention of returning or recommending the event to others.

In this sense, the research assumed an empirical nature, characterized by a direct and systematic contact with the management context of real sport events, with the intention of contributing with ideas that might help organizers to improve the next editions. Whilst accepting the many dimensions inherent to sport events and considering that most of these sport events managers come from the sport sector, it is important to have interaction which aims to define a strategy. This strategy should involve:

- event promoters, to improve the organization conditions;
- marketing agents, for a better advertising of the event; and
- tourism professionals, to attract and boost the localities where the events take place.

The fact that a larger percentage of respondents have returned to attend the event compared to the percentage of first time attendees might indicate that the organization is doing a good job and can secure the loyalty of participants. However, it also compels organizers to include some changes for a certain degree of surprise to somehow prevail and continue to be a good experience. Planning is an essential factor to enable the promotion and optimization of development, namely through tourism. To provide a responsible and sustainable tourism activity it is necessary to know the behaviour of participants, so that the supply can be adjusted to the demand. Giacomo (1993) declares that the importance of a well-planned event depends on a range of elements that must be controlled whenever possible, since not everyone is controllable, and to which the organizer must pay close attention.

The survey was thus developed with these ideas in mind, but also with a more practical nature, to be able to supply the planners with clues to improve the next editions through the implementation of the suggestions offered by this study. Green and Chalip (1998) suggest that event planners should pay more attention to the expectations and experiences of participants. Planners should allow a more spontaneous activity rather than scheduling every moment of the event or of the tour, which incidentally is a common criticism from tourists on organized tours in general. Understanding the meaning of the sport events experience that active sport tourists (participants) attach to the event can help event marketers to better target participants’ needs.

For a more global conclusion for this study and all the perception throughout it, one can assess that Lisbon still has a larger turnout compared to the rest of the country and sports activities on the ground are more popular because they are easier to access. According to the surveys, the average attendant age is “30-60” years. Attendants in this age range enjoy more time, availability and financial means to support taking part in these events.

Although the scale and constructs validation were the object of more attention in this study, the creation of a conceptualization model for experiences in recreational sport tourism events was also an important objective allowing interesting results. This final model allows reflection on all changes effected during the study. In Figure 50 there are two variables (“Audience support” and “Team spirit”) in green (I), to highlight the variables introduced in a later stage in those interviews. The brown rims of the variables (“Socialize”, “Team spirit”), identified with (II), currently shown in the construct “Activity”, were allocated to the construct “People” previous to the analysis of the scale through exploratory factor analysis.

In turn, the blue rims of the variables “Risk”, “Prestige” and “Rewards”, identified with (III), belonging to the construct “People” following analysis of the scale through exploratory factor analysis, were previously allocated to the construct “Activity”.

A model for “Recreational Sport Tourism Events’ Experience”
- A participant’s perspective -

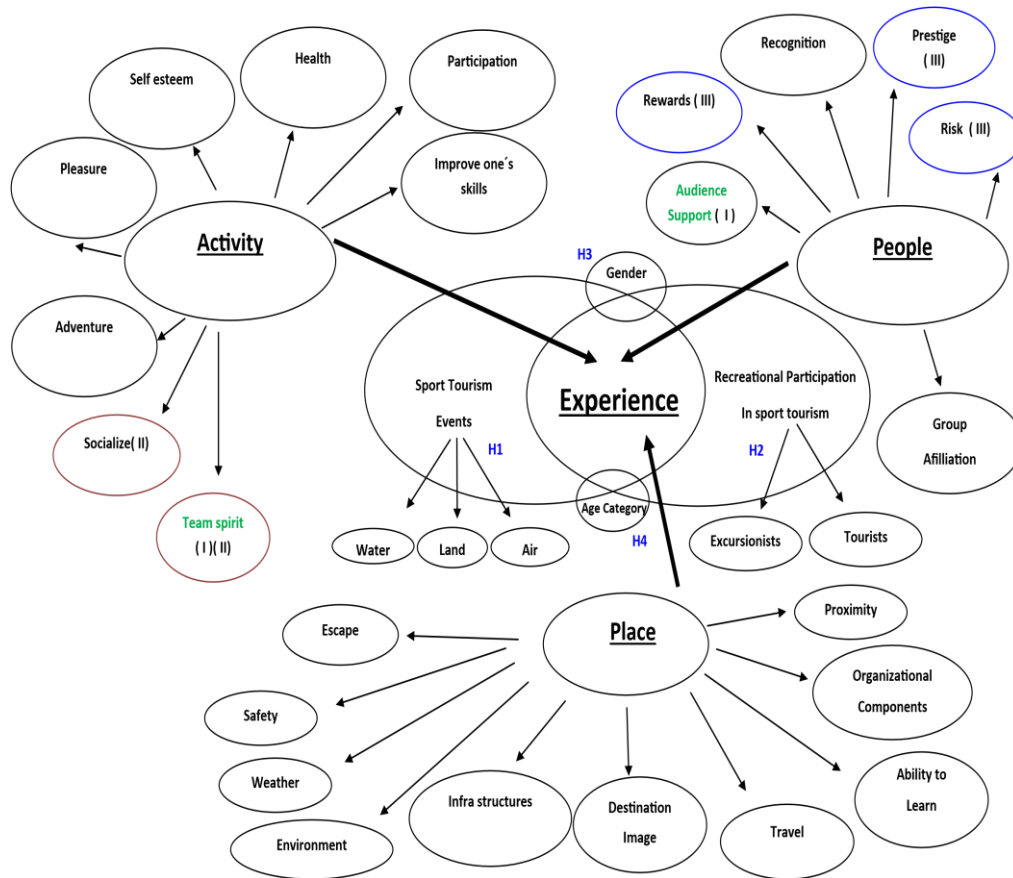


Figure 50 – Final Conceptual Model for Recreational Participation in Sport Tourism Events Experience

Source: Own elaboration

Currently researchers are still trying to explain the experience in sport tourism on a sustainable basis. According to Gammon, Ramshaw and Wright (2017) studies published have contributed to formulate a better idea of what sport tourism is, what it does, how it is experienced, and its effect/impact upon the experiences of others, but they stress we are still very much in the ‘work in progress’ stage.

Finally, it should be stressed that the outcomes in this study are a somewhat innovative approach within the scale created to measure recreational sport tourism events and might be used to develop future research in other realities and as informative support for sport tourism event managers, who can thus adjust their events to the participant’s needs, thereby raising the number of registrations.

It should be taken into account that the profile of the study participant requires some thought from the different parties involved in the process, such as the event’s

organizers, the local tourism and sport entities, especially due to the growing importance of sport tourist events in the tourism experience, which can lead to longer sojourns, consumption of activities and can counter tourist seasonality. Another kind of entity that might somehow improve from this study is the services provided by the travel agencies, which can sell better tailored packages to the event participants.

Before the final conclusion of this work, it is possible, at this stage, to emphasize the many relevant findings obtained and presented, and to determine the several innovative progresses and advantages resulting from the implementation of the present study. This study allows new approaches and can be the basis for new studies, but most of all, it allows the sector to be served by supplying tools to the economic policy decision-makers to develop the different dimensions of the segment. It also shows how to better know the participants and use that information to present the practitioners with better conditions and opportunities to fulfil their expectations in more complete events, truly tailored to their needs.

However, much is yet to be done. There are many paths to explore and new research is necessary to disclose new realities; also new frameworks are needed to validate wider research. The study limitations are known and show a self-analysis that is applied to frame the limitative context in which the study is taken.

Based on this, in the next chapter, the considerations deemed appropriate in this context will be detailed in order to better understand the study frameworks and limitations, and also to deploy clues and ideas for new researches, as well as bases to complete this study in the areas deemed appropriate.

9. Constraints, Recommendations and Conclusion

At this stage, it is now possible to present some final comments and ideas concerning constraints, recommendations and present a final conclusion for this study. The findings made it possible to answer the initially raised hypotheses and set some leads for future research on this subject. The research for this work might still foster improvements in events management, aiming to attract and drive more participants. For that it is important to take into consideration their motivations while planning and implementing an event.

A more practical issue in recreational sport tourism events is the lack of a closer relationship between the parties, sport and tourism, in order to somehow collaborate, in each of their specific areas, to improve the final result. This issue was pointed out by some sport events managers during the interviews carried out in this study.

Concerning the literature review, many researchers have focused their attention more on the competition participants and attendees and have not given much attention to what would be a very important part of our research, considering recreational participants. Gibson (2017) refer that the growing importance of well-being and quality of life in connection to the experience, allowed to further the study of these domains. In fact, there is much to be done yet, particularly in the area of recreational tourism and its participants.

Our study is limited to the national context applied to the Portuguese mainland. Data were collected only in three events, one for each physical environment for each different geographical area. Ideally, there should be three events of different physical environments for each geographical area. However, the possible sample allowed guidelines for general analysis that enable it to be applied in other contexts and regions of similar characteristics. This represents an effective constraint of the present study but, in fact, research has to be done in stages and considering the available resources, particularly time and financial resources.

But, more than this, there are several kinds of limitations that may be presented, as follows:

- The convenience sample of the second survey has its peak concentration in the age category “30-60 years”. The other groups “< 30”, “> 60 years” were not properly represented in the sample, because this reflects the true universe of this type of sport tourism participants. Recreational sport tourism events for these age categories require other specific characteristics, which, when attended to, might provide two good potential market niches if approached correctly. Each of these age categories should be the object of a detailed independent study.
- The surveys were completed sometime after the events. This situation might affect the objectivity of the event attender and hinder the distinction of the different experiences due to the elapsed time.
- As regards the sample concerning type of events, the collection for the physical environments “air” and “water” is very small and it would be interesting to collect a larger number of surveys concerning these two physical environments. This situation would allow improvement in the representativeness of the number of respondents throughout the three physical environments. In fact, there are clearly more “land” events, especially racing events, because they are more easily organized, and participants are required to possess neither equipment nor high technical skills to attend them.
- The fact that the conceptual model only considers one item to describe the theoretical concept of each variable proposed to integrate each dimension, thereby preventing testing of the variables.

Far from exhausting the possibilities of a study that should be as comprehensive as possible, but also detailed and thorough, it was necessary to consent to some limitations. Yet, it is noticeable that some issues require further development of the situation, and henceforth it is possible to suggest some procedures considered essential, namely:

- To explore the individual and social dimensions connected to “Activity” and “People” respectively, considering that the results point to that connection.
- To apply the survey to another set of circumstances, to understand whether the model behaves in the same way.
- To distribute the surveys to the participants immediately after the end of the event, so that the experience will be reported as carefully as possible.
- To study the type of events by analysing more than one situation for each physical environment of the sport activity, air, water, land.
- To build a database of statistical data on recreational sport tourism events. In the future, it would be recommendable to create partnerships among the actors to collect information that might provide useful and realistic findings. Only then is the development of the industry possible supported by the interconnectedness between the several players mentioned throughout this study.

So, besides the above recommendations, future research is required to better understand the participant in recreational sport tourism events, namely their experiences in the dimensions “Activity”, “People” and “Place”. As stated by many authors, such as Gibson (2017), Geffroy (2017), Weed and Bull (2004), and Hinch and Higham (2001), any definitions of sport tourism going forward should emphasize the role of place in the interaction of activity and people”.

Thus, this study allowed a better understanding of sport event project management, as well as to learn some planning models for existing projects, which will contribute to the adoption of a better methodology for future implementation. Considering this reality, it is noticeable that this study made it possible to acquire a deeper knowledge on the characteristics that should guide a quality sport event and also to know the tangible situation. In the near future, these lessons will surely be an advantage for the professional activity of sport event managers or other professionals connected to these areas, allowing for more visitors and increasing tourism and the promotion of destinations through sport events. According to Zauher (2004), sports events can attract visiting spectators and participants, and they can also attract the attention of “non-resident media”.

A characteristic of scientific knowledge is its revisability, that is, every research, regardless the scientific area, presents itself as transient and liable to revision and improvement. We need to learn more about the physical, social and psychological characteristics of that experience to better understand the participants’ motivations and thereby adjust the offer to the demand, levelling with the offer in other more experienced countries. It is worth mentioning that Portugal is a country with very unique characteristics to implement this kind of events; it offers excellent professionals in the different areas assessed, good human relationships, good climate, leisure and well-being areas, recreation, beautiful landscapes and unique cuisine. As all these factors contribute to flourishing tourism – which is an excellent form of economic development – Portuguese authorities may use the results of this study to improve the conditions to develop events and destinations as well as the regions’ infrastructures in order to make this tourism area greater in the context of the Portuguese tourism sector.

This study is important for defining sectoral policies, involving the appropriate type of supports for both regional and local growth which, through incentives and other kind of supports which could be created at a regional level, might allow for local and regional development driving projects based on the lessons drawn from this study. These projects may expand the establishment of sporting activities (associated with tourism) which are better adapted to regional and local specific characteristics and resources. Also, this type of policies can be attained considering the need for sustainable development in the multiple features of the regions, which should be valued and prioritized in terms of economic policy.

Several aspects of the utmost importance were suitably highlighted in the previous chapter. While looking into recreational sport tourism events, also considering the experience and the perspective of the participants in the three study environments, the following key ideas defining some major findings in this work are highlighted.

Some major aspects are:

- The importance of sport tourism events in the tourism development of less developed regions.

- The importance of the three constructs (Activity, Place, People) in the experience of the sport tourism event participant.
- The construction of a model assessing the experience as either positive or negative to better adapt the event to the recreational participant’s characteristics.
- Characterization and evaluation of sport tourism events according to the physical environment where they take place.

This study is innovative as it conciliates analysis perspectives with approaches that are only rarely implemented, especially if we consider the study object outlined for this research.

The major findings drawn from this study show that its relevance in the context of sport practice associated to events, particularly for Portugal (underlining that Portugal is a country with excellent conditions and resources for the pursuit of sports in the different domains and environments in which they take place) – and according to the participants – might provide considerable added value to this country, its regions and places where the events take place. While Portugal is already renowned for its organizational capacity, it is well known that participation in events has been systematic and regular; indeed demand for sports events in general has also grown.

This work finishes with an awareness of the constraints that a task of this type is subject to, considering the available time and other type of resources involved. We also point out several research threads that we consider of major relevance and that may allow for capital gains both at a scientific and at a practical level. These gains may benefit the studied country (as they may benefit other countries), both economically and socially, including development of infrastructures that eventually may contribute to improving the respective geographic areas.

A model for “Recreational Sport Tourism Events’ Experience”
- A participant’s perspective -

10. References

10.1. Publications

- Aicher, J. T. & Brenner, J. (2015). Individuals’ Motivation to Participate in Sport Tourism: A Self-Determination Theory Perspective. *International Journal of Sport Management, Recreation & Tourism*.
- Aicher, T. J., Karadakis, K., & Eddosary, M. M. (2015). Comparison of sport tourists’ and locals’ motivation to participate in a running event. *International Journal of Event and Festival Management*, 6(3), 215–234.
- Alexandris, K. & Carroll, B. (1997). An analysis of leisure constraints based on different recreational sport participation levels: Results from a study in Greece. *Leisure Sciences: An Interdisciplinary Journal*, 19 (1), 1-15.
- Alexandris, K. & Kaplanidou, K. (2014). Marketing sport event tourism: Sport tourist behaviors and destination provisions. *Sport Marketing Quarterly*, 23, 125-126.
- Altinay, L. & Paraskevas, A. (2008). *Planning Research in Hospitality and Tourism*. Oxford: Elsevier.
- Andereck, K., Bricker, K. S., Kerstetter, D. & Nickerson, N. P. (2006). Connecting Experiences to Quality: Understanding the Meanings Behind Visitors’ Experiences. In G. Jennings and N. P. Nickerson (Eds). *Quality Tourism Experiences* (pp. 81-98). Oxford: Elsevier Butterworth-Heinemann.
- Anderson, D. H. & Fulton, D. C. (2008). Experience Preferences as Mediators of the Wildlife Related Recreation Participation: Place Attachment Relationship. *Human Dimensions of Wildlife*, 13, 73-88.
- Aspas, J. (2000). *Los deportes de aventura: consideraciones jurídicas sobre el turismo activo*. Zaragoza: Editora Prames.

- Bangun, S. Y. (2014). The Role of Recreational Sport Toward the Development of Sport Tourism in Indonesia in Increasing the Nations Quality of Life. *Asian Social Science*, 10 (5).
- Bardin, L. (2009). *Análise de Conteúdo*. Lisboa: Edições 70.
- Barton, S. (2005). *Working-Class Organisations and Popular Tourism, 1840-1970*. Manchester: Manchester University Press.
- Bell, H. L. (2014). *Paddling together: Women’s team sport experiences and relationships*. Gainesville, Florida: University of Florida.
- Bhatia, A. K. (1983). *Tourism Development: Principles and Practices*. New Delhi: Sterling Publishers.
- Bhatia, A. K. (2002). *Tourism Development: Principles and Practices* (pp. 3-30). New Delhi: Sterling Publishers Private Limited.
- Bigné, E., Font, X. & Andreu, L. (2000). *Marketing de destinos turísticos: Análisis y estrategias de desarrollo*. Madrid: ESIC.
- Bouchet, P., Lebrun, A. M. & Auvergne, S. (2004). Sport tourism consumer experiences: a comprehensive model. *Journal of Sport & Tourism*, 9 (2), 127-140.
- Bourdieu, P. (1979). Symbolic Power. *Critique of Anthropology*, 4, 77-85.
- Brito, P. Q., Correia, A. & Barros, J. L. (2016). The perceived image of Cape Verde. In K. Rontos, A. J. Filipe & P. Tsartas. *Modeling and New Trends in Tourism: A Contribution to Social and Economic Development*. Nova Science Publishers, Inc.
- Bryman, A. (2012). *Social Research Methods* (4th ed.). New York: Oxford University Press.
- Brunelli, A. & Parisi, P. (2011). *Theories and Applications the International Edition*, 1 (1), 1-10.

- Campos, C. (2003). Turismo desportivo: abordagem concetual e caraterização da procura e da oferta - Dissertação de Licenciatura. In P. Dias. *Os Grandes Eventos Desportivos: análise das vertentes políticas, económicas, sociais e organizacionais*. Porto: Universidade do Porto.
- Cassidy, F. & Pegg, S. (2008). *Exploring the motivations for engagement in sport tourism*. Available at: http://eprints.usq.edu.au/4211/1/Cassidy_Pegg.pdf.
- Cater, C. I. (2006). Playing with risk? Participant perceptions of risk and management implications in adventure tourism. *Tourism Management*, 27 317-325.
- Chalip, L. (2001). Sport and tourism: Capitalising on the linkage. In D. Kluka and G. Schilling (Eds). *The business of sport* (pp. 77-89). Oxford, UK: Meyer & Meyer.
- Chalip, L. (2004). Beyond impact: a general model for sport event leverage. In B. Ritchie and D. Adair (Eds). *Sport tourism: interrelationships, impacts and issues* (pp. 226-252). England: Channel View Publications.
- Chang, H. H. (2016). Gender differences in leisure involvement and flow experience in professional extreme sport activities. *World Leisure Journal*.
- Chavaglia, J., Filipe, J. A. & Ferreira, M. A. (2016). Neuromarketing applied to tourism: An introductory vision. In K. Rontos, A. J. Filipe & P. Tsartas. *Modeling and New Trends in Tourism: A Contribution to Social and Economic Development*. Nova Science Publishers, Inc.
- Chazaud, P. (2004). *Management du tourisme et des loisirs sportifs de pleine nature*. Voiron: Editions PUS.
- Chen, P. J. (2010). Differences between male and female sport event tourists: a qualitative study. *International Journal of Hospitality Management*, 29 (2), 277-290.
- Chen, C.-F. & Tsai, D. (2007). How destination image and evaluative factors affect behavioral intentions?. *Tourism Management*, 28, 1115-1122.

- Cheng, T. & Tsaur, S. (2012). The relationship between serious leisure characteristics and recreation involvement: A case study of Taiwan’s surfing activities. *Leisure Studies*, 31 (1), 53-68.
- Chon, K. S. (1992). The role of destination image in tourism: An extension. *The Tourist Review*, 2, 2-7.
- Clark, L. A. & Watson, D. (1995). Constructing validity: Basic issues in objective scale development. *Psychological Assessment*, 7, 309-319.
- Clemes, M., Brush, G. & Collins, M. (2011). Analysing the professional sport experience: A hierarchical approach. *Sport Management Review*, 14 (2011), 370-388.
- Cohen, E. (1979). A Phenomenology of Tourist Experiences. *Sociology*, 13 (2), 179-201.
- Correia, A. (2001). Marketing Estratégico de Eventos Desportivos. In P. Dias. *Os Grandes Eventos Desportivos: análise das vertentes políticas, económicas, sociais e organizacionais* (pp. 9-16). Lisboa: CEFD.
- Costa, C. A. & Chalip, L. (2005). Adventure sport tourism in rural revitalization - An ethnographic evaluation. *European Sport Management Quartely*, 5 (3).
- Coutinho, C. (2011). *Metodologia de Investigação em Ciências Sociais e Humanas: Teoria e Prática*. Coimbra: Edições Almedina, S.A.
- Crawford, D. & Godbey, G. (1987). Reconceptualizing barriers to family leisure. *Leisure Sciences*, 9 (1), 119-127.
- Crawford, D., Jackson, E. & Godbey, G. (1991). A hierarchical model of leisure constraints. *Leisure Sciences*, 13, 309-320.
- Crompton, J. L. (1979). Motivations for Pleasure Vacation. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 6 (4), 408-424.
- Crompton, J. L. (1999). *Measuring the economic impact of visitors to sports tournaments and special events*. Ashburn, Virginia: Division of Professional Services, National Recreation and Park Association.

- Crompton, J. L. & McKay, S. L. (1977). Motives of attending festival events. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 24 (2), 425-439.
- Crompton, J. L. & McKay, S. L. (1994). Measuring the economic impact of festivals and events: Some myths, misapplications, and ethical dilemmas. *Festival Management and Event Tourism*, 2, 33-43.
- Cunha, L. (2003). *Introdução ao Turismo* (2^a ed.). Lisboa - São Paulo: Editorial Verbo.
- Cunha, L. (2014). The Definition and Scope of Tourism: a Necessary Inquiry. *Cogitur, Journal of Tourism Studies*, 5, 91-114.
- Cunha, L., Antunes, M., Teixeira, P. & Pina, A. (2005). *MotivTur: Estudo das motivações dos turistas estrangeiros que visitam Portugal*. CISE - Centro de Investigações Social e Empresariais.
- Curtis, J. E. & White, P. G. (1984). Age and sport participation: decline in participation with age or increased specialization with age? In N. Theberge and P. Donnelly (Eds). *Sport and the Sociological Imagination*. Fort Worth: Texas Christian University Press.
- Cutler, S. Q. & Carmichael, B. (2010). The dimensions of the tourist experience. In M. Morgan, P. Lugosi and J. R. B. Ritchie (Eds). *The tourism and leisure experience: Consumer and managerial perspectives* (pp. 3-26). Bristol: Channel View Publications.
- Daniels, M. & Norman, W. (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 (4), 184-194.
- Dann, G. (1981). Tourist Motivation: an appraisal. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 7 (2), 187-219.
- Deci, E. L. & Ryan, R. M. (1985). *Intrinsic motivation and self-determination in human behaviour*. New York: Plenum.

- Deci, E. L. & Ryan, R. M. (2000). The “what” and “why” of goal pursuits: Human needs and self-determination of behaviour. *Psychological Inquiry*, 11 (4), 227-268.
- Deci, E. L. & Ryan, R. M. (2008). Self-determination theory: A macrotheory of human motivation, development, and health. *Canadian Psychology*, 49 (3), 182-185.
- Deery, M., Jago, L. & Fredline, E. (2004). Sport Tourism or Event Tourism: Are They One And The Same?. *Journal of Sport & Tourism*, 9 (3), 235-246.
- DeVellis, R. F. (2003). *Scale development. Theory and application* (2nd ed.) (Vol 26). Newberry Park, CA: Sage Publications Inc.
- Dias, P. (2006). *Os Grandes Eventos Desportivos: análise das vertentes políticas, económicas, sociais e organizacionais*. Porto: Faculdade de Desporto, Universidade do Porto.
- DiCicco-Bloom B., Crabtree, B. F. (2006). The Qualitative Research Interview. *Medical Education*, 40, 314-321.
- Downward, P., Lumsdon, L. & Weston, R. (2009). Visitor expenditure: The case of cycle recreation and tourism. *Journal of Sport & Tourism*, 14 (1), 25-42.
- Duglio, S. & Beltramo, R. (2017). *Estimating the Economic Impacts of a Small-Scale Sport Tourism Event: The Case of the Italo-Swiss Mountain Trail CollonTrek*. Academic Editor: Marc A. Rosen
- Dumazedier, J. (1974). *Sociologie empirique du loisir*. Paris: Seuil.
- Dumazedier, J. (1980). *Valores e conteúdos culturais do lazer*. São Paulo: SESC.
- Edwards, P. & Tsouros, A. (2006). *Promoting Physical Activity and Active Living in Urban Environments: the role of local governments*. Geneva: World Health Organization.
- Estanque, E. (2005). Trabalho, desigualdades sociais e sindicalismo. *Revista Crítica de Ciências Sociais*, 71, 113-140.

- Etchner, C. M. & Ritchie, J. R. B. (1993). The measurement of destination image: An empirical assessment. *Journal of Travel Research*, 31 (3), 3-13.
- Fairley, S. (2003). In Search of Relived Social Experience: Group-Based Nostalgia Sport Tourism. *Journal of Sport Management*, 17 (3), 284-304.
- Fern, S. S. & Wei, S. W. (2017). The Influence of Destination Image and Event Image on Behavioural Intention of Sport Event: The Case of Penang Bridge International Marathon. *TEAM Journal of Hospitality & Tourism*, 14 (1), 29-40.
- Filipe, J. A. (2016). Anti-commons, regulation and tourism: how to avoid the destruction of value. In K. Rontos, A. J. Filipe & P. Tsartas. *Modeling and New Trends in Tourism: A Contribution to Social and Economic Development*. Nova Science Publishers, Inc.
- Filipe, J. A. & Yordanova, D. (2016). Anti-commons, regulation and tourism: Evidence from Portugal and Bulgaria. In K. Rontos, A. J. Filipe & P. Tsartas. *Modeling and New Trends in Tourism: A Contribution to Social and Economic Development*. Nova Science Publishers, Inc.
- Filo, K., Funk, D. C. & O’Brien, D. (2014). An empirical investigation of the role of camaraderie, cause, competency, and participation motives in the development of attachment to a charity sport event. *Managing Leisure*, 19 (4), 245-262.
- Fonseca, R. (2013). *Gestão e Organização de Eventos Desportivos, Estudo de Caso - Jogos Desportivos de Viseu*. Lisboa: Universidade Técnica de Lisboa, Faculdade de Motricidade Humana.
- Fortin, M. (2003). *O processo de investigação: da concepção à realização*. Portugal: Lusociência.
- Funk, D. (2008). *Consumer Behaviour in Sport and Events: Marketing Action*. Oxford: Elsevier.

- Funk, D. & James, J. (2001). The Psychological Continuum Model: A Conceptual Framework for Understanding an Individual’s Psychological Connection to Sport. *Sport Management Review*, 4, 119-150.
- Funk, D., Tennille, J. & Bruun, J. (2006). The Role of Socio-Psychological and Culture-Education Motives In Marketing International Sport Tourism: A Cross-Cultural Perspective. *Tourism Management*, 28, 806-819.
- Funk, D., Toohey, K. & Bruun, T. (2007). International sport event participation: prior sport involvement, destination image, and travel motives. *European Sport Management Quarterly*, 7, 227-248.
- Gammon, S. & Robinson, T. (1997). Sport and Tourism: A conceptual framework. *Journal of Sport & Tourism*, 4 (3), 11-18.
- Gammon, S. & Robinson, T. (2003). Sport and Tourism: A Conceptual Framework. *Journal of Sport & Tourism*, 8 (1), 21-26.
- Gammon, S. & Rawshaw, G. (2013). Nostalgia and sport. In A. Fyall and B. Garrod (Eds). *Contemporary cases in Sport* (pp. 201-219). Oxford: Goodfellow Publishers..
- Gammon, S., Rawshaw, G. & Wrigth, R. (2017). Theory in sport tourism: Some critical reflections. *Journal of Sport & Tourism*, 21 (2), 69-74.
- Gartner, W. (1989). Tourism Image: Attribute Measurement of State Tourism Products Using Multidimensional Scaling Techniques. *Journal of Travel Research*, 28 (2), 16-20.
- Geffroy, V. (2017). “Playing with space”: A conceptual basis for investigating active sport tourism practices. *Journal of Sport & Tourism*, 21 (2), 95-113.
- Getz, D. (1998). Trends, strategies, and issues in sport-event tourism. *Sport Marketing Quarterly*, 7 (2), 8-13.
- Getz, D. (2008). Event Tourism: Definition, evolution, and research. *Tourism Management*, 29 (1).

- Getz, D. (2013). *Event Tourism: Concepts, International Case Studies, and Research*. New York: Cognizant.
- Getz, D. & McConnell, A. (2011). Serious sport tourism and event travel careers. *Journal of Sport Management*, 25, 326-338.
- Getz, D. & Page, S. J. (2015). Progress in Tourism Management: Progress and prospects for event tourism research. *Tourism Management*, 52, 593-631.
- Giácomo, C. (1993). *Tudo acaba em festa - Evento, líder de opinião, motivação e público* (pp. 59). São Paulo: Editora Página Aberta Ltda.
- Gibson, H. (1998). Sport tourism: A critical analysis of research. *Sport Management Review*, 1, 45-76.
- Gibson, H. (2004). Moving beyond the “what is and who” of sport tourism to understanding “why”. *Journal of Sport & Tourism*, 9 (3), 247-265.
- Gibson, H. (2017). Sport tourism and theory and other developments: Some reflections. *Journal of Sport & Tourism*, 21 (2), 153-158.
- Gibson, H., Willming, C. & Holdnak, A. (2003). Small-scale event sport tourism: Fans as tourists. *Tourism Management*, 24, 181-190.
- Gibson, H. & Mirehie, M. (2018). Sport tourism and feminism. In J. Caudwell, L. Mansfield, B. Wheaton and B. Watson (Eds). *The Palgrave handbook of feminisms in sport, leisure and physical education*. Basingstoke: Palgrave.
- Glyptis, S. A. (1981). Leisure lifestyles. *Regional Studies*, 15, 311-326.
- Gnoth, J. & Deans, K. (2003). *Developing the tourism experience model*. Available at: https://www.researchgate.net/profile/Juergen_Gnoth/publication/256118025_Developing_the_tourism_experience_model/links/54fe514a0cf2741b69efefae/Developing-the-tourism-experience-model.pdf.
- Grabowska, J. M. (2016). Sport tourism: Terminological Discussion. *Tourism*, 26 (1).
- Gratton, C., Dobson, N. & Shibli, S. (2000). The economic importance of major sports events: A case study of six events. *Managing Leisure*, 5, 14-28.

- Green, B. C. & Chalip, L. (1998). Sport tourism as the celebration of subculture. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 25, 275-291.
- Green, B. C. & Jones, I. (2005). Serious Leisure, Social Identity and Sport Tourism. *Sport in Society*, 8 (2), 164-181.
- Gross, M. J. & Brown, G. (2006). Tourism experiences in a lifestyle destination settings: The role of involvement and place attachment. *Journal of Business Research*, 59, 696-700.
- Hall, C. M. (1992). Adventure, sport and health. In C. M. Hall and B. Weiler (Eds). *Special Interest Tourism*. London: Belhaven Press.
- Hall, C. M. (2005). *Tourism: Rethinking the Social Science of Mobility*. Harlow: Prentice-Hall.
- Hall, C. M. & Page, S. (2006). *The Geography of tourism and Recreation. Environment, place and space* (4th ed.). London: Routledge.
- Hallmann, K., Dallmeyer, S., & Breuer, C. (2014). *Sports Tourism Marketing. Strategies in Sports Marketing: Technologies and Emerging Trends: Technologies and Emerging Trends*, 4, 40 - 57.
- Hallmann, K., Feiler, S., Müller, S. & Breuer, C. (2012). “The interrelationship between sport activities and the perceived winter sport experience”. *Journal of Sport & Tourism*, 17 (2), 145-163.
- Hallmann, K., Kaplanidou, K. & Breuer, C. (2010). Event image perceptions among active and passive sport tourists at marathon races: A qualitative and quantitative approach. *International Journal of Sports Marketing and Sponsorship*, 12 (1), 37-52.
- Hargreaves, J. (1990). Gender on the sports agenda. *International Review for the Sociology of Sport*, 25 (4), 287-308.
- Hargreaves, J. (1994). *Sporting Females: Critical Issues in the history and sociology of women’s sports*. London: Routledge.

- Harmon, L. K., Zinn, H. C. & Gleason, M. (2005). Place Identity, Place Dependence, and Place-Based Affect: Examining their Relationship to Participation in Educational and Interpretive Programs at Isle Royale National Park. In D. Harmon (Ed). *Proceedings of the 2005 George Wright Society Conference on Parks, Protected Areas, and Cultural Sites* (pp. 149-156). Hancock, Michigan: The George Wright Society.
- Harris, J. & Wise, N. (2017). *Sport, Events, Tourism and Regeneration*. Contemporary Geographies of Leisure, Tourism and Mobility. Routledge.
- 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.
- Haughey, K. (2015). *Sport and Active Recreation in the Lives of New Zealand adults 2013/14 Active New Zealand Survey Results*. Available at: <https://static1.squarespace.com/static/5758b0f24d088e5bbe12799d/t/5768618e29687fc14c10852c/1466458563239/Sport-and-Active-Recreation-in-the-lives-of-New-Zealand-Adults.pdf>.
- Hennessey, S., Yun, D., MacEachern, M. & MacDonald, R. M. (2008). A Framework for Understanding Golfing Visitors to a Destination. *Journal of Sport & Tourism*, 13 (1), 5-35.
- Higham, J. (2005). *Sport Tourism Destinations Issues, opportunities and analysis*. Routledge.
- Higham, J. (2007a). *Critical Issues in Ecotourism: Understanding a Complex Tourism Phenomenon*. Oxford: Elsevier.
- Higham, J. (2007b). Introduction to sport tourism destination analysis. In J. Higham (Ed). *Sport Tourism Destinations Issues, opportunities and analysis* (pp. 17-24). Routledge.
- Higham, J., & Hinch, T. (2009). Mountain climbing and serious leisure. In J. Higham and T. Hinch (Ed). *Sport and tourism: Globalisation, mobility, and identity* (pp. 125-142). Oxford, UK: Elsevier Butterworth Heinemann.

- Highmore, B. (2002). *Everyday life and cultural theory: An introduction*. New York: Routledge.
- Hill, M. M. & Hill, A. (2008). *Investigação por Questionário* (2^a ed.). Lisboa: Edições Sílabo.
- Hinch, T. D. & Higham, J. E. S. (2001). Sport tourism: a framework for research. *The International Journal of Tourism Research*, 3 (1), 45-48.
- Hinch, T. D. & Higham, J. E. S. (2004). *Sport tourism development*. Clevedon: Channel View Publications.
- Hinch, T. & Higham, J. (2005). Sport, tourism and authenticity. *European Sport Management Quarterly*, 3, 243-256.
- Hinch, T. D. & Higham, J. E. S. (2011). *Sport tourism development* (2nd ed.). Channel View Publications.
- Homburg, C. & Giering, A. (2001). Personal characteristics as moderators of the relationship between customer satisfaction and loyalty - An empirical analysis. *Psychology & Marketing*, 18 (1), 43-66.
- Hosany, S. & Gilbert, D. (2009). Dimensions of Tourists’ Emotional Experiences towards Hedonic Holiday Destinations. Working Paper Series, School of Management, Royal Holloway University of London. *Journal of Travel Research*, 49 (3), 351-64.
- Hosmer, D. W. & Lemeshow, S. (2000). *Applied Logistic Regression*. (2nd ed.) New York.
- Hulteen, R. M., Smith, J. J., Morgan, P. J., Barnett, L. M., Hallal, P. C., Colyvas, K. & Lubansa, D. R. (2016). Global participation in sport and leisure-time physical activities: A systematic review and meta-analysis. *Preventive Medicine*, 95, 14-25.
- Hsieh, H. & Shannon, S. (2005). Three approaches to qualitative content analysis. *Qualitative Health Research*, 15 (9), 1277-1288.

- Iso-Ahola, S. (1982). Toward a social psychology theory of tourism motivation: A rejoinder. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 9 (2), 256-262.
- Jackson, E. (2005). *Constraints on leisure*. State College PA: Venture Publishing.
- Jakovlev, Z., Dimitrov, N., Koteski, C. & Serafimova, M. (2017). Sport tourism as the most important alternative form of tourism-strategies and challenge. *Journal of the Institute of Economics - Skopje*. 19 (3), 197-207.
- Jiménez-Naranjo, H. V., Pérez, J., Fernández, M. & Escobedo, M. (2015). Cost-benefit analysis of sport events: The case of World Paddle Tour. *Investigaciones Europeas de Dirección y Economía de la Empresa*.
- Jones, A. & Crandall, R. (1986). Validation of a short index of self-actualization. *Personality & Social Psychology Bulletin*, 12, 63-73.
- Kane, M. J. & Zink, B. (2004). Package adventure tours: Makers in serious leisure careers. *Leisure Studies*, 23, 329-345.
- Kaplanidou, K. (2007). Affective event and destination image: their influence on Olympic travelers’ behavioural intentions. *Event Management*, 10 (2-3), 159-173.
- Kaplanidou, K. & Vogt, C. (2007). The Interrelationship between Sport Event and Destination Image and Sport Tourists' Behaviours, *Journal of Sport & Tourism*, 12 (3-4), 183-206.
- Kaplanidou, K., Funk, D. C., Buta, N. & Goutzioupas, G. (2009). The event image of the Athens Marathon from the sport tourist marathon runners’ perspective: a qualitative and quantitative approach. *Paper presented at the 17th Annual European Sport Management Conference: best practice in sport facility and event management*, Amsterdam, The Netherlands.
- Kaplanidou, K. & Gibson, H. (2010). Predicting Behavioural 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. (2010). The Meaning and Measurement of a Sport Event Experience Among Active Sport Tourists. *Journal of Sport Management*, 544-566.
- Kartakoullis, N., Webb, E., Karlis, G., Pouloukas, S. & Loizou, C. (2015). Leisure Sport Participation in Cyprus. *International Journal of Sport Management Recreation & Tourism*, 20, 40-57.
- Kazimierczak, M. & Mosko, E. (2013). Specific and developmental trends of sport tourism. *Folia Turistica*, 28 (2).
- Kelly, J. R. (1996). *Leisure*. Needham Heights, MA: Allyn & Bacon.
- Kendrick, V. L., Haslam, R. A. & Waterson, P. E. (2013). Crowd Satisfaction at Sporting Events. *Loughborough University Institutional Repository, Taylor & Francis*.
- Kennelly, M. & Toohey, K. (2014). Strategic alliances in sport tourism: National sport organisations and sport tour operators. *Sport Management Review*, 17 (4), 407-418.
- Khasnabis, C. & Heinicke-Motsch, K. (2008). The Participatory Development of International Guidelines for CBR. *Leprosy Rev.*, 79, 17-29.
- Kim, N. & Chalip, L. (2004). Why travel to the FIFA World Cup? Effects of motives, backgrounds, interest, and constraints. *Tourism Management*, (25), 695-707.
- Kirkup, N. & Sutherland, M. (2015). Exploring the relationships between motivation, attachment and loyalty within sport event tourism. *Current Issues in Tourism*, 20 (1), 7-14
- Klaus, Ph. & Maklan, S. (2011). Bridging the gap for destination extreme sports - a model of sports tourism customer experience. *Journal of Marketing Management*, 27, 13-14, 1341-1365.
- Ko, Y. J., Chang, Y., Jang, E. W., Sagas, M. & Spengler, J. O. (2016). A hierarchical approach in predicting sport consumption behavior: Personality and need perspective. *Journal of Sport Management*.

- Koronios, K., Psiloutsikou, M. & Kriemadis, A. (2017). Motives and constraints of participants in running events. *Education + Training*, 60 (5), 443-457.
- Kotus, J. (2016). Relations between Tourism and Sport in the Context of Tourism as an Academic Discipline. *Tourism*, 26 (1), 19-25.
- Kurtzman, J. (1996). Categories revisited. *Journal of Sport & Tourism*, 2 (2).
- Kurtzman, J. (2005). Sport tourism categories. *Journal of Sport & Tourism*, 10 (1), 15-20.
- Kurtzman, J. & Zauhar, J. (1997). Wave in time: the sports tourism phenomena. *Journal of Sport & Tourism*, 4 (2).
- Kurtzman, J. & Zauhar, J. (2003). A Wave in Time - The Sport Tourism Phenomena. *Journal of Sport & Tourism*, 8 (1), 35-47.
- Kurtzman, J. & Zauhar, J. (2004). *Sport Tourism: Interrelationships, Impacts and Issues* (pp. 281-292). Clevedon: Channel View Publications.
- Kurtzman, J. & Zauhar, J. (2005). Sport tourism consumer motivation. *Journal of Sport & Tourism*, 10 (1), 21-31.
- Kvale, S. (1996). *Interviews: An Introduction to Qualitative Research Interviewing*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.
- Kyle, G., Graefe, A., Manning, R. & Bacon, J. (2004). Predictors of behavioural loyalty among hikers along the Appalachian Trail. *Leisure Sciences*, 26 (1), 99-118.
- Laplanche, M. (1996). *L'expérience touristique contemporaine, fondements sociaux et culturels*. Quebec: PUQ.
- Larsen, S. (2007). Aspects of a psychology of the tourist experience. *Scandinavian Journal of Hospitality and Tourism*, 7 (1), 718.
- Lash, S. & Urry, J. (1994). *Economies of Signs and Space*. London: Sage.
- Laws, E. (1995). *Tourist Destination Management: Issues, Analysis and Policies*. Routledge.

- Lee, W.-Y., Lim, C.-H. & Pedersen, P. M. (2011). Investigating Cognitive and Emotive Measures Affiliated with Advertising Extreme Sports: An Analysis of Emotion, Attitude, Sport Involvement, and Sport Participation Intention. *Theories and Applications The International Edition*, 1 (1), 72-78.
- Lew, A., Hall, C. M. & Williams, A. (2004). *A Companion to Tourism*. Oxford: Blackwell Publishing Ltd.
- Lincoln, Y. & Guba, E. (1985). *Naturalistic inquiry*. California, Beverly Hills: Sage Publications.
- Lipovetsky, G. (1983). *L'ère du vide. Essais sur l'individualisme contemporain*. Paris: Gallimard.
- Litwin, M. S. (2003). *How to assess and interpret survey psychometrics* (2nd ed.). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications, Inc.
- López, L. F. & Gárate, R. M. (2007). The demand for sport: Sport consumption and participation models. *Journal of Sport Management*, 21 (1), 103-122.
- McIntosh, P. (1963). *Sport in society*. London: C. A. Watts & Company.
- McIntosh, R., Goeldner, C. & Ritchie, J. (1995). *Tourism: Principles, Practices, Philosophies* (7th ed.). New York: Wiley.
- McDonald, M. A., Milne, G. R. & Hong, J. (2002). Motivational factors for evaluating sport spectator and participant markets. *Sport Marketing Quarterly*, 11, 100-113.
- McMillan, J. H. & Schumacher, S. (2001). *Research in education: A conceptual introduction*. New York: Longman.
- McPherson, B. (1984). Sport participation across the life cycle: A review of the literature and suggestions for future research. *Sociology of Sport Journal*, 3, 213-230.
- Mallen, C. & Adams, L. J. (2008). *Sport, Recreation and Tourism Event Management: Theoretical and Practical Dimensions*. Oxford: Elsevier Butterworth-Heinemann.

- Mansfeld, Y. (1992). From motivation to actual travel. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 19, 399-419.
- Mansfeld, Y. (2006). The role of security information crisis management: the missing link. In Y. Mansfeld and A. Pizam (Eds). *Tourism, security and safety: From theory to practice*. Burlington, MA: Elsevier Butterworth-Heinemann.
- Mansfield, L. (2007). Involved-detachment: a balance of passion and reason in feminisms and gender-related research in sport, tourism and sports tourism. *Journal of Sport & Tourism*, 12 (2), 115-141.
- Mascarenhas, M., Silva, R. & Pereira, E. (2014). Sport Events’ Potentiation Process at Portimão Tourism Resort. *Sport Tourism New challenges in a Globalized World, Sport Tourism Conference - STC’14*, 95-104.
- Maslow, A. M. (1954). *Motivation and Personality*. New York: Harper & Row.
- Mayring, P. (2014). *Qualitative Content Analysis: Theoretical Foundation, Basic Procedures and Software Solution*. Klagenfurt: Beltz.
- Mello, A. S. (2013). Lazer e educação ambiental: relato de experiências na formação inicial em educação física. *Licere*, 16 (2), 1-13.
- Messner, M. A. (1988). Sports and male domination: The female athlete as contested ideological terrain. *Sociology of Sport journal*, 5, 197-211.
- Mills, A. & Christensen, S. (2006). Athletic identity and its relationship to sport participation levels. *Journal of Science and Medicine in Sport*, 9 (6), 472-478.
- Mlozi, S. & Pesamaa, O. (2013). Adventure Tourist Destination Choice in Tanzania. *Current Issues in Tourism*, 16 (1), 63-95.
- Moreira, J. M. (2009). *Questionários: Teoria e Prática*. Coimbra: Edições Almedina.
- Mota, J. & Esculcas, C. (2002). Leisure-time physical activity behavior: structured and unstructured choices according to sex, age and level of physical activity. *International Journal of Behavioral Medicine*, 9 (2), 111-121.
- Murray, E. J. (1964). *Motivation and Emotion*. Englewood Cliffs: Prentice-Hall.

- Musa, G., Higham, J. & Carr, A. (2015). *Mountaineering Tourism. Contemporary Geographies of leisure, tourism and Mobility*. Routledge.
- Nickerson, N. P. (2006). Some reflections on quality tourism experiences. In G. Jennings & N. P. Nickerson (Eds). *Quality Tourism Experiences* (pp. 227-236). Burlington, MA: Elsevier Butterworth-Heinemann.
- Nogawa, H., Yamguchi, Y. & Hagi, Y. (1996). An empirical research study on Japanese sport tourism in Sport-for-All Events: Case studies of a single-night event and a multiple-night event. *Journal of Travel Research*, 35, 46-54.
- Ogles, B. M. & Masters, K. S. (2003). A typology of marathon runners based on cluster analysis of motivations. *Journal of Sport Behaviour*, 26, 69-85.
- Ooi, C. S. (2005). A theory of tourism experiences: The management of attention. In T. O’Dell and P. Billing (Eds). *Experiencescapes: Tourism, Culture and Economy* (pp. 51-68). Copenhagen: Copenhagen Business School Press.
- Ottevanger, H. J. (2007). *Sport Tourism: Factors of influence on sport event visit motivation* (Doctoral dissertation). Bournemouth University, UK.
- Page, S. J. (2003). Evaluating Research Performance in Tourism: The UK Experience. *Tourism Management*, 24, 607-22.
- Palrão, T. & Filipe, J. A. (2016). Sport Events Tourism: A Perspective Analysis for the Tourism Sector. In K. Rontos, A. J. Filipe & P. Tsartas. *Modeling and New Trends in Tourism: A Contribution to Social and Economic Development* (pp. 215-230). Nova Science Publishers, Inc.
- Papadimitriou, D. & Gibson, H. (2008). Benefits Sought and Realized by Active Mountain Sport Tourists in Epirus, Greece: Pre- and Post-Trip Analysis. *Journal of Sport & Tourism*, 13 (1), 37-60.
- Patterson, I., Getz, D., & Gubb, K. (2014). *The social world and event travel career of the serious yoga devotee*. *Leisure Studies*, 35(3), 296–313.

- Paul, A. H. (1972). Weather and the daily use of outdoor recreation area in Canada. In J. A. Taylor (Ed). *Weather Forecasting for Agriculture and Industry* (pp. 132-146). UK: David & Charles.
- Pereira, A. (2002). Razões para a prática de ginásticas de academia como actividade de lazer. *RPCD, Revista Portuguesa de Ciências do Desporto*, 2 (4), 57-63.
- Pereira, E. (2007). O Desporto Como Cluster do Turismo. In J. Bento and J. Constantino (Eds). *Em Defesa do Desporto - Mutações e Valores em Conflito* (pp. 289-316). Coimbra: Almedina.
- Pereira, E., Batista, M. & Pires, G. (2010). Desporto e turismo: a importância dos eventos desportivos. In O. Bento, O. Tani and A. Prista (Ed). *Desporto e Educação Física em Português* (pp. 406-426). Porto: Centro de Investigação, Formação, Inovação e Intervenção em Desporto, Faculdade de Desporto da Universidade do Porto.
- Pereira, E. & Carvalho, J. (2004). Desporto e Turismo: Modelos e Tendências. *Povos e Culturas*. 9, 233-248.
- Pereira, E., Mascarenhas, M. & Pires, G. (2012). Estudo dos Eventos Desportivos: Da análise histórica dos impactos à perspectiva da alavancagem estratégica. *Materiales para la Historia del Deporte*, 10, 76-86.
- Perić, M. & Wise, N. (2015). Understanding the delivery of experience: Conceptualising business models and sports tourism, assessing two case studies in Istria, Croatia. *Local Economy*, 30 (8), 1000-1016.
- Perić, M., Wise, N. & Dragičević, D. (2017). Suggesting a service research agenda in sports tourism: working experience(s) into business models. *Sport, Business and Management: An International Journal*, 7 (1), 58-76.
- Pestana, M. & Gageiro, J. (2008). *Análise de Dados para Ciências Sociais - A Complementaridade do SPSS* (5ª ed.). Lisboa: Edições Sílabo, Lda.
- Pigeassou, C. (2004). Contribution to the Definition of Sport Tourism. *Journal of Sport & Tourism*, 9 (3), 287-289.

- Pigeassou, C., Buin-Xuan, G. & Gleyse, J. (2003). Epistemological issues on sport tourism: Challenge for a new scientific field. *Journal of Sport & Tourism*, 8 (1).
- Pine, J. II & Gilmore, J. (1998). Welcome to the experience economy. *Harvard Business Review*, (July-August 1998), 97-105.
- Plog, S. C. (1974). Why Destination Areas Rise and Fall in Popularity. *Cornell Hotel and Restaurant Administration Quarterly*, 14 (4), 55-58.
- Plog, S. C. (2001). Why Destination Areas Rise and Fall in Popularity. An Update of a Cornell Quarterly Classic. *Cornell Hotel and Restaurant Administration Quarterly*, 42 (3), 16.
- Poon, A. (1993). *Tourism, technology and competitive strategies*. London: CABI Publishing.
- Quivy, R. & Campenhoudt, L. V. (1992). *Manual de Investigação em Ciências Sociais*. Lisboa: Gradiva.
- Raj, R., Walters, P. & Rashid, T. (2009). *Events Management: An Integrated and Practical Approach*. Londres: Sage.
- Raj, R., Walters, P. & Rashid, T. (2013). *Events Management: principles and practice* (2nd ed.). Thousand Oaks, California: SAGE Publications Ltd.
- Ramchandani, G. M. & Coleman, R. J. (2012). The inspirational effects of three major sport events. *International Journal of Event and Festival Management*, 3 (3), 257-271.
- Reeves, M. R. (2000). *Evidencing the sport-tourism interrelationship* (Unpublished PhD thesis). Loughborough University.
- Ritchie, B. W. (2004). Exploring small scale sport event tourism: The case of Rugby Union and the Super 12 competition. In B. W. Ritchie and D. Adair (Eds). *Sport tourism: Interrelationships, impacts and issues*. Buffalo, N.Y.: Channel View Publications.

- Ritchie, J. R. B. (1984). Assessing the impacts of hallmark events: Conceptual and research issues. *Journal of Travel Research*, 23 (1), 2-11.
- Ritchie, J. R. B. & Hudson, S. (2009). Understanding and meeting the challenges of customer/tourist experience research. *International Journal of Tourism Research*, 11, 111-126.
- Robinson, T. & Gammon, S. (2004). A question of primary and secondary motives: revisiting and applying the sport tourism framework. *Journal of Sport & Tourism*, 9 (3), 221-223.
- Robinson, T. & Gammon, S. (2011). A question of primary and secondary motives: revisiting and applying the sport tourism framework. *Theories and Applications the International Edition*, 1 (1), 58-71.
- Rodrigues, A. & Filipe, J. A. (2016). Sky Commons as a Basis to Explore the Touristic Potential of the Alqueva Area (Portugal). In K. Rontos, A. J. Filipe & P. Tsartas. *Modeling and New Trends in Tourism: A Contribution to Social and Economic Development*. Nova Science Publishers, Inc.
- Rojek, C. (1985). *Capitalism and leisure theory*. London: Tavistock.
- Rudman, W. (1986). Sport as part of successful aging. *American Behavioral Scientist*, 29, 453-470.
- Ryan, C. & Glendon, I. (1998). Applications in leisure motivation scale to tourism. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 25 (1), 169-184.
- Ryan, C. & Birks, S. (2000). *Passengers at Hamilton International Airport* (Unpublished report for Hamilton International Airport). University of Waikato, Hamilton.
- Santos, N. & Gama, A. (2008). *Lazer - Da libertação do tempo à conquista das práticas*. Coimbra: Universidade de Coimbra.
- Sanz, V. A. (2003). *Organización Y Gestión de Actividades Desportivas - Los grandes eventos*. Barcelona: INDE.

- Sato, M., Jordan, J. S. & Funk, D. C. (2014). The role of physically active leisure for enhancing quality of life. *Leisure Sciences: An Interdisciplinary Journal*, 36 (3), 293-313.
- Sato, M., Yoshida, M., Wakayoshi, K. & Shonk, D. J. (2016). Event satisfaction, leisure involvement and life satisfaction at a walking event: The mediating role of life domain satisfaction. *Leisure Studies*, 36 (5), 605-617.
- Scott, D. & Lemieux, C. (2009). Weather and Climate Information for Tourism. *Procedia Environmental Sciences*, 1, 146-183.
- Selstad, L. (2007). The social anthropology of the tourist experience. Exploring the "Middle Role". *Scandinavian Journal of Hospitality and Tourism*, 7 (1), 19-33.
- Shaw, S., Bonen, A. & McCabe, J. (1991). Do more constraints mean less leisure? Examining the relationship between constraints and participation. *Journal of Leisure Research*, 23, 286-300.
- Shifflet, D. K. & Bhatia, P. (1999). Event Tourism Market Emerging. *Hotel and Motel Management*, 6, 26.
- Shipway, R. & Jones, I. (2007). Running away from home: Understanding visitor experiences and behaviour at sport tourism events. *International Journal of Tourism Research*, 9 (5), 373-383.
- Shipway, R. & Jones, I. (2008a). A Running Commentary: Participant Experiences at International Distance Running Events. In J. Ali-Knight, M. Robertson, A. Fyall and A. Ladkin (Eds). *International Perspectives on Festivals and Events: Advances in Tourism Research Series*. Oxford: Elsevier Butterworth-Heinemann. Chapter 12, 173-186.
- Shipway, R. & Jones, I. (2008b). The Great Suburban Everest: An 'Insiders' Perspective on Experiences at the 2007 Flora London Marathon. *Journal of Sport & Tourism*, 13 (1), 61-77.

- Shipway, R., Holloway, I. & Jones, I. (2013). Organisations, practices, actors, and events: Exploring inside the distance running social world. *International Review for the Sociology of Sport*, 48 (3), 259-276.
- Shipway, R., King, K., Lee, I. S. & Brown, G. (2016). "Understanding cycle tourism experiences at the Tour Down Under". *Journal of Sport & Tourism*, 20 (1), 21-39.
- Shivers, J. (1985). Leisure constructs: a conceptual reference. *World leisure and recreation*, 27 (1), 24-27.
- Nyikanak, S. (2016). Using sport tourism events as a catalyst for tourism development in the Eastern Cape Province. *African Journal of Hospitality, Tourism and Leisure Special Edition*, 5 (3), 1-12.
- Sloan, R. (1989). The motives of sports fan. In H. Goldstein (Ed). *Sports, Games and Play: Social and Psychological Viewpoints* (2nd ed.) (pp. 175-240). Hillsdale, MI: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.
- Smith, A. C. T. (2008). *Introduction to Sport Marketing*. Oxford: Butterworth-Heinemann.
- Smith, V. (1978). *Hosts and Guests*. Oxford: Blackwells.
- Standeven, J. (1994). Sport and Tourism in the South of England. In J. Mester (Ed). 2nd *European Forum "Sport Sciences in Europe" - Current and Future Perspectives* (pp. 137-152). Aachen.
- Standeven, J. & De Knop, P. (1999). *Sport Tourism*. Champaign: Human Kinetics.
- Stebbins, R. (1992). *Amateurs, professionals, and serious leisure*. Montreal: McGill-Queen's University Press.
- Stebbins, R. (2001). *New Directions in the Theory and Research of Serious Leisure*. Lewiston, NY: Edwin Mellen.
- Stebbins, R. (2007). *Serious Leisure a perspective for Our Time*. New Brunswick, NJ: Transaction Publishers.

- Stockdale, J. (1985). *What is leisure? An empirical analysis of the concept of leisure and the role of leisure in peoples’ lives*. London: Sports Council.
- Tabachnick, B. G. & Fidell, L. S. (2007). *Using multivariate statistics* (5th ed.). Upper Saddle River, NJ: Pearson Allyn & Bacon.
- Taylor, T. & Toohey, K. (2006). Security, perceived safety, and event attendee enjoyment at the 2003 rugby world cup. *Tourism Review International*, 11 (4), 257-267.
- Theodorakis, N. D., Kaplanidou, K. & Karabaxoglou, I. (2015). Effect of event service quality and satisfaction on happiness among runners of a recurring sport event. *Leisure Sciences*, 37 (1), 87-107.
- Tribe, J. (1997). The indiscipline of tourism. *Annals of tourism Research*, 24 (3), 638-657.
- Tsai, W. (2002). Social structure of “cooperation” within a multiunit organization: Coordination, competition, and intraorganizational knowledge sharing. *Organization Science*, 13, 179-190.
- Tung, V. W. S. & Ritchie, J. R. B. (2011). Exploring the essence of memorable tourism experiences. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 38, 1367-1386.
- Uriely, N. (2005). The Tourist Experience Conceptual Developments. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 32 (1), 199-216.
- Uysal, M., Li, X. & Sirakaya-Turk, E. (2008). Push-pull dynamics in travel decisions. In H. Oh (Ed). *Handbook of Hospitality Marketing Management* (pp. 412-439). Oxford: Butterworth-Heinemann.
- Van Rheenen, D., Cernaianu, S. & Sobry, C. (2017). Defining sport tourism: a content analysis of an evolving epistemology. *Journal of Sport & Tourism*, 21 (2), 75-93.
- Veal, A. J. (2000). *Leisure and Lifestyle. A Review and Annotated Bibliography*. Online Bibliography n. 8. School of Leisure, Sport and Tourism. University of Technology, Sydney.

- Veblen, T. (1899). *The Theory of the Leisure Class: an Economic Study of Institutions*, reprinted (1994). New York, NY: Penguin Books.
- 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.
- Wafi, A. A., Chiu, L. K. & Kayat, K. (2017). Understanding Sport Event Visitors’ Motivation and Satisfaction of Small-Scale Sport Event. *Journal of Tourism*, 2 (3), 13-24.
- Weed, M. (2005). Sports Tourism Theory and Method - Concepts, Issues and Epistemologies. *European Sport Management Quarterly*, 5 (3), 222-242.
- Weed, M. (2006). Sports tourism research 2000-2004: A systematic review of knowledge and a meta-evaluation of methods. *Journal of Sport & Tourism*, 11 (1), 5-30.
- Weed, M. (2008). *Sport and Tourism, A Reader*. London: Routledge.
- Weed, M. (2009). Progress in sports tourism research? A meta-review and exploration of futures. *Tourism Management*, 30 (5), 615-628.
- Weed, M. & Bull, C. (2004). *Sports tourism: participants, policy and providers*. Oxford: Elsevier Butterworth-Heinemann.
- Wilson, R. (2006). The economic impact of local sport events: significant, limited or otherwise? A case study of four swimming events. *Managing Leisure*, 11 (1), 57-70.
- Yiannakis, A. & Gibson, H. (1992). “Roles Tourists Play”. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 19 (2), 287-303.
- Yoshida, M., James, J. D. & Cronin, J. J. (2013). Sport event innovativeness: Conceptualization, measurement, and its impact on consumer behaviour. *Sport Management Review*, 16, 63-84.
- Yusof, A. & Douvis, J. (2001). An examination of sport tourist profiles. *Journal of Sport & Tourism*, 6 (3).

- Zauhar, J. (2003). Historical Perspectives of Sport Tourism. In S. Hudson (Ed). *Sport and Adventure Tourism* (pp. 27-48). New York: The Haworth Press.
- Zauhar, J. (2004). Historical perspective of sport tourism. *Journal of Sport & Tourism*, 9 (1), 5-101.
- Zurn, M. (1973). Tourism and Motor Activity of Cracow Inhabitants. *International Review of Sport Sociology*, 1 (8), 79-94.

10.2. Websites

Aldeias Históricas de Portugal - www.aldeiashistoricasdeportugal.com/es/destacados/xi-festival-de-parapente-de-linhares-da-beira-2015/

All Nations Race Facebook -

<https://www.facebook.com/corridadasnacoes/photos/a.1619277198384406.1073741827.1619254448386681/1619277121717747/?type=3> (last accessed 26th July 2016).

Associação Naval do Guadiana - www.anguadiana.com/ (last accessed 10th September 2016).

Association for Events Management Education (AEME) - <http://www.aeme.org/>

Banco de Portugal (BP) - <https://www.bportugal.pt/sites/default/files/anexos/pdf-boletim/bemar16.pdf>

Câmara Municipal de Cascais - <https://www.cascais.pt/>
<https://www.cascais.pt/noticia/ironman-703-cascais-bate-todos-os-recordes> (last accessed 1st September 2017).

Câmara Municipal de Lisboa - <http://www.cm-lisboa.pt/noticias/detalhe/article/lisboa-e-candidata-a-capital-europeia-do-desporto-2021>

Community-Based Rehabilitation: CBR Guidelines - NCBI Bookshelf -

<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/books/NBK310940/>

Constituição da República Portuguesa -

<https://www.parlamento.pt/parlamento/documents/crp1976.pdf>

Correio da Guarda - <http://correiodaguarda.blogs.sapo.pt/tag/parapente> (last accessed 11th September 2016).

Diário da República (Decree-law) -

no. 204/2000, of 1 September - <https://dre.pt/web/guest/pesquisa/-/search/608703/details/normal?l=1>

no. 21/2002, of 31 January - <https://dre.pt/web/guest/pesquisa/-/search/580977/details/maximized>

(Decree-law) - Article 3 no. 108/2009, of 15 May -

http://www.idesporto.pt/ficheiros/file/DL_21_2002.pdf

Instituto do Turismo (IPDT) - <http://www.ipdt.pt/>

Instituto Nacional de Estatística (INE) - www.ine.pt

Instituto Português do Desporto e Juventude (Carta Europeia do Desporto) -

<http://www.idesporto.pt/DATA/DOCS/LEGISLACAO/Doc120.pdf>

International Fair Play Committee - (The European Sports Charter.pdf) (1992) -

<http://www.fairplayinternational.org/cifp-documents>

International Horseball Federation (FIHB) - <http://www.fihb.net/>

Ironman Cascais - <http://www.ironman.com/pt-pt/triathlon/events/emea/ironman-70-3/cascais.aspx#axzz51t2e8uX3>

Ironman Facebook - <https://www.facebook.com/IRONMANtri/> (accessed 10th May 2017).

Ironman Facebook 70.3 Cascais Portugal -

https://www.facebook.com/pg/IM703Portugal/videos/?ref=page_internal (last accessed 5th June 2017).

Isla Canela - <https://www.islacanela.es/en/xxxii-ascenso-descenso-vela-río-guadiana-20-21-agosto/> (accessed 5th September 2016).

Plano Estratégico Nacional do Turismo (PENT) -

http://www.turismodeportugal.pt/PORTUGU%C3%8AS/TURISMODEPORTUGAL/DOCUMENTS/Plano%20Estrat%C3%A9gico%20Nacional%20Turismo_Sintese.pdf

República Portuguesa - XXI Governo Constitucional -

<http://www.portugal.gov.pt/media/13438865/turismo-2020-cinco-principios-para-uma-ambicao.pdf>

Revista on-line Náutica Press - www.nauticapress.com/em-agosto-a-tradicional-subida-e-descida-internacional-do-guadiana-a-vela/

Semanário Expresso - <http://leitor.expresso.pt/#library/expresso/semanario2328/revista-e-e/turismo-o-segredo-do-nosso-sucesso> (accessed 10th June 2017).

Survivors Run Facebook -

<https://www.facebook.com/cristianoalmeida.trainer/photos/a.638950586143631.1073741825.537883092917048/1077389925633026/?type=3> (accessed 8th May 2016).

Turismo de Portugal - www.turismodeportugal.pt

<http://www.turismodeportugal.pt/Portugu%C3%AAs/AreasAtividade/ApoioaoInvestimento/Pages/PlanoEstrat%C3%A9gicoNacionaldo.aspx>

United Nations - <http://www.un.org/en/index.html>

United Nations Economic Commission for Africa -

<http://repository.uneca.org/bitstream/handle/10855/3921/Bib-29976.pdf?sequence=1>

Universidade de Coimbra -

https://www.uc.pt/fluc/serv_com/pdf_docrochette/CD_Penela.pdf (accessed 10th May 2017).

Urban Trail - <http://www.urbantrail.pt/lang/1/portugues/>

Urban Trail Facebook -

<https://www.facebook.com/urbantrailrun/photos/a.317904901632874.73319.226179510805414/1091500667606623/?type=3andtheater> (accessed 9th September 2016).

Wind - Centro de Actividades de Montanha - <http://wind-cam.pt/>

Wind Facebook -

<https://www.facebook.com/wind.cam.1/photos/a.323975751074829.1073741827.323964031076001/1145958978876498/?type=3andtheater> (accessed 22th September 2016).

World Surf League - <http://www.worldsurfleague.com/>

World Tourism Awards - <https://www.worldtravelawards.com/award-worlds-leading-destination-2017>

World Tourism Organization (UNWTO) (1994) -

https://unstats.un.org/unsd/publication/seriesm/seriesm_83e.pdf

A model for “Recreational Sport Tourism Events’ Experience”
- A participant’s perspective -

World Tourism Organization (UNWTO) (2003) - <http://www2.unwto.org/>

World Tourism Organization (UNWTO) - <http://www2.unwto.org/en> (accessed January 2017).

11. Appendix

Appendix A – Questionnaire applied to Recreational Sport Tourism Events, specific for Portugal

Questionnaire

This questionnaire aims to understand recreational sport tourism events. It is divided into three parts, with a total of 30 multiple choice questions and it takes approximately 10 minutes to complete. Your contribution is of great importance, so that this study’s conclusions may lead to the improvement of this type of event’s organization. We are truly thankful that you take part in this survey.

I – Personal data

1. Gender:

Female ☐
Male ☐

2. Age:

6 – 18 ☐
19 – 29 ☐
30 – 39 ☐
40 – 49 ☐
50 – 59 ☐
60 – 69 ☐
+ 70 ☐

3. Country of residence:

Germany ☐
Angola ☐
Belgium ☐
Brazil ☐
Denmark ☐
Spain ☐
USA ☐
France ☐

A model for “Recreational Sport Tourism Events’ Experience”
- A participant’s perspective -

- Netherlands ☐
England ☐
Ireland ☐
Italy ☐
Luxembourg ☐
Mozambique ☐
Norway ☐
Portugal ☐
Sweden ☐
Switzerland ☐
Other. Which one

4. Are you here alone?

- Yes ☐
No ☐

*If your answer was “Yes”, please go to question 5.
If your answer was “No”, please continue.*

4.1 – How many people did you come with?

- 1 ☐
2 ☐
3 ☐
4 ☐
+ than 5 ☐

4.2 – Why are you here?

- To participate in the event ☐
For leisure ☐

5. How long will you be here for?

- Just for the duration of the event ☐
Beyond the event ☐

6. Do you exercise on a regular basis?

- Yes ☐
No ☐

*If your answer was “Yes”, please go to question 6.1
If your answer was “No”, please go to question 7.*

6.1 – How often?

- Once a week ☐

A model for “Recreational Sport Tourism Events’ Experience”
- A participant’s perspective -

- Twice a week ☐
3 times a week ☐
4 times a week ☐
5 times a week ☐
6 times a week ☐
Everyday ☐

7. Which do you consider yourself to be (in terms of sports practice)

- Professional ☐
Amateur ☐

8. What is the main reason you exercise? (multiple choice)

- I like it ☐
Health reasons ☐
It is slimming ☐
It helps keep the stress out ☐
Other reason. Why? ☐

.....
.....

9. Do you belong to any group or association related to physical activity?

- Yes ☐
No ☐

10. Have you ever answered any questionnaire in a sports event?

- Yes ☐
No ☐

II – Sports tourism events

11. How often do you participate in sports events?

- Never ☐
Rarely ☐
Sometimes ☐
Frequently ☐

12. What do you consider to be essential in a recreational sports event in order for you to participate? (multiple choice)

- Activity ☐
Itinerary ☐

A model for “Recreational Sport Tourism Events’ Experience”
- A participant’s perspective -

Local ☐
Safety ☐
Price ☐
Organizing authority ☐
Complementary offers ☐
Other reason. Why? ☐

.....
.....

13. Do you consider Portugal to be an attractive country to participate in a sports event?

Yes ☐
No ☐

Why.....
.....
.....

14. How many events do you plan to participate in Portugal during 2016?

1 to 4 ☐
5 to 9 ☐
+ than 10 ☐

15. When you come to be a part of an event such as this, what do you do in your spare time? (multiple choice)

Visit local touristic/cultural places ☐
Go shopping ☐
Relax ☐
Other. Which?

.....
.....

16. From your experience, do you feel as if there is a growing number of people participating in these types of events?

Yes ☐
No ☐

17. Do you believe the *Activity* element has a positive impact in the experience acquired from the recreational sport tourism events?

Yes ☐
No ☐

18. Do you believe the *Place* element has a positive impact in the experience acquired from the recreational sport tourism events?

Yes ☐
No ☐

19. Do you believe the *People* element has a positive impact in the experience acquired from the recreational sport tourism events?

Yes ☐
No ☐

20. In your opinion, which is the key element in the recreational sport tourism events experience?

Activity ☐
Place ☐
People ☐

III – During the event

21. Is this your first time participating in this event?

Yes ☐
No ☐

22. How did you know about this event?

Press ☐
E-Mail ☐
Through friends ☐
Event website ☐
Other websites ☐
Other. Which? ☐

.....
.....

23. In what is this particular activity, developed in this specific physical environment (Air, Sea or Land), different from others?

.....
.....

24. Do you find the cost per participant affordable?

Yes ☐
No ☐

25. Would you be willing to pay a higher value, if it was necessary for the continuance of the event?

Yes ☐

No ☐

26. What do you consider to be unique about this event, comparing to others you’ve participated in?

.....
.....

27. What do you think the organization should do to improve this event?

.....
.....

Appendix B – In-depth interview

In-Depth Interview

1. Interview preparation

Theme

- Recreational Sport Tourism Events

General Goals

- Get to know the companies that promote recreational sport tourism events
- Assess the impact recreational sport holds in Portugal
- Gather relevant information that contributes to characterize tourists’ motivations towards the practice of sports tourism events

1.1. Interviewees selection

1.2. Interviewee distribution grid

Name	Company / Website	Sport	Event	Mail	Phone number
------	-------------------	-------	-------	------	--------------

1.3. Interview script

- Introduction and framework context (Presentation; Acknowledgement; Research goals explanation; Assure anonymity of given statements; Get permission to record the interview; Make the transcript)
- Interviewee profile (professional and scholar journey)
- Characterization of the company (business sector, competitors, clients, business partners)

d) Questions to address (Understand how and where did the concept of recreational sport tourism events arise / What are the tourists’ motivational drivers within Activity, People, and Place)

Activity (adventure, health, self-esteem, pleasure, fun, risk, offers, awards (prizes), prestige, participation, challenge, exceedance)

People (group belonging, socializing, acknowledgement, event image)

Place (destination, travelling, deliverance, learning possibility, organizational elements, environment, infra-structures, accessibility, proximity, safety)

1.4. Information record

2. Interview

2.1 Interview location

2.2 Enquiry blocks:

Block I - Understanding how and where the concept of recreational sports tourism events has arisen

1. When and why have you decided to create the company?
2. Who are your target audience (clients)?
3. Do you believe sports practice is a part of the Portuguese people everyday life? In what way?
4. Do you think sport events are a way to attract tourists? In what manner?
5. Do you think Portugal is able and ready to have and develop a sports tourism industry?
6. Bearing in mind the present situation and market evolution, how do you see the future of this type of tourism in Portugal?
7. In your opinion, which do you consider to be the key factors that lead to the adhesion of a sports event?

8. What do you consider to be the necessary elements to be able to say that an event is of a recreational sport type?
9. Do you believe this type of events can work on its own, without the competitive element?
10. Do you think it makes sense to divide sports events by physical environment (Air, Land and Sea)?

Block II – Specific questions about the Event

11. In what year did this event begin?
12. What number is this year’s edition?
13. Is there already a scheduled date for the 2016 edition?
14. Can you please let me know the number of participants since 2012 or its percentage (In the competitive and recreational component, separately)?
15. What do you think are the main causes, if any, for the decrease in the number of participants from 2011 to 2015?
16. Can you please describe the participant’s profile for this event (recreational)? Do you think that participants have attributes specific to this type of event (Air, Land or Sea)?
17. How do you communicate with the participants and the prospective applicants? Do you have a database to work with? When does registration begin? Would it be possible to send a questionnaire to the participants?
18. What is the entry fee for participant? Does that amount suffice to cover organizational expenses? How much is the operative cost for this type of event?
19. How long in advance do you start to prepare the following edition? (What are the necessary steps, can you please elaborate on this?)
20. How many people are in your staff for the execution of the event? Are there any volunteers?

21. Do you know to what extent is the local economy boosted? Can you give me an example?
22. Do you have any sponsors or partners? Local, national and/or international?
23. Do you have any Advertising/Marketing budget abroad? (Can you please further elaborate on this?)
24. Is there any important observation on the development of this event that hasn’t been approached?
25. Have you ever made any questionnaire with the participants to try and better develop the event in accordance with their thoughts?

Block III - Participant motivation

In this block, it is aimed to ascertain which are the tourists’ motivational factors, based on the Weed and Bull (2004), “Sports Tourism Participation” model. This model emphasizes the tourist participation in a recreational sports tourism event, based on the interaction of the three parts described below (Activity, People, and Place), which allow a unique experience to happen.

From your experience and if you had these three factors as main vectors of the participant motivation, what elements would you associate which factor:

26. What is, in your opinion, the utmost tourist motivation for participating in a sporting event?
27. According to the Activity concept, which are the underlying associated elements? (What is decisive to the sports practice participants – name all the factors that come to your mind).
28. According to the People concept, which are the underlying associated elements? (What is decisive to the participants in the social capital area – name all the factors that come to your mind).

29. According to the Place concept, which are the underlying associated elements? (What is decisive to the participants in the destination choice – name all the factors that come to your mind).
30. And which is, in your view, the most important one within each one of these concepts?
31. Do you think it make sense this division into these 3 factors? If not, how would you divide it?

3. Interview Data Treatment

- 3.1. Read and interpret interview data, with the aim to discover patterns.

A model for “Recreational Sport Tourism Events’ Experience”
- A participant’s perspective -

Appendix C - Questionnaire applied to tourists and excursionist in Recreational Sport Tourism Events in Portugal

Questionnaire

The main purpose of this questionnaire, integrated in the scope of a PHD in Tourism Management is to understand the tourists’ motivations to take part in recreational sport tourism events.

The completion of this questionnaire takes approximately 3 minutes.

All the information given is confidential and anonymous and the results will be used strictly for statistical treatment.

In case of doubt or difficulty, feel free to contact me through teresapalrao@sapo.pt.

Thank you very much for your cooperation.

Teresa Palrão

I – Personal data

1. Gender:

- Female ☐
Male ☐

2. Age:

- 6 – 18 ☐
19 – 29 ☐
30 – 39 ☐
40 – 49 ☐
50 – 59 ☐
60 – 69 ☐
+ 70 ☐

3. Country of residence:

- Germany ☐
Angola ☐
Belgium ☐
Brazil ☐
Denmark ☐
Spain ☐
USA ☐
France ☐
Netherlands ☐
England ☐
Ireland ☐
Italy ☐
Luxembourg ☐
Mozambique ☐
Norway ☐

A model for “Recreational Sport Tourism Events’ Experience”
- A participant’s perspective -

Portugal ☐
 Sweden ☐
 Switzerland ☐
 Other. Which one?.....

II – Sports Tourism Events

- 4 In a scale of 1 to 5, please classify the importance of the following elements within the People context, when participating in a sports event.

People	1 - Not important	2	3	4	5 - Very important
Audience support					
Socialization					
Recognition					
Group Affiliation					
Team spirit					

- 5 In a scale of 1 to 5, please classify the importance of the People element in a sports event.

1- Not important	2	3	4	5 - Very important

- 6 In a scale of 1 to 5, please classify the importance of the following elements within the Activity context, when participating in a sports event.

Activity	1 - Not important	2	3	4	5 - Very important
Rewards					
Prestige					
Risk					
Adventure					
Pleasure					
Self-esteem					
Health					
Participation					
Improve one’s skills					

- 7 In a scale of 1 to 5, please classify the importance of the Activity element in a sports event.

1- Not important	2	3	4	5- Very important

- 8 In a scale of 1 to 5, please classify the importance of the following elements within the Place context, when participating in a sports event.

Place	1 - Not important	2	3	4	5 - Very
Proximity					
Organizational Components					
Ability to learn					
Travel					
Destination image					
Infra-structures					
Environment					
Weather					
Safety					
Escape					

- 9 In a scale of 1 to 5, please classify the importance of the Place element in a sports event.

1 - Not important	2	3	4	5 - Very important

- 10 In your opinion, which is the key element in the recreational sport tourism events experience?

Activity ☐
Place ☐
People ☐

III – During the Even

- 11 Please state the name of the last sports event you entered? Air ☐ Water ☐ Earth ☐
.....
.....

12 Is this your first time participating in this event?

Yes ☐
No ☐

13 Are you here alone?

Yes ☐
No ☐

*If your answer was "Yes", please go to question 14.
If your answer was "No", please continue.*

13.1 – How many people accompanied you?

1 ☐
2 ☐
3 ☐
4 ☐
+ than 5 ☐

13.2 – Why are they here?

To participate in the event ☐
For leisure ☐

14 What type of participant do you consider yourself?

Excursionist (under 24 hours) ☐
Tourist (minimum one-night stay) ☐

15 How long will you be here for?

Just for the duration of the event ☐
Beyond the event ☐

16 How did you know about this event?

Press ☐
E-Mail ☐
Through friends ☐
Event website ☐
Other websites ☐
Other. Which?.....

17 What do you consider this event to have that differs from other vents you have attended?

.....
.....

18 What do you think the organization should do to improve this event?

.....
.....

- 19 **This question is related to the intention of participating again in a recreational sport events in Portugal. In a scale from 1 (will not return) to 5 (will surely return), which number would you choose?**

1 – Will not return	2	3	4	5 – Will surely return