

Sport Tourism, Destination Image and College Football Games:
The Recreational Vehicle Tailgater

A Dissertation Presented for the
Doctor of Philosophy
Degree
The University of Tennessee, Knoxville

Cheryl Rebecca Rode
May 2015

Dedication

To Kyle, Taryne and Hayden: this journey would not be possible without your love and support. I love you to the moon and back.

Acknowledgements

Thank you. I am not sure I can say it enough to everyone I have met on this journey.

Many thanks are in order to my advisor, Dr. Rob Hardin. You had faith in me from our first conversation about the program. I am sure at times we did not see eye to eye, but despite that, I have learned a great deal from you over the past three years. You have taught me the importance of balance, time management and learning from my mistakes. I truly appreciate your support in allowing me to pursue my own area of interest within sport. Not every advisor gives the flexibility to explore research interests outside of their own and I thank you. Many times over the past three years I have lacked faith in myself, but you always reassured me when needed that I was on the right track and doing well. It is important to hear that, especially when doubts are high.

To my committee: Dr. Steven Waller, Dr. Sylvia Trendafilova, Dr. Ann Fairhurst, Dr. Robert Reich, thank you for your support and allowing me to look into an area unique to both sport and tourism. The guidance you have each provided is greatly appreciated.

To my friends: There are too many of you to name here, but know that each of you are important to me. Without you and your support, I am not sure I would have made it through this crazy process known as a doctoral program.

To my friends and family I left behind in Texas: Thank you for the support and “good vibes” you have sent from afar. I appreciate the support you gave me when I first had this crazy idea of getting a Ph.D. and deciding to move to a new state for this experience. I am sure you thought I was crazy to leave College Station, my home for so many years, with Kyle and two small children to go back to school once again.

Abstract

Attending sporting events is a popular leisure and recreation activity and more individuals are willing and able to travel greater distances to attend these events. In particular, college football athletics has seen tremendous growth in coverage with conference realignment, television deals, national exposure and other endorsement deals. Students, fans and alumni are spending the weekends in the fall to travel to and participate in college football game day activities including tailgating, socializing and attending the game (Drenton, Peters, Leigh & Hollenbeck, 2009). A subculture within the culture of college football fans are people who travel to games in recreational vehicles or RVs.

Individuals who travel via RV to college football games have rarely been the topic of research in regards to sport consumption and destination image. Destination image can play a major role in the decision of fans to travel to games in addition to loyalty towards their team. Four NCAA Division I Football Bowl Series (FBS) schools were selected and those individuals who utilized the RV parking on each college campus were surveyed. The study aimed to look at and understand the motivations for traveling to and experiencing the college football weekend via the RV on college campuses.

RV tailgaters were similar to typical RV owners with the exception of earning more income. After data analysis, five motivations were revealed to describe why individuals travel to college football game with RVs. These five motivations were analyzed along with destination image to determine if the motivations had an affect on destination image. Only one motivation—family—was not affected. Finally, the RV

tailgater showed high satisfaction with their decision to travel to college football games with the RV and had high intentions to repeat travel in the future. Overall, this research will set a base for future research on the RV tailgater and intentions to travel for college sporting events.

Table of Contents

Chapter 1 Introduction	1
Topic Relevance.....	2
Chapter 2 Literature Review	5
Sport Tourism.....	5
Types of sport tourists.....	7
Types of sporting events.....	10
Sport Tourism and Development.....	12
Recreational Vehicle.....	15
Business of College Sports	17
Motivations.....	17
Ticketing.....	20
Donations.....	21
Other revenue.....	25
Destination Image.....	25
Decision to travel.....	27
Motivations to travel.....	29
Psychosocial Aspects of Travel.....	32
Motivations.....	34
Repeat travel.....	37
Psychosocial Aspects of Sport Tourists	37
Theory of Planned Behavior.....	40
Chapter 3 Materials and Methods.....	44
Survey Research	44
Advantages of survey research.....	44
Disadvantages to survey research.....	45
Materials.....	49
Instrument.....	49
Participants.....	52
Survey Distribution.....	53
Chapter 4 Results and Discussion	55
Results.....	55
Chapter 5 Discussion	61
The RV Tailgater	61
Motivation Factors	64
Destination Image	69
Conclusions and Recommendations	71
Limitations	72
Recommendations.....	73
Future Research	75
List of References.....	77
Appendices.....	90

Appendix A: Instrument.....	91
Appendix B: IRB Approval.....	94
Appendix C: Figures	95
Appendix D: Tables.....	96
Vita	102

List of Tables

Table 1: Demographics	97
Table 2: RV Characteristics	98
Table 3: Exploratory Factor Analysis of Motivations	99
Table 4: Relative Rank and Reliability	100
Table 5: Correlation Table Between Factors and Destination Image	101

Chapter 1 Introduction

Fans of collegiate sports teams can vary from the casual to fanatical fan. The National Collegiate Athletic Association (NCAA) has a limit of 12 regular season football games for the Division I Football Bowl Subdivision (FBS). Typically a collegiate team plays half of the scheduled games at home and half on the road. Fans have an opportunity to travel to their alma mater as well as away game destinations to see their team compete. Destination image can play a role in a fan's decision to travel to a particular location. Many college towns are small, but often offer unique tourism opportunities and these attributes could cause a fan to choose to attend the game as well as stay at the destination longer than just game day. If the fan travels to the sporting event via recreational vehicle (RV), they no longer carry the concern to find hotel accommodations and now have the freedom to make last minute decisions to extend the stay for additional sightseeing adventures. The RV experience adds a different dynamic to the entire tailgating experience by providing a kitchen, electrical power, television and satellite capabilities, and restroom facilities for fans.

Hardy and Gretzel (2011) show that owning an RV has traditionally been indicative of a certain lifestyle. The RV lifestyle is associated with higher incomes, more time for recreation and leisure, the opportunity to spend time with family and friends and later life stages (Guinn, 1980). The costs associated with purchasing, owning, and maintaining a RV may not be appropriate for all college football fans. Gibson, Willming and Holdnak (2003) found that most of the literature regarding RV travel around sporting events was related to major or hallmark events that typically occur once per year or are

considered one-time events. Research has been conducted on RV travel and tourism (Hardy & Gretzel, 2011), however, no previous research exists on the use of RVs or the RV tailgater in regards to travel and collegiate sporting events (Gibson, et al., 2003). The experience of the RV goer once on campus is important to repeat travels the following season as well. The goal of this study is to look at the motivation fans have to travel via RV to games and the relationship with destination image.

Topic Relevance

This particular study is important to academicians, universities, athletic departments and Convention and Visitor's Bureaus (CVBs). Few studies have been done where the RV tailgater at a college football game was included as a specific part of the sample. Those who attended the game with an RV were used as a way to distinguish parking privileges for the fans versus the reasons and motivations for attending and tailgating with a RV (Gibson et al., 2003).

RV ownership has increased in recent years to just under nine million households owning a RV compared to 7.9 million in 2005 (Recreational Vehicle Industry Association [RVIA], 2014). The RV industry was valued at more than \$10.8 billion in 2013 with those numbers expected to continue to increase. The reasons for this growth is the RV experience allows individuals to spend time together with family and friends as well as the cost savings as money is saved on meals, hotels and there is no need for airline travel (RVIA.org, n.d.). The RV owner can be described as older, married, nearing retirement or retired and typically residing in the western United States in small or rural

towns (RV Perceptions & Purchase Motivators: A Communications Planning Study, 2010).

Those traveling with the RV often have flexibility for travel dates and with work schedules as many are retired. Traveling via RV provides the freedom to arrive several days early or stay longer to enjoy other attractions in the area. CVBs and athletic departments would be able to work together to market the city and surrounding area to individuals and encourage them to stay longer, spend more money in the area and associate the area with something more than a sporting event. The RV tailgater is an individual or group of individuals who travel and tailgate at sporting events, specifically college football games for this study. Understanding this group thus becomes critical, as strategies to market to them need to be developed. It is important to understand why they choose to travel via RV to attend games and what role destination image plays in travel plans to the sporting event. This study will also help bridge the gap between sport tourism and sport management. While RV owners may have additional flexibility in their lifestyle and travel choices, attending a sporting event may be the sole reason for traveling to a destination. Understanding the unique expectations and requirements of the typical college football RV tailgater will allow sport management professionals, athletic departments and city and regional tourist departments provide these travelers with additional opportunities while in the area. In addition, many of these college football RV tailgaters might be willing to purchase season tickets and donate to the university's athletic department in order to reserve a RV tailgating spot on campus. This dedication to

football, athletics and the university will bring this type of sport tourist to the area multiple times per season offering several opportunities to extend the trip.

College football games bring the promise to bring thousands of spectators, fans and other people to the area. It is important to sport administrators to understand this group so they create better relationships with the local CVB and tourism boards. This study looks to answer the following research questions:

RQ1: What is the demographic profile of people who travel to attend college football games via RV?

RQ2: What are the motivations to attend college football games for people who travel via RV?

RQ3: What is the relationship between the motivations and destination image?

RQ4: What is the level of satisfaction and behavioral intentions on destination image?

Chapter 2 Literature Review

Traveling greater distances to attend, watch and participate in sporting events has become part of the culture of sports, especially college sports. As people travel for sports, they are often choosing to stay in hotels, eat at local restaurants and possibly stay longer than the event itself to visit other attractions in the area. This particular niche of the tourist industry has become known as sport tourism. Sport tourism has managed to become a major impact on tourism and the tourism experience (Kurtzman & Zauhar, 2005). A number of definitions have been developed and modified for sport tourism despite it being a relatively new area of research and marketing (Gibson, 1998; 2005a; Hinch & Higham, 2005; Kurtzman & Zauhar, 2005; Leiper, 1990). For this study, sport tourism was defined as travel to the area with the primary intent to participate in game day activities in the RV parking section on the university's campus before, during, and after a college football game.

Sport Tourism

Hinch and Higham (2005) reference Leiper (1990) in their definition of tourism and the three elements needed to identify something as a tourist attraction, they add that in order for it to be a sport destination, the travelers must be either motivated or involved in sport while on a trip. They continue and identify who might be included as a sport traveler and this ranged from the professional athlete to members of the media and many others in between (Hinch & Higham, 2005; Kurtzman & Zauhar, 2005). Sport tourism itself is not just the participating or attending of an event, it can encompass visiting sports museums and facilities. Hinch and Higham (2001) define sport as “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 play” (p. 49). Gibson (1998; 2005a) provides a similar definition in that sport tourism explains those individuals who are away from their home community and are either actively participating, watching or visiting sport attractions.

Smith (1988) takes a different approach to the general tourism definition. Several iterations of tourism definitions are included, but all contain similar elements to broadly group together as a definition of tourism. One such item is the idea of someone traveling away from the home environment for at least a 24 hour period of time (Smith, 1988). He also argues the previous definitions do not really encompass the business side of tourism. Smith (1988) begins creating a new, more up to date definition by labeling tourism as “basically a retail service industry” (p. 183). He further details this area by excluding certain industries (i.e., hotel construction, automobile manufacturing) to create a more defined industry description. Another important distinction is to identify the type of traveler and activities. The goods and services a traveler needs to make the trip easier and more enjoyable might vary depending on type of travel—business or leisure (Smith, 1988). The final piece of the new definition would include something related to the home environment—something evident in earlier versions of tourism. Smith (1988) argues the idea of home environment should be updated and not defined by distance traveled or length of stay, but to let the tourist determine the definition on his or her own. This particular change is not necessarily important for his business side approach to tourism

since people who travel away from their home environment will need travel related goods and services.

While sport tourism can easily be defined in many ways and to include various groups of individuals, there is no doubt this type of tourist will have an impact in the community when visiting for the primary purpose of attending a college football game or other sporting event. College towns reap the benefits of college football season by having six to seven weekends of booked hotels and thousands of additional people spending money at retail shopping outlets, hotels and restaurants. College sports have grown tremendously in the past few decades and each season a larger number of college football games are televised. Athletic departments are constantly in the arms race to build the biggest, best and most attractive facilities and stadiums for their student-athletes, but more importantly for the fans and visitors. These communities rely on this additional income and positive economic impact to boost the local economy each fall.

Types of sport tourists.

It is also a necessity to describe the type of person who would be deemed a sport tourist. Gibson (1998, 2004, 2005) identifies three ways to describe the sport tourist. Depending on the event, length of stay and motivations behind the trip, a sports tourist might appear to be an active, nostalgic or passive sport tourist (Gibson, 1998; 2005). Sport tourists may express varying degrees of involvement on a single trip or excursion. It is also possible the individual may express more than one behavior on a single trip.

The nostalgic sport tourist has traditionally been viewed as someone who tours sports halls of fame or stadiums, but according to Gordon (2013), the nostalgia is

displayed beyond the above-mentioned experiences. Gordon (2013) describes other possible definitions and examples of nostalgia sport tourism to include two general ideas of nostalgia—social experience and place or artifact. The place or artifact encompasses the sport memorabilia and Halls of Fame while the social experience might bring the individual back to the past where good sport memories were generated. Perhaps nostalgia is an important piece to why people are dedicated to travel to new and exciting locations to see their favorite team compete in a sporting event.

Passive or watching sport tourists will travel to watch their team compete in a sporting event or some type of marque event. This type of tourist might be a spectator for a college football game, a professional basketball game or even a large-scale event such as the Olympics (Gibson, 1998, 2004; Gordon, 2013). The active tourist travels to participate in a sport activity whereas the event tourist travels primarily to watch a sporting event. Sport participation may be individual or group (Gibson, 1998). This type of sport tourist is generally described as possessing a college education, affluent and male (Gibson, 1998). For example, an active sport tourist might choose to play a round of golf while on vacation or participate in some other outdoor individual sport.

Gibson (2004) notes that the definition or type of sport tourist varies as well. Some sport tourists may be considered the excursionist or the day-tripper since they will not stay the night at the sport destination. However, a “fully-fledged sport tourist” will stay at least one night at the event destination (Gibson, 2004, p. 249). The economic differences these two groups impact the community can be seen in the total expenditures for the individual trip. For example, the sport tourist will have a greater impact on the

community since this type of tourist will not only utilize restaurants, but will secure overnight lodging in a local hotel, motel or other overnight facility (Gibson, 2004).

A distinction could be made between sport tourists and tourism sport. Both Hinch and Higham (2001) and Gibson (2004; 2005b) discuss the differences between sport tourism and tourism sport. The motivations behind the travel help distinguish the two. The sport tourist is someone who is traveling primarily for sport or a sporting event while tourism sport would indicate that travel and seeing new places is the main reason for the visit and sport is secondary (Gibson, 2004). Sport tourism is the intention to travel and either participate or be a spectator for a sporting event—sport is the primary reason for the travel to the destination (Gibson, 2004). Tourism sport is when an individual plans a trip to a destination and sport is not the primary reason but may choose to attend or participate in sport while at the destination (Gibson, 2004). Both rely on the assumption that the individual is traveling outside of their home or normal environment. It is important to understand both types of tourists because each will be attracted to the area and marketed to in different ways for different events.

Finally, three areas of social structure exist in sports: gender, race and class (Gibson, 2005b). Traditionally women have not participated in sports when compared to men, but with the passage of Title IX in 1972, women's participation in sports has been on the rise ("The Next Generation of Title IX: Athletics," 2012). In addition, when it comes to sports and tourism, it has been shown that men and women have different travel habits (Gibson, 2005b). Traditionally men have been more inclined to seek sport attractions while traveling versus women who seek cultural or family attractions.

Traditionally research on race and sport has concentrated on African-Americans, however the changing demographics in the United States will provide opportunities to study other races, sport and tourism (Gibson, 2005b). This is primarily due to studies on race discrimination in sport. Social class has the potential to impact how and why people travel. Some sports create travel opportunities only for the elite, such as golf and major championship events. The price of the tickets alone can price many out of the experience, not to mention the added expenses of travel, food and lodging.

Types of sporting events.

Sporting events are a way to attract fans as tourists to a new area. Gibson, Willming & Holdnak (2003) identified that most of the literature refers to mega or hallmark events such as major cultural, expositions, fairs or sporting events that tend to draw international prestige. However, there are typically downsides to these types of events. These large events often occur once for the city and/or occur every so many years causing tourists to come for the event only and possibly never to return because they were only interested in the location for the large-scale event. Small-scale sport events, on the other hand, were suggested as a possible alternative that could provide positive results for the organization and the community. An example of a small-scale sport event might include a regular season of football, hockey or any sport with regular competition among the member organizations (Gibson, Gammon, & Kutzman, 2002). The small-scale sport events would be more favorable to the local community and economy. The events most likely occur in infrastructure that already exists instead of the city being required to build

large-scale infrastructure for a one-time mega event such as the Olympics (H. J. Gibson et al., 2002).

Travel due to sporting events—whether marquee or small-scale—has increased and more individuals are planning trips around or to include sporting events (Green & Chalip, 1998). It is suggested that the social opportunities and the sense of community are important for sport and that it does not necessarily matter the destination (Green & Chalip, 1998). Many of the motives for tourism overlap into the sport tourism realm, especially social interaction. For example, Wann (1995) created the Sport Fan Motivation Scale and identified several motivations that have been previously mentioned related to tourism including social interactions, family and escape.

Lee, Taylor, Lee and Lee (2005) utilized a cognitive image scale in their study of mega-events and identified four aspects of cognitive traits to include attractions, comfort, value and exotic atmosphere. Attractions can include anything from the local food to the scenic attractions in the area, including recreational or sport activities. The ease of maneuvering the area, safety and friendliness of the area comprise the comfort aspect. Individuals want the best value for their money and travel is no exception. Finally the exotic atmosphere aspect provides a relaxing experience as well and good climate (Lee et al., 2005). All of the meanings of the above aspects will vary some between individuals, as each person will possess different expectations and beliefs.

As people age and progress through their life, they may develop different behaviors, motivations and expectations for tourism and toward a destination's image. Maslow's hierarchy of needs has been compared to sport tourism and individuals show a

greater satisfaction when their basic needs are met while at a destination (Gibson, 2005b). Sport tourism has also been portrayed as a ladder and an individual will progress up the ladder to different levels of participation and experiences as a tourist. Gibson (2005b) used the example of an experience snowboard or skier and at this level the individual will express a high self-esteem but at an intermediate or medium level, might associate the activity with being social and an opportunity to enjoy the activity with others. In addition the more involved the individual is with traveling and specific destinations, they will be more likely to purchase additional equipment and go on additional trips. Dedicated sport tourists who travel primarily to watch sporting events might choose to eventually purchase an RV in order to enhance the experience and be “closer to the action” than someone staying at a local hotel. Sport tourists who travel to sporting events with an RV, regardless of ownership, create a sense of identity for themselves and future purchasing and travel decisions will be reflected in this lifestyle.

Sport Tourism and Development

Convention and visitors bureaus (CVBs) and in some areas, sport and tourism authorities, play an important role in the attraction of tourists and businesses to the area. In all aspects of tourism and tourism research, the actual definition of a tourist versus a visitor varies and is unclear. A common item is the distance traveled and whether or not an individual stayed overnight at the destination. The CVB is a “cooperative or umbrella organization for tourism marketing, development, and administration in cities and towns” (Masberg, 1998, p. 67). CVB’s often work with other tourism organizations, the city and any other local organization to promote the city and any events in the area (Young &

Montgomery, 1997). In the event of a crisis, the CVB is vital in the continued marketing and promotion of the area. For example, after Hurricane Katrina, the city of New Orleans was destroyed, but due to the hard work of the CVB and the city's government, Super Bowl XLVII was held in New Orleans in 2013. Many cities across the United States and Canada now have some type of sport tourism initiative. This group is typically responsible for placing bids and attempting to secure a large or hallmark sport event for the local area (Getz, 2008).

Sport tourism has an opportunity to revitalize a city or region by landing a hallmark event. Since the 1980's and 1990's, many cities and regions planned to market and invest in sport, tourism and entertainment, thus attracting new and more visitors to the area (Getz, 2008). The development of sport as part of the tourism industry for a locality could include construction of new stadiums and facilities for professional to youth teams, leading to a revitalization of certain areas of the city. This investment would allow the city to host new sport events such as a youth soccer tournament or baseball that would generate a significant amount of additional income for the city with increased hotel and restaurant revenue. The CVB along with a tourism authority will work to determine the economic impact of a sport event on the community and the citizens (Burgan & Mules, 1992).

While sport tourism may describe the primary reason for an individual to visit the destination, sport development should occur at the local and regional level to create opportunities for sport tourists to visit the area. Collegiate athletics continue to grow in popularity and the cities and towns where the university resides must take advantage of

the sport tourism opportunities for the area. The athletic arms race is fierce and many universities are working with local governments to assist in funding for new stadiums and arenas that can benefit the community as well as the university's athletic program. Typically, when new facilities are built, an economic impact report is generated to determine if the expense will be worth the potential income once completed (Burgan & Mules, 1992). The multiplier used to determine the impact on the area is not predetermined, but will vary per event and location. In the recent renovation plans for Kyle Field at Texas A&M University, several options were discussed and presented as to the best way to approach the renovations. One option called for the football team to play nearly two hours away in Houston for an entire football season. It was estimated a large number of local businesses would close if this option were selected. The influx of thousands of fans on a home game weekend was considered and ultimately the renovation schedule would be a series of phases so not to hinder local tourism or businesses.

Burgan and Mules (1992) note "a major sporting event may also have longer-term tourism promotion benefits for the region" (p. 708). While sport tourism and sport development may be deemed different, they tend to go hand in hand for the local community to thrive. The community needs the ongoing sport tourism aspects, but to get there, must be willing to spend and plan for future economic success. The research in this study on the RV sport tourist will be greatly beneficial to the CVB and/or tourist authority in the area. The CVB might be primarily focused on providing information on hotel, restaurant and shopping experiences for the sport tourist, but what about the RV

sport tourist? This unique tourist will not need hotel accommodations, but will need access to safe, clean and local RV parks. Collegiate football provides a unique experience for the RV sport tourist—an opportunity to stay the weekend on campus in a designated parking area. Despite the potential income generated from restaurant and shopping, the CVB needs to understand this unique traveler. The RV sport tourist should be marketed to in a unique way to entice that traveler to arrive earlier and/or stay longer in the destination city. Many college towns offer unique attractions and unless the RV sport tourist is aware of these attractions or additional sporting events, why would they consider extending their stay? The university and the CVB should work together to provide information to the RV sport tourist for other activities in the area.

Recreational Vehicle

Sport tourists are consumers within sport, the destination and the community. Sport tourists versus excursionists tend to stay longer at the destination and ultimately spend more money (Gibson et al., 2003). Gibson et al. (2003) showed that on average, sport tourists spent nearly \$200 more to attend a college football game since this group of travelers stayed in some type of overnight accommodations and spent more on meals. In this particular study, sport tourists with RV's at the college football game were included in the data analysis and this group accounted for 13 percent of the sport tourists (Gibson et al., 2003).

The RV traveler or tourist could be defined “as a form of tourism where travellers take a camper trailer, van conversion, fifth wheel, slide-on camper, caravan or motorhome on holiday with them, and use the vehicle as their primary form of

accommodation” (Hardy & Gretzel, 2011, p. 194). RV travelers generally have more time, money and the desire to have increased comfort when traveling (Hardy & Gretzel, 2011). Since the general RV population is typically nomadic and traveling at the ease and convenience to where ever they like, little research has been done on this group of tourists (Hardy & Gretzel, 2011). The number of RV owners continues to increase. The estimated number of RV owners was around 8.9 million in 2011 (RVIA.org, 2014). The 2011 figure is up from 2005 figures of approximately 7.9 million (RVIA.org, 2014).

So if there is such an increase in RV ownership, why is there very little research on why tourists choose to travel with an RV versus securing a room at a local hotel or motel? Hardy and Gretzel (2011) indicate three levels to decisions made by travelers, and accommodations are the last decision after travel dates and location. The option to bring your own accommodations is highly appealing to the RV owner and allows them to be more independent in their travel habits. The RV owner population is typically older and in a later stage of life. While traveling with an RV, they have the opportunity to bring more possessions and mementos along to retain their identity (Hardy & Gretzel, 2011). Many cities and hotels have become pet friendly in recent years, but RV travel allows the tourist to bring a pet without worry for additional fees or concerns. The ownership of an RV will allow the tourist to find his or her own place on spectrum discussed by Kurtzman and Zauhar (2005) in case they are less independent or less of a risk taker. The RV tourist will have a familiar surrounding and their own bed at night, which might allow them the confidence to try new destinations.

To the RV tourist, ownership of an RV is not just about accommodation and transportation in one, but more about socialization and new experiences (Hardy & Gretzel, 2011). The actions of RV tourists can vary greatly across North America and could be divided into various sub-groups depending on the goals and intentions of the RV tourist (Hardy & Gretzel, 2011). The lifestyle of freedom and the opportunity to change travel plans on a whim is growing. Guinn (1980) also identified similar motivations to tourists and sport tourists. Physical exercise was one motive that was important for those interested in sports and outdoor activities, but not necessarily important for all older RV tourists. Two other areas Guinn (1980) found significant motivations were rest and relaxation and accomplishment or self-fulfillment. These motivations align with those previously discussed for the sport tourist.

Business of College Sports

Motivations.

Another attraction for fans of collegiate football games is the pre-game activities, specifically tailgating. The tradition of tailgating occurs before the sporting event and is not limited to just football (James, Breezeel, & Ross, 2001). The game day experience for fans varies from just attending the tailgate before the game to those who arrive via RV for a complete weekend experience.

The tailgating experience has become a tradition for college football and many other collegiate and professional sports. Tailgating can be described as a ritual before sporting events that involves specific behaviors (i.e., eating, drinking, socializing) and are repeated for each sporting event (Drenten, et al., 2009). Some athletic departments have

capitalized on the popularity of the tailgating experience and now provide parking lots available for tailgaters as well as other designated areas on campus. Universities and athletic departments offer game day parking at a premium for season ticket holders. Several schools also offer RV parking onsite, which allows those to park the RV on campus for the weekend, but at a price. However, not all schools provide RV parking opportunities for fans of the visiting team. The RV takes up more space than the typical automobile and while the parking fee charged might be more, the university could stand to make additional revenue if only automobile parking was allowed.

Kerstetter, Stansfield, Dombroski, Bae, Usher, and McKinney (2012) found seven themes from the tailgating experience. These themes include togetherness, fun, food, drinking, school pride, tradition and football (Kerstetter et al., 2012). Many of these themes relate to fan motivation and the reasons people are fans of a specific team and attend events. James et al. (2001) found that most fans either tailgated at 1-2 events per season or all of the events within the season. In addition, James et al. (2001) showed that about a third of fans travel to away games to tailgate. They suggest that fans find tailgating more important than supporting their favorite team (James et al., 2001). The individuals engaging in pre-game activities in the designated RV areas are involved in a different game day experience than those who traditionally tailgate from tents and vehicles.

An individual with a loyalty to a brand will more likely purchase and consume that brand alone. This can be transferred to sports as well. Those who show a sense of loyalty to a specific sports team or organization will also consume that product and may

do so at a higher level (Mahony, Madrigal, & Howard, 2000). However, consumption of sport alone or ticket sales will not necessarily identify an individual as loyal—they must also “display a strong, positive attitude toward a specific brand” (Mahony et al., 2000, p. 16). For example, sport fans may regularly participate in pre-game activities such as tailgating, but the loyal fan will arrive via RV that was specifically purchased for attending and experiencing college football in an elevated and new way. When an individual chooses to purchase and utilize an RV for game day festivities, the motivations of family, social interaction and escape among others create an opportunity for friends and family to socialize, eat and drink, talk about the team and attend the game as a group.

Several studies have revealed the motives for individuals to consume sport (Trail & James, 2001; Trail, Robinson, Dick, & Gillentine, 2003; Wann, 1995; Wann & Ensor, 1999). These motivations include (1) social interaction, (2) family, (3) escape, (4) eustress, (5) group affiliation, (6) entertainment, (7) self-esteem, (8) knowledge, (9) social, (10) economic, and (11) aesthetics. These traits are important to get individuals to purchase season tickets, attend games and participate in other related game day activities. A description of each motivation is included below.

1. Social Interaction: Interaction with others in the group, sitting near during an event or just the chance to socialize with others (Trail & James, 2001)
2. Family: spend time with family, it is important to tailgate as a family and experience time together (James, Breezeel, & Ross, 2001; Wann, 1995)
3. Escape: removal from daily activities or a change in daily routine, break from normal schedule (James, Breezeel, & Ross, 2001; Wann, 1995)

4. Eustress: the senses of an individual are stimulated and excited (Wann, 1995)
5. Group affiliation: the need to be a part of the group, avoid loneliness or alienation (Wann, 1995)
6. Entertainment: seen as a pastime, does not require actual skill unlike being an athlete (Wann, 1995)
7. Self-esteem: feeling of triumph or success, especially when their team is successful/wins, fans will expand their connection with the team when it wins (Wann, 1995)
8. Knowledge: keeping up with the statistics (i.e., scores) of a team or athlete (Trail & James, 2001)
9. Social: spend time with friends, especially those who may live far away and do not see often (James, Breezeel, & Ross, 2001)
10. Economic: the chance to gamble or place wagers on an event (Wann, 1995)
11. Aesthetics: the beauty of the game or athlete (Trail & James, 2001; Wann, 1995)
12. Game Attractiveness: events, status or something that draws an individual to watch the game (Schofield, 1983; Wann & Waddill, 2003).

Ticketing.

Ticket sales alone account for roughly a third of all revenues for Division I FBS college athletic departments (Fulks, 2012; Howard & Crompton, 2004). Conference revenue distributions and donations comprise the majority of the rest of athletic revenues. Most FBS athletic departments run a deficit each fiscal year and struggle to keep up with the “arms race” of college athletics and facilities upgrades (Fulks, 2012; Humphreys &

Mondello, 2007). Colleges and universities are usually considered non-profit and are not necessarily encouraged or required to show a profit or surplus (Borland, Goff, & Pulsinelli, 1992). Since ticket sales account for such a large portion of revenues, it is important to note and be aware of economic downturns and other factors that may cause individuals to not purchase season or single game tickets (Howard & Crompton, 2004). When this happens, it is up to the athletic department to find other ways to sell season and single game tickets.

Due to the uncertainty of the economy and the need to sell as many tickets and season ticket packages as possible, athletic departments must determine the best price for each game to maximize the number of tickets sold. Ticket offices rely on three variables to determine the differential pricing for games: time, quality and place. The timing within the season can be crucial to the amount someone is willing to pay for a ticket. Non-conference contests are typically held earlier in the season compared to conference and rivalry matchups. The quality of the opponent allows the institution to set a higher, premium price due to the demand to see the contest versus that of a perceived lower opponent. For example, many athletic departments offer package deals for a small number of games versus the entire season. This option allows those with a smaller budget to still attend a few games and be part of the game day experience. Finally, the place within the stadium places an integral part in the price of the ticket. Seats located on the 50-yard line will be more expensive than those on the end zone or goal line (Howard & Crompton, 2004).

Donations.

Athletic departments as well as colleges and universities rely heavily on donations, in addition to state funds for public schools, to fund academic and athletic programs. However, despite a large alumni population, several factors can affect the amount and rate of donations by alumni and other organizations (Humphreys & Mondello, 2007; Tom & Elmer, 1994). The current economy, tax laws and even the social class of a particular alumni can and often does affect how often and how much to donate back to the university (Tom & Elmer, 1994). It is important to note that athletic donations have increased at a higher rate than academic donations (Humphreys & Mondello, 2007).

Several motivations have been identified for donors to give back to the university, particularly the athletics department. In Gladden, Mahony and Apostolopoulou (2005), the authors discussed previous studies and instruments created to examine motivations of donors. Motivations include (1) philanthropy, (2) social, (3) success, (4) benefits, (5) curiosity, (6) power, (7) participation in additional events, (8) public recognition, (9) giving of time and resources, (10) access to inside information, (11) collaboration, (12) create and (13) change (Gladden, Mahony, Apostolopoulou, 2005). The above mentioned motivations are described below:

1. Philanthropy: giving to provide academic scholarships (Billing, Holt, & Smith, 1985; Staurowsky, Parkhouse, Sachs, 1996; Verner, Hecht, & Fansler, 1998)
2. Social: giving to have the opportunity to attend athletic events with friends and family (Billing et al., 1985; Staurowsky et al., 1996)

3. Success: specifically of the athletic department and teams (Billing et al., 1985; Staurowsky et al., 1996)
4. Benefits: access to parking, tickets and priority points not available to non-donors (Billing et al., 1985; Staurowsky et al., 1996; Verner et al., 1998)
5. Curiosity: the need to feel involved in the decision making of the athletic department (Staurowsky et al., 1996; Verner et al., 1998)
6. Power: donating to have influence to over the decisions made by athletic departments (Staurowsky et al., 1996; Verner et al., 1998)
7. Participation in additional events: invitation to donor-only events (Verner et al., 1998)
8. Public recognition: the athletic department provides public recognition of the donor (Verner et al., 1998)
9. Giving of time and resources: the wish to provide a monetary donation to the organization (Verner et al., 1998)
10. Access to inside information: the need and want for information available only to donors (Verner et al., 1998)
11. Collaboration: working with other donors and the athletic department to a desired outcome (Verner et al., 1998)
12. Create: plans to bring something new and unique to the athletic department (Verner et al., 1998)
13. Change: to develop or make modifications to the athletic department (Verner et al., 1998)

The athletic success or failure of a collegiate athletic team can affect the types and amount of donations by alumni and other organizations. Athletic success can have both direct and indirect benefits to the university and athletic department (Goff, 2000; Humphreys & Mondello, 2007). Increased game attendance which leads to more revenue through ticket sales and more concession dollars are all direct benefits to the athletic department when the athletic teams are successful, specifically football and men's basketball (Humphreys & Mondello, 2007). It is important to note that bowl game appearances and success in football as well as success in men's basketball affects the donations for public institutions whereas only basketball affects donations toward private institutions (Humphreys & Mondello, 2007). In addition, the athletic teams will have more games televised and the opportunity for post season increases, as the team is continuously successful. The previously mentioned direct benefits also contribute to the indirect benefits of a successful athletic department. The university often sees additional applications for enrollment due to the image and exposure created through television broadcasts of the contests. Finally, the success of the athletics department gives donors a reason to invest in the university as well as the athletic department; therefore donations increase (Humphreys & Mondello, 2007).

Humphreys and Mondello (2007) also discuss the two types of gifts given by donors to the university: restricted and unrestricted. Unrestricted gifts are as they sound, they have no limitations or requirements by the donor. However, restricted gifts have some sort of restriction or designation. Donors want to ensure their money is being used in their specific area of interest and many alumni associate with their university through

athletics. For example, gifts might include a stipulation that a percentage or a specific amount of the gift be designated toward the athletic program. Humphreys and Mondello (2007) state “in 1999, about 22 cents out of each dollar of restricted donations were earmarked for the athletic department” (p. 274). Restricted gifts are often not hindered by changes in the economy or the income of the donor whereas unrestricted gifts are more likely to change based on changes in the donor’s financial status (Humphreys & Mondello, 2007). Successful alumni who choose to give back to the university often choose athletics to position themselves for better ticketing options, naming rights and the opportunity to support and showcase athletics. The location of prime tickets for football and basketball often hinge on the amount donated to athletics, which could explain the reason most restricted donations have a percentage earmarked for athletics.

Other revenue.

In addition to the sale of the ticket, athletic departments are relying on fans to purchase merchandise, souvenirs, parking and concessions while at the game. While concessions and other extra expenses the day of the game may not account for the same large percentage as ticket sales, it is important nonetheless. Without a sold ticket, all the potential revenue of these add-ons would be lost. In college athletics, athletic departments often employ differential pricing, specifically for conference opponents versus non-conference opponent (Howard & Crompton, 2004).

Destination Image

Destination image plays a major factor in a tourist’s decision to visit a new location. Many factors affect someone to travel or not to travel to a new location. To

begin, one must define or determine what is meant when one hears the term destination image. Destination image has been defined in a number of ways, but all definitions have some aspects in common (Baloglu & McCleary, 1999; Beerli & Martín, 2004; Beerli & Martín, 2004; Chalip & Costa, 2005; Chen & Tsai, 2007; Chon, 1990; Gallarza, Saura, & García, 2002; Tasci & Gartner, 2007). Chon (1990) defines image in two ways, first, as the “set of meanings by which an object is known and through which people describe, remember and relate to it” and second, as the “net results of the interaction of a person’s beliefs, ideas, feelings, expectations and impressions about an object” (p. 4). Each individual will create a different, unique image of a specific location, destination or event based on individual past experiences and one’s own personality.

Gallarza et al (2002) conducted a review of previous literature on destination image and included the definition of destination image utilized in each study. All definitions have one thing in common: the image is a product created by the individual based on previous experiences and ideas of a destination. While tourism organizations hope for favorable impressions, this is not always the case. Individuals may form a negative perception or image of a particular location due to word-of-mouth from family and friends or previous experiences in the city or region. Cities, regions and tourism organizations need to keep in mind that the “projected image is not always the same as the perceived image” (Tasci & Gartner, 2007, p. 414).

The image or perception of the destination, or sporting event, will weigh in when an individual is making the decision to explore, book and travel to the destination (Chon, 1990). Various authors discuss the stages and decision process an individual might go

through before making the decision to travel to a specific location or not (Chen & Tsai, 2007; Chon, 1990; Tasci & Gartner, 2007).

Decision to travel.

Chon (1990) discussed two different processes an individual may go through when deciding to travel to a destination for the first time or to return in the future. The first model, originally developed by Clawson and Knetsch (1966), included five stages while the second model by Gunn (1989) consisted of seven stages. Chon (1990) suggested that the first three stages of Gunn's model were related to and could be included in the first stage of Clawson and Knetsch's model, which is anticipation. The anticipation phase would include the planning stages as well as just thinking about the different aspects of the trip including any pictures one might have mentally collected while doing research for the trip. The next major stage of travel behavior is the actual travel to the sight or destination. Participation in any planned or unplanned activities is the next stage. The last two stages consist of returning home from the trip and finally reassessing the destination. In the last phase, individuals will remember all the experiences and sites seen while at the destination and will form a new opinion or perceived image of the destination (Chon, 1990).

Baloglu and McCleary (1999) discuss both stimulus and personal factors as major components of image formation. Psychological and social factors (i.e., age, values, motivations) determine the personal factors while stimulus factors include previous experiences and various information sources (Baloglu & McCleary, 1999). In addition to the image formation factors, other influences existed when determining the image of the

destination for those individuals who have not previously visited the destination. These include information sources, motivations and sociodemographics of the individuals (Baloglu & McCleary, 1999). These three influences can be lumped into the previously mentioned factors of stimulus and personal.

Different variables can influence or discourage a destination's image as well as the intention and ability to travel. Baloglu and McCleary (1999) discuss demographics as a variable in destination image. Demographics can include age, education, marital status, gender, and career can all impact the images and perceptions an individual forms toward a destination. However, after a discussion of studies by Balaglu (1997), Stern and Krakover (1993), Husbands (1989), and Baloglu and McCleary (1999) determined that both age and education were the most instrumental demographics when determining destination image and travel intentions. The overall image of a destination consists of two components: perceptual/cognitive and affective. Affective implies the individual's feelings about something (i.e., destination) and perceptual/cognitive is the understanding and beliefs about it (Baloglu & McCleary, 1999).

A source of information is another area individuals can utilize to learn more about a destination and form the overall perception and image before ever visiting the location. These sources can influence the decision to travel as well as the image of the destination. Organic images are those that are gathered by the individual from online searches, news reports of a given area, word-of-mouth and books and stories where the destination is the location within the story while induced images are those that are produced and promoted by a city, region or tourism organization (Baloglu & McCleary, 1999; Chon, 1990; Tasci

& Gartner, 2007). Chon (1990) writes that an organic image can rarely be changed, but with determination and influence, an induced image has the potential to be modified over time. Tasci and Gartner (2007) suggest a third level or type of image exists: the complex image. The complex image is image created by the individual once the actual visit has occurred and it more representative than the previous perceived image of the destination.

Motivations to travel.

Motivations are established as a “central concept in understanding tourism behavior and the destination choice process” (Baloglu & McCleary, 1999, pp. 874–875). The images formed before, during and after a visit are directly formed by the different motivations of the individual tourist. Crompton (1979) argues that many variables exist to describe tourist behavior, motivations are a critical one in that it is “the impelling and compelling force behind all behavior” (p. 409). Yoon and Uysal (2005) look further into the motivations of travel and based on previous literature describes the “push” and “pull” nature of individual making travel decisions. There is the push to make a decision based on internal forces (i.e., instincts) and opposite that is the pull of the destination as an external force (i.e., beliefs). Their study looked at destination loyalty and the satisfaction of the travel experience for the individual to return to the destination. Gibson (2005b) also discussed the “push” and “pull” and explained that the “push” factors might be deemed more imperative to meet the needs of the individual.

Crompton’s (1979) study over motivations revealed two types of motives: socio-psychological and cultural. The socio-psychological motives explained the overall satisfactions and benefits derived from the vacation and these would be present regardless

of destination chosen. Escape is the temporary change in environment away from an individual's normal life and surroundings. People are busy or want to avoid a potentially busy time in their home city and choose a pleasure vacation to "get away from it all" even for a brief period of time. Exploration and/or evaluation of self allow an individual the opportunity to reassess decisions and potentially discovering something new about themselves. Sometimes a new environment provides the perfect backdrop for a self-evaluation and eventual change. Relaxation in this study equated to taking time to engage in activities of interest to the individual and not necessarily to just relax and do nothing (Crompton, 1979).

Prestige was a motive briefly discussed in Crompton's (1979) study and insisted that perhaps prestige for a destination or to travel decreases as more experience travel. This particular article is dated and in the years since published, more individuals vacation. Taking a vacation is no longer only for those individuals with higher incomes (Crompton, 1979). Regression, another motive, provides individuals the opportunity to participate in activities that they might otherwise not participate due to the structure of their daily life. For example, one might have fun or do something more in line with the nature of a child versus an adult. Some just feel more freedom to do whatever they would like while on vacation where that is not possible at home. The enhancement of kinship relationships is the next motive and involves strengthening the family relationships. The opportunity of travel creates opportunities for family members to spend large amounts of time together. Social interaction is the final motive under socio-psychological

motivations. While some individuals choose to take a vacation to “get away from it all” others want to engage social activities to meet others (Crompton, 1979).

The second type of motivation is cultural and include novelty and education (Crompton, 1979). Traveling to a new place and gaining a new experience is the novelty, not necessarily learning something new. Individuals often research a destination and gain knowledge about the location and various activities before traveling to the sight. The idea of creating new experiences and seeing novel sights causes individuals to choose a new destination for the next vacation (Crompton, 1979). Education is the final aspect of cultural motivations. Some people choose a destination based on the educational experience that can be provided to all members of the group. When on vacation, individuals often seek out places that “ought” to be seen while visiting the area (Crompton, 1979, p. 421).

Chen & Funk (2010) said it best with “sport events play an important role in leveraging tourism for the host destination” (p. 239). Sport tourism is a mix of both sports and tourism, instead of just attributes from one or the other or even an unbalanced approach of sports and tourism (Chen & Funk, 2010). Destination image is an important piece to tourism. It is critical that tourists see the location as an attractable destination. The attractiveness of a destination can be changed or enhanced when a sporting event is located within the city or region. An example might be a national park or other high profile attraction close to a local college or university. The University of Florida is less than two hours from Orlando, a popular tourist destination. Individuals who travel to

college football games, especially those with an RV, might be more inclined to stay longer and travel to nearby destinations before or after attending a college football game.

Psychosocial Aspects of Travel

The actual “experience” of any sporting event is important to the sport tourist. Motivations for an individual to travel to a specific sporting event can vary greatly depending on age, life status, income and many additional factors. Typically, an individual who plans to attend a sporting event has at least some interest in the sport. Kurtzman and Zauhar (2005) have identified several motivations for individuals to travel and participate or watch sports. Sports create a special environment, dubbed “magical environment” by Kurtzman and Zauhar (2005, p. 21) where the spectator finds a different set of traditions, rules, and superstitions related to sport. Even on college campuses, the quarterback or other star player become heroes and role models to the general student population, alumni and community members. College sports, particularly football is riddled with traditions that vary from school to school (Dionisio, Leal & Moutinho, 2008). These could include standing the entire football game to singing a specific song during designated times within the game.

The individuals involved with sport and sport tourism include the spectators, the workers within the sport organization and finally the participants regardless of the skill level (Hinch & Higham, 2005; Kurtzman & Zauhar, 2005). The spectator “identifies him or herself to the activity with great emotion and personal commitment” (Kurtzman & Zauhar, 2005, p. 22; Sutton, McDonald, Milne, & Cimperman, 1997). Alumni and individuals who follow college sports teams are extremely passionate about their team

and the success of the season. Technologies today allow spectators to plan, follow, and support their team even when they are not in the stadium (Kurtzman & Zauhar, 2005). Another type of sport tourist are those who work directly and even indirectly with the team. Media, equipment managers, student volunteers and many others are important and vital assets to the success of an away game trip. Depending on the role of the worker, this individual may have opportunities for additional tourism activities while traveling for the sporting event or with the sport group. Finally, the participants have a different reason and motivation for travel. Whether they are an elite athlete and competing for a college or professional team or the individual who is planning a golf vacation, the participant is an important piece to the sport tourism puzzle. The primary purpose or motivation for this individual is the competition itself (Kurtzman & Zauhar, 2005). Each of these three types of individuals are important to the sport as well as sport tourism. All are needed because if there is no participant, there would be no spectator or worker.

In Kurtzman and Zauhar's (2005) article, they discuss how Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs applies to sport tourism. Traditionally, the progression through the needs is vertical, but in relation to sport tourism, these needs should be viewed horizontally instead since no individual need takes priority over another. Fifteen different needs were identified for sport tourists to include "achievement, independence, exhibition, recognition, dominance, affiliation, nurturance, surcurrence, sexuality, stimulation, diversion, novelty, understanding, consistency and security" (Kurtzman & Zauhar, 2005, p. 22). Each of these 15 needs can individually, selectively or collectively influence the experience of the sport tourist. Sport tourists come in all shapes, sizes and life stages. In

addition, sport tourists possess different motivations for consuming sport. As a sport tourist progresses through various life stages, the intention and motivations for travel will change (Kurtzman & Zauhar, 2005; Van Acker, Van Wee, & Witlox, 2010). Money, responsibilities, and time off can all contribute to the increase or lack of sport travel. Van Acker et al. (2010) also suggest that basic needs must be met and once met, will determine the likelihood an individual will participate in activities. Needs vary and change for each sport tourist and the three components—attitude, subjective norms and perceived behavioral control—of TPB can influence how an individual progresses through the hierarchy of needs.

Motivations.

Motivation plays a key role in a person's decision to travel or not to a sporting event. As an individual is driven to meet and fulfill their needs, they must decide what is important to them in order to reach the end goal of need fulfillment. For the sport tourist, the “degree of consumer values dictate goals and strategies for reaching desired leisure pursuits” (Kurtzman & Zauhar, 2005, p. 24). There are several types of sports consumers, which will lead to a different sport travel experience for each. The social consumer is not as interested in the event, but finds the socialization aspect of the event or location and the primary need to travel. College football fans often tailgate before the game. Many of these tailgaters do not have a ticket to attend the game, but prefer the socialization that occurs before and after the game to the game itself. The sport tourist who appreciates the athletic ability of the participants and enjoys comparing the different contests could be identified as an intellectual consumer. This person might enjoy different snowboarding or

skiing contests at the Winter X Games. The opportunity to meet a famous athlete or compete at a private golf course is highly valued among many sports fans. The politically oriented sport consumer strives on the chance to attend a private party or meeting where a famous athlete may be in attendance. Consumers who are concerned about budget, the economical consumer, but still want a great experience might choose an all-inclusive resort that includes sporting events, lessons and other luxury amenities. The final type of consumer is the complementary consumer. This individual may express a combination of the previously mentioned consumer types, but the focus is still travel for sports (Kurtzman & Zauhar, 2005).

Two distinct personality types, while each are on the extreme end of the scale, describe the sport tourist. While the majority of individuals fall someplace in the middle of the scale, the extreme personalities are allocentric and psychocentric (Kurtzman & Zauhar, 2005). Allocentric would describe the fan as adventurous, a frequent traveler, spends more while traveling and self-confident. The RV traveler might identify closer to the allocentric end of the spectrum due to the unique lifestyle afforded to those who own and travel via RV's. On the other hand, the psychocentric traveler is less confident, does not travel as often, chooses safe and well-known locations and tend to spend less on their travels (Kurtzman & Zauhar, 2005).

Each sport tourist will experience the game, event or destination in a different and unique way. Just as each sport tourist plays a different role—spectator, worker or participant—they are also a consumer of sport and the destination (Burgan & Mules, 1992; Hinch & Higham, 2005; Kurtzman & Zauhar, 2005). Three types of sport tourists,

or consumers, are present. First, you have the true fan that is loyal to the team and wants to be accepted by the group and values the social interaction with family and friends.

When traveling to away games or any other sport destination site, the consumer does not want to encounter the detached or aggressive sport tourist. These two types of consumers tend to disregard the rules, use profanity toward players and spectators or cause disruption during the event (Kurtzman & Zauhar, 2005).

Attitudes for sport tourist consumers can be described with feeling, doing and owning (Kurtzman & Zauhar, 2005). Alumni associate their feelings from past experiences as a student and possible successes by the team as a reason to return to the institution. The nostalgia of the past and possibilities for future success drives sport tourists to attend events and create new experiences (Gibson, 1998, 2004; Gordon, 2013). The doing sport tourist wants to be involved with the organization to as much of a degree as possible. Wealthy alumni and letterman find ways to be involved in game day experiences to stay connected to the team.

Several factors exist when looking at motivations for travel among sport tourists. These factors are physical, interpersonal, status and cultural (Kurtzman & Zauhar, 2005). The physical motivator would include the physical act of doing sport or the fitness area while interpersonal includes the social aspect of travel within sport. One feature of sport related travel, particularly those who travel with an RV, enjoy the social aspects and interactions with other tourists (Green, 1978). Individuals who are interested in traditions, nostalgia, halls of fame, sport venues fall under the cultural motivations. These tourists are also more likely to visit other cultural or historical sites in the local area (Chang,

Gibson, & Sisson, 2013). Finally status is linked to the high profile athletes, destinations and events. An example of status might be the Super Bowl as it is an expensive event to attend.

Repeat travel.

Finally, for a sport tourist to choose to travel initially and then again for repeat future travel, four steps are highlighted by Kurtzman and Zauhar (2005) to include some, all or a combination of them all. These steps are awareness, interest, desire and action. Awareness provides the sport tourist with information on the destination as well as associated expenses and activities. The next step is interest which will develop after the consumer has an opportunity to research and learn more about the destination. The desire to actually travel to and experience the event and/or location is next. Finally, action is the last step where the sport consumer makes the decision as to whether or not travel to the destination will occur.

Psychosocial Aspects of Sport Tourists

Several factors will play a role in determining the motivations behind the RV sports tourist. As discussed in detail in the previous section, several psychosocial aspects of sport tourism will be utilized to answer the research questions within this study. The goal of this study is to add to the literature on RV tourism, specifically to determine what motivations are present in the RV sport tourist population at college football games within a major college football conference. Five different types of motivations or factors that recognize the types and personalities of sport tourists are identified Kurtzman and Zauhar (2005) article on consumer motivation.

Previous studies and survey instruments have been created to identify motivations or incentives to being a sport fan or to consume sport (Neale & Funk, 2005; Seo & Green, 2008; Wann & Wilson, 1999; Wann, 1995; Wann & Ensor, 1999; Wann, Fahl, Erdmann, & Littleton, 1999). Kurtzman and Zauhar (2005) have identified eight incentives to include exotic cuisine, genealogy, education, adventure, family visits, a different climate, escape from boredom and an opportunity to meet others of the opposite sex. Some of these same incentives are seen in Beerli and Martin's (2004) study of destination image.

Travel motives often are viewed through the consumer and their consumption habits. The type of consumer, specifically the sport consumer, is important to understand, especially with the target population of RV sport tourists. The various types of consumers can be present and will vary on individual motives for being a sport tourist. The types of consumers are the social, political, economic, intellectual and complementary (Kurtzman & Zauhar, 2005). The development of the Sport Fan Motivation Scale (Wann & Wilson, 1999; Wann, 1995; Wann & Ensor, 1999; Wann, Fahl, Erdmann, & Littleton, 1999), the Motivation Scale for Sport Online Consumption (Seo & Green, 2008) and the Sport Interest Inventory (Neale & Funk, 2005) all include some aspects of that describe the various consumers mentioned in Kurtzman and Zauhar (2005).

Three types of attitudes were described as part of consumer behavior by Kurtzman and Zauhar (2005). Feeling, doing and owning are the motives identified and used to describe the behavior of sport consumers. The feeling aspect could be related to cultural or even nostalgic as it allows the consumer to reflect on the past and the emotions

of those experiences are tied to the individual (Gibson, 1998, 2004; Gordon, 2013; Kurtzman & Zauhar, 2005). The doing consumer wants to be part of the action and will actively participate in whatever is available (Gibson, 1998, 2004; Kurtzman & Zauhar, 2005). The final attitude expressed by sport consumers is owning. This particular sport consumer prefers to stay in a luxurious destination or accommodation.

Factors that motivate sport travelers are physical, cultural, interpersonal and status or prestige (Kurtzman & Zauhar, 2005). Many of the areas within these four motives relate back to previous studies and survey instruments created to identify and determine motivations for sport consumption (Melnick & Wann, 2011; Wann, 1995; Wann & Ensor, 1999). Sport tourists can fit into more than one category, but one might emerge as the primary factor for that individual to be a sport tourist. The sport tourist who desires opportunities to participate in or be active would fall into the physical category. Cultural factors are evident in previous research and are also described as nostalgic (Gibson, 1998, 2004; Gordon, 2013). The emotional tie between an alumni and their alma mater creates a sense of nostalgia to the culture and traditions of the university and athletic teams. Socialization or interpersonal factors have shown to be an important reason sport tourists travel together, travel to sport events and even tailgate before a sporting event (Delaney, 2008; Nemec, 2011). The final factor identified was status and prestige. Sport tourists in this category look for opportunities to interact with elite athletes or position themselves to be in prominent areas during sporting events.

Destination image is the real or perceived image of a destination or location, whether good or bad (Beerli & Martín, 2004). Personal factors—social and

psychological—form the image of a destination or location (Baloglu & McCleary, 1999; Beerli & Martín, 2004). Baloglu and McCleary (1999) developed a model to determine the image formation process of a destination. Motivations and tourist personality can describe the psychological factors of destination image while age, marital status and even education can influence the social aspects.

Theory of Planned Behavior

Ajzen's (1985, 1991) Theory of Planned Behavior (TPB) set the foundation for this dissertation study (see Figure 1 in Appendix C). The TPB is a modification of the Theory of Reasoned Action (TRA) which has been widely used in behavioral research (Ajzen, 1985, 1987, 1989, 1991; Fishbein, 1967; Taylor & Todd, 1995). Under Fishbein's (1967) Theory of Reasoned Action, two of the three components of TRA are present: attitude and subjective norms. These two components were the basis for TPB with the addition of perceived behavioral control (Ajzen, 1991). Attitudes, or behavioral beliefs, expose the positive or negative attitude toward or about a specific behavior (Hrubes, Ajzen, & Daigle, 2001). In addition, the higher the intent to perform the behavior, the more likely the individual is to actually complete the behavior (Ajzen, 1991; Conner & Armitage, 1998; Cunningham & Kwon, 2003; Hrubes et al., 2001). TPB is utilized within this study to understand the motivations for attending sporting events (attitudes, subjective norms), traveling to the sporting events with a recreational vehicle (subjective norms and perceived behavioral control), and to determine how local travel and tourism entities can attract the area to the sport tourist (attitudes, subjective norms, perceived behavioral control).

The TPB is comprised of three behavioral components used “to predict the intentions to engage in a specific behavior” (McCullough, 2013, p. 148). These intentions will eventually predict the behavior or action of the individual (Conner & Armitage, 1998; McCullough & Cunningham, 2011; McCullough, 2013). The three components consist of attitudes, subjective norms and perceived behavioral control (PCB) (Ajzen, 1985, 1987, 1989, 1991; Cunningham & Kwon, 2003; Taylor & Todd, 1995).

McCullough (2013) summarized attitude well by calling it a cost-benefit to the individual. Particularly, comparing the execution of a specific behavior (cost) to the possible outcome (benefit) which would determine if it is ‘worth it’ for the individual to complete the action. An example might be the fan that is hesitant to attend the game since the team has not been as successful as of late. The individual might wonder if the time spent traveling to, attending the game, and traveling home might be better spent on some other activity.

Social norms suggest that outside influences play a role in one’s decision of whether or not to perform the behavior (Ajzen, 1985, 1991; McCullough, 2013). In contrast to attitudes, subjective norms is the pressure from outside sources to engage or not engage in a behavior (Ajzen, 1985, 1991; McCullough, 2013). As the intent of an individual to perform a behavior increases and societal norms become more favorable, the individual is more likely to perform the behavior (Ajzen, 1991; McCullough, 2013; McCullough & Cunningham, 2011). Individuals who enjoy the RV experience at sporting events might choose to eventually purchase an RV of their own in order to have the opportunity to create their own experiences in the future. Friends, family and other

acquaintances might convince individuals that owning and tailgating with an RV is the best way to enjoy the sport event experience. This outside influence and pressure might cause individuals to purchase the RV lifestyle regardless if it is suitable for the individual or not.

The last piece to TPB is perceived behavioral control (PCB). Ajzen (1991) refers to PCB as the “perceived ease or difficulty of performing the behavior” (p. 188). In addition to the perception by the individual of the current behavior, the individual may factor in previous experiences in the decision (Bamberg, Ajzen, & Schmidt, 2003; Cunningham & Kwon, 2003). Taylor and Todd (1995) add that PCB accounts for instances where the individual does not have complete control over the situation. The PCB piece of TPB consists of two components: facilitating conditions and self-efficacy (Ajzen, 1991; Taylor & Todd, 1995). This component might be critical to the RV-goer since the “availability of resources needed to engage in a behavior” (Taylor & Todd, 1995, p. 139) is critical since the expenditure of the RV, RV experience and associated expenses can be costly. Secondly, self-efficacy is an individual’s certainty in the ability to execute the behavior (Taylor & Todd, 1995). While attitude and subjective norms reflect perceived abilities, PCB is about the actual ability to engage in the behavior or activity and if an individual believes he/she can do it, then he/she is more apt to do so (McCullough & Cunningham, 2011; Taylor & Todd, 1995).

The TPB has been used in a variety of fields including sport. For example, McCullough (2013) utilized TPB to understand recycling behavior among sport fans and spectators as well as in a study on sport spectator’s behavior at youth sporting events

(McCullough & Cunningham, 2011). Cunningham and Kwon (2003) looked at the intentions of individuals to attend a sporting event, specifically a hockey game. This theory was utilized studying the intentions of becoming a head coach by looking at current (at the time of study) male and female assistant coaches (Sagas, Cunningham, & Pastore, 2006). Sport and TPB are not limited to spectator sports; Hrubes, Ajzen and Daigle (2001) examined the intentions of hunters to find that hunting was more than a means to provide food, but it provided “opportunities to actualize a variety of social, psychological, emotional, and physical benefits” (Hrubes et al., 2001, p. 165). Hrubes et al. (2001) also looked at the choice of travel (RV) to sporting events, and Bamber, Ajzen, and Schmidt (2003) used TPB to assess the travel mode chosen among travelers based on previous experiences.

Chapter 3 Materials and Methods

Survey Research

Survey research can be described as “the methods for identifying a set of observations from a population and making inferences about the population from those observations” (Brick, 2011, p. 873). This can be accomplished by asking participants a series of questions and analyzing the answers (Fowler, 2014). The goal of survey research is to collect information from a group of people and have the ability to generalize that information to a larger population. Various methods can be employed to administer surveys including mail, telephone, internet and in person. The response rates from each will vary as will the costs and time associated with each delivery method. Choosing to utilize a survey over an interview for a specific study will be determined by the research questions and goals of the particular study.

Advantages of survey research.

Several advantages as well as disadvantages exist when conducting survey research. A survey might be more beneficial in specific studies because the questions asked are more structured and consistent for all participants (Fowler, 2014). Most, if not all, questions will have a scale or some type of range of responses for the participant whereas an interview will ask open-ended questions and the participant is free to answer how they choose. Another advantage to survey research is that responses are easy to group and categorize within the sample. Participants, especially those in targeted populations, may be more willing to participate by survey since it is confidential and potentially anonymous. Also, they can take the time needed to read through the questions

and answer accordingly (Cooper & Schindler, 2003). The survey will take less time than an interview and this may also entice individuals to participate in the study. Data can easily be subdivided based on age, income, and how the participant responds to specific questions. After collecting data from a survey instrument, regardless of survey type collected (i.e., mail, telephone, internet), data entry and coding is less time consuming than that associated with qualitative research. Surveys are a time and cost effective way to collect data about a population. A survey can be administered in a few days or weeks and reach hundreds or thousands of potential participants whereas qualitative interviews may take weeks to find participants, conduct interviews, transcribe and evaluate the data.

Disadvantages to survey research.

As with all data collections methods, there are negatives associated with each. Quantitative research may not give the researcher the opportunity to capture everything compared to a qualitative interview or observation. The respondent may have questions, but feels uncomfortable asking and therefore may either choose what they feel is the best guess or even add their own responses. Another downside to using survey research is that the participant may not be able to understand the questions within the instrument because either the wording is confusing or the wording may simply be above the participants reading level. Low response rates can be a problem with surveys, especially those that are conducted via mail, telephone or internet (Krosnick, 1999). If a survey is mailed, potential participants may forget to complete and send it back to the researcher. Those contacted via telephone may either hang up, choose not to answer the phone or refuse to participate. Internet surveys can be administered for very little money and can easily

target a large group of individuals. However, getting the survey out to the target group could prove difficult if email addresses are unobtainable or no longer valid. Another problem with each of these is getting the survey to the right individual that fits the study. Anyone within a household may end up answering the telephone or responding to a mail or internet survey regardless if they were the target audience or not.

Nonprobability sampling.

Probability sampling provides an opportunity for the researcher to select a sample that is representative of the entire population being studied (Colton & Covert, 2007; Cooper & Schindler, 2003). Potential participants “must have a known chance of selection set by the sampling procedure” (Fowler, 2014, p. 14). Results from probability sampling have the ability to be generalized over a large group of people. Time and resources often prevent any researcher from being able to query an entire population and instead might employ nonprobability sampling to look at a specific group of individuals from the overall population. Nonprobability sampling is not random with not all members of a population have an equal opportunity to be selected when compared to random sampling (Colton & Covert, 2007; Cooper & Schindler, 2003). For example, a researcher could survey all football fans that have a ticket to a college football game as they enter the stadium. If this occurred at only one entrance to the stadium, it may not create a representative sample of the population of those in attendance. There are four types of nonprobability sampling: purposive, convenience, intercept and volunteer.

Purposive sampling.

Purposive sampling might be the most desirable out of all areas of nonprobability sampling in that it targets potential participants who might be most relevant to the study or issue being researched (Colton & Covert, 2007). For example, administering a survey instrument to college football fans that travel to and tailgate at college football games via RV. Several types of purposive sampling exist: quota sampling, snowball sampling, expert sampling, modal instance sampling and heterogeneity sampling. Snowball sampling allows the researcher to gather a small number of participants at the beginning, but then gains more and more because the participant is asked to share or recommend participation to those they know, thus adding to the sample. Quota sampling is as it sounds, the researcher has a set number of respondents to obtain before analyzing the data. Gathering a sample of experts in a specific area is expert sampling and heterogeneity sampling is gathering the most diverse sample as possible.

Intercept sampling.

Intercept sampling calls for the researcher to approach the first potential participant and solicit participation (Miller, Wilder, Stillman, & Becker, 1997). Sample criteria are determined ahead of time and only those that appear to meet the specified criteria are approached (Cooper & Schindler, 2003). In addition to specific criteria for participants, specific instructions are set for the location and number of desired participants, or quotas (Hornik & Ellis, 1988). Examples of locations might include a mall where all major entrances have a stationed researcher or a specific neighborhood or in sport, those that are in a specific tailgate area or gate entrance.

Despite the accessibility of nonprobability sampling, there are some issues to be aware of while using this type of sampling. The generalizability of your results will not be as easy since you cannot be certain you have a representative sample of the entire population. Another thing to consider is how the survey is administered. Surveys that are self-administered could be problematic, especially if they are online or mail in as participants could complete the survey more than once, which could alter your results (Colton & Covert, 2007). Self-administration allows the researcher to give a copy of the instrument to the potential participant and they have opportunity to participate. Written survey instruments that contain lengthy questions or multiple questions designed to test a specific factor can be easier for participants given the complexity of the instrument. Some participants may be hesitant to share personal or sensitive information to the researcher, but can achieve confidentiality and potentially anonymity by completing a paper or online survey versus an interview (Fowler, 2014). While the self-administered survey gives the participant the freedom to answer, if there are too many open-ended questions or if the participant is not on par with the reading level of the instrument, you could collect inaccurate results.

Overall, utilizing nonprobability sampling can be an easy way to gather a sample for a study. However, when specific, unique populations are needed for a study, it can be beneficial to choose nonprobability sampling. For example, in the present study, purposive sampling along with intercept sampling was utilized to specifically look at those who travel to college football games via RV. Both are used because the researcher will walk through the RV parking areas and solicit individuals to be participants in the

study. In addition to the person driving the RV, all those who were considered part of the tailgate group were included in the population as they were also embracing and participating in the college football game day and RV experience. The present study did not aim to look at the general tailgating population or those simply attending the football game, but the experience of the RV tailgater.

Materials

Instrument.

The survey instrumentation design stemmed from several existing survey questionnaires as none was able to completely answer all the questions for this study. The Sport Fan Motivation Scale (SFMS) developed by Daniel L. Wann (1995), the Motivation Scale for Sports Consumption (MSSC) (Trail & James, 2001) and Schofield's (1983) study was used to add the fan motivation portion of the scale. The motivations within the existing scales work well with the TPB. Positive or negative attitudes may be expressed how fans perceive the team's achievement or the entertainment value of the sporting event. The decision to travel to the sporting event with a RV and participate in game day tailgating activities is an example of subjective norms. Finally perceived behavioral control might be expressed in the RV tailgater's ability to engage in the RV tailgating experience.

The factors identified within these two scales are eustress, escape, self-esteem, group affiliation, family, entertainment, knowledge, social and game attractiveness (Trail & James, 2001; Schofield, 1983; Wann, 1995). Eustress is a type of positive stress and often invigorates the individual (Wann, 1995; Wann et al., 1999). In a sport setting, the

experiences of winning and engaging with friends and family create this “good” stress in fans and individuals. Fans—students, casual fans and alumni—are often busy with school, work, family and life and enjoy the opportunity to escape for a college football game with their peers. This escape provides the individual to let go of the everyday stresses (Wann, 1995; Wann, Schrader, & Wilson, 1999). People want to see their team win in sports. When the team is successful, the self-esteem of the individual increases (Wann, 1995). Entertainment is a factor related to sports consumption. The sport industry is in the business of entertaining consumers. The experience of attending a sporting event provides entertainment for the spectator (Trail & James, 2001). Knowledge is important to the sport consumer. This aspect shows that the individual is aware of sports and continues to learn and follow sports. This individual is diligent in knowing how his or her favorite team and players are doing each game throughout the season. The statistics of the player and team are important to the individual.

Group affiliation, family and social are closely related in that they involve time spent with other individuals with similar interests—in this case, those who travel to experience college football, tailgating and the RV experience. Group affiliation allows fans of any team—whether they know one another or not—to instantly have a common bond of cheering for that team. The need to feel like one belongs to the group is important and a convincing motivation to participate in game day activities (Wann, 1995). Family is closely related to group affiliation as many individuals travel to and attend college sporting events as a family (Wann, 1995; Wann, Schrader, et al., 1999). Often times, students and their alumni parents attend games and tailgating activities as a

family and it becomes part of the game day tradition. The final aspect is social. This is similar in that it is interaction with others, but different because it is with others who are attending the game—regardless if an individual knows the other person or not (Trail & James, 2001). An instance might be high-fiving those around you when your team scores a touchdown. Finally, game attractiveness was included to see how individuals viewed different games. A football game with special recognition of veterans and active military might draw additional people to the event or a top match-up can make a game a “must see”.

The destination image portion of the scale is from Beerli & Martin’s (2004) study on factors that influence destination image and Baloglu and McCleary’s (1999) study on the formation of the destination image model. Echtner & Ritchie (1993) also provided factors related to destination image. The factors for destination image include relaxation/escape, excitement/adventure, knowledge, social and prestige (Baloglu & McCleary, 1999; Beerli & Martín, 2004; Echtner & Ritchie, 1993). Relaxation is closely related to escape as mentioned above for the SFMS in that it is about getting away and escaping from the daily routine (Baloglu & McCleary, 1999). The idea of being entertained or seeking adventure and excitement is the next factor and is similar to entertainment from SFMS (Baloglu & McCleary, 1999; Wann, 1995). Traveling to new destinations offers tourists to gain knowledge about the location and culture of the area (Baloglu & McCleary, 1999). The social aspect of traveling allows tourists to meet new people and foster existing relationships. Social is also important to the sport fan consumption experience. Finally the last factor for destination image is prestige (Baloglu

& McCleary, 1999). Not everyone has the resources—time or money—to attend and tailgate at college football games, especially with a RV. Prestige plays a role in this instance since it allows the individual to do something not all their friends or family are able to do, no matter the reason.

For all questions the participant was asked to think about their current experience and rate each statement on a 7-point Likert scale ranging from strongly disagree to strongly agree. Demographic questions were included at the end of the survey. All questions in the survey were closed-end questions with the exception of specific questions within the demographics section. These questions asked the participant to identify the team they showed loyalty to as well as their season ticket status and the cost of RV parking. Additional questions regarding length of stay and distance traveled were included within the demographics section of the instrument. Finally, the survey ended with an open-ended question asking the participant to provide any additional information.

Participants.

The target participants for this study were those fans who traveled to collegiate football games via a recreational vehicle (RV). In addition, any other fan that was part of the RV owner's party and/or traveled with the group was included in the study. Only those RV's parked in the campus designated parking lots were included in this study. Any RV traveler who utilized off-campus RV parks was not included as they were not on-campus with the RV for game day activities. All participants were 18 years of age or older.

Survey Distribution.

The survey was distributed at home college football games at four major universities in a conference in the southeastern portion of the United States. An institution was deemed “major” by its athletic department’s membership in one of the Big 5 athletic conferences in the United States. Data collection was conducted over four different college football weekends at four different Division I FBS institutions. The schools selected were all from the Southeastern Conference (SEC), which consists of 14 universities. All universities have designated parking areas for those with a RV, but the number of spaces available varies greatly between schools. The schools that provided the researcher permission to survey the RV tailgaters were utilized for the study. The four schools utilized within the study were chosen because access was made available through sport management and athletic contacts at each institution. Scheduling of home football as well as research approval left a short window of time for data collection and prevented additional institutions from being utilized.

The researcher contacted the person in charge of RV parking at each institution and gained permission to survey their RV parking patrons. In addition to obtaining permission from the RV parking office, permission was obtained from the institution’s Internal Review Board (IRB) for research office to be on the respective campus and collect data. The survey was distributed via paper and pencil in order to gain the largest amount of participants possible. Most game weekend RV parking opened the day before (typically Friday) a home football game, however, two opened earlier in the week. The researcher walked around the RV parking area and asked for participation in the survey.

After the participant completed the survey, it was collected and stored in a large envelope until data entry was completed once back to campus. Once all data were collected, the surveys will be stored for a period of three years in a locked cabinet in the researcher's advisor's office.

Parking in the RV parking lots varies by institution and to attempt to gain a representative sample of RV users who travel to football games, it was important to collect the data in person via paper and pencil. The typical RV user is older, often near or at retirement, and may choose not to respond to an online survey whereas would opt to complete a short paper survey. In addition, collecting data in person allowed the researcher to gather as many possible responses without the need to mail or email a reminder to a potential participant.

Chapter 4 Results and Discussion

Results

The questionnaires were numbered and data were entered into SPSS 22 for analysis. In total, 206 surveys were used in the data analysis.

RQ1 addressed the demographics of this particular group of sport tailgaters. The RV tailgater is typically older with 64.5% of all respondents aged 46 or older (see Table 1 in Appendix D). The largest age group was 46-55 years of age with 30%, and the smallest age group was 76 and older with just 2.0%. RV tailgaters are mostly married (77.2%) with more than half (50.6%) having a household income of more than \$100,000 per year with 32.3% of the respondents having household income of more than \$150,000 per year. Despite a large number of participants (62.4%, home; 93.3%, visiting) in this study who were not alumni of either the home or visiting team, many indicated in comments that a family member or child attended the university.

All types of RVs were represented by the participants: travel trailer, 5th wheel, Class A, Class B, Class B+, Class C and Class Super C (see Table 2). The largest type of RV present was the Class A at 43% of all respondents. The majority (70.1%) indicated that they owned the RV in which they traveled.

RQ2 examined the motivations for the RV tailgater. An exploratory factor analysis (EFA) with varimax rotation with Kaiser normalization was conducted. EFA is often used in the development of an instrument, but Costello and Osborne (2005) indicated that it can be used to investigate motivations. EFA has been utilized in other studies on motivations and perceptions (Huang & Hsu, 2009; Riaz, Rambli, Salleh, &

Mushtaq, 2011; Sao & Green, 2008; Yoon & Uysal, 2005). This study utilized EFA to determine the motivations specific to the RV tailgater population. The orthogonal rotation—varimax—allowed for the distinct identification of each motivation (Schmidt & Watanabe, 2001).

Hair, Black, Babin, and Tatham (2005) and Yong and Pearce (2013) explained the importance of selecting the appropriate (i.e., not too many or too few) number of factors. Items with eigenvalues of 1.0 or higher were retained and the associated factors were identified. Kaiser (1960) stated that “eigenvalues greater than 1 of the observed correlation matrix led to a number of factors corresponding almost invariably” (p. 145). In addition, a scree test was analyzed to establish the natural break in the curve to select the dimensions. Five motivation dimensions expressed eigenvalues greater than 1 and explained 64.9% of the total variance (see Table 3). The five dimensions that resulted from the EFA are (1) game attractiveness, (2) achievement, (3) escape, (4) family, and (5) group affiliation.

Game attractiveness accounted for the most variance and included 11 items from the survey. This dimension includes the entertainment value of the sporting event, promotions offered, and balance of competition (Hanson & Gauthier, 1989). Not only does it include the excitement of highly ranked teams playing one another, but also the sense of pride and well-being from watching their favorite team compete. Boyd and Krehbiel (2003) also looked at promotion as an aspect of game attractiveness. Several variables were examined in the study including location, winning percentage of both teams, a rival game, and time of game among others (Boyd & Krehbiel, 2003). Game

attractiveness has been shown to have a “positive influence on attendance” (Hanson & Gauthier, 1989, p. 18). Some individuals who attend games, or tailgate, may not be interested in the sport event itself, but possibly the promotions or entertainment value provided for family and friends.

Achievement is related to game attractiveness in that it creates a sense of pride and accomplishment when your team wins. Sport fans share the successes and losses of the team (Dionisio, Leal, & Moutinho, 2008). This type of vicarious achievement by sports fans brings students, fans and alumni together to watch and experience sport (Trail, Fink & Anderson, 2003). Fans who highly identified with a specific team will expect the team to perform at a higher level (Trail et al., 2003). Everyone wants their team to perform well and win, especially during the “big game”, but some fans take it to another level and feel that sense of achievement or accomplishment when the team wins.

Once the five dimensions were recognized, the specific components of each motivation were combined. The means for each dimension were calculated and an item was created to test correlations with destination image. The means for the five motivation factors were calculated and three fell above the midpoint of the scale while achievement ($M = 3.66$, $SD = 1.55$) and escape ($M = 3.37$, $SD = 1.78$) fell slightly below the midpoint on a scale of 1 to 7 where “1” is not at all descriptive of me and “7” is very descriptive of me (see Table 4). All other factors fell into the categories of “neutral” to “very descriptive of me” with game attractiveness being the factor rated highest on the scale ($M = 5.47$, $SD = 1.04$). In addition to game attractiveness, family ($M = 5.27$, $SD = 1.67$) and

group affiliation ($M = 4.72$, $SD = 1.36$) were above “neutral” for motivations to attend or consumer sport.

The internal consistency of each of the factors was tested and examined using Cronbach’s alpha. Of the five resulting factors, all were in the acceptable to excellent categories (see Table 4). Game attractiveness was considered excellent with .906. The Cronbach’s alpha for group affiliation was acceptable at .673 while achievement (.856), escape (.844) and family (.794) were moderate. In addition to the items identified by the EFA, the reliability of destination image was also examined and it was deemed excellent at .922. No substantial increase in alphas could be obtained by eliminating any of the individual items.

Destination image was also examined in this study and how it related to the motivational factors exhibited by the RV tailgater. On a scale of 1 to 7 where “1” is strongly disagree and “7” is strong agree, participants indicated that destination image is a reason why they travel to a particular location ($M = 4.02$, $SD = 1.44$). Correlation coefficients were computed on the five factors that emerged along with destination image to determine if a relationship existed. The results of the correlational analysis are presented in Table 5. Table 5 shows that destination image is positively correlated with game attractiveness, achievement, escape and group affiliation. All are significant at the 0.01 level. Family is the only dimension not statistically significant with destination image. Destination image showed a significant positive correlation with game attractiveness, achievement, escape, and group affiliation. However, there was no significant correlation with family. The RV tailgater does not care about the destination

as long as they are with their family. The third research question looked at how and if destination image affects the reasons for RV tailgaters to travel to college football games. For the RV tailgater, as destination image increases, so does game attractiveness, achievement, escape and group affiliation.

The intention of RQ4 was to look at satisfaction and behavioral intentions of RV tailgaters to continue to travel to college football games with a RV. The mean was high for behavioral intentions at 96.65% of respondents ($M = 6.12$) and high in satisfaction for 95.53% of respondents ($M = 6.36$). To calculate the mean for satisfaction, three satisfaction questions were used. To determine the mean for behavioral intentions, a total of five questions were used in the calculation. The Cronbach's alpha for satisfaction is .972 and for behavioral intention is .944. A regression was run in an attempt to determine if there was a statistically significant relationship between satisfaction and behavioral intentions with destination image, however there was no significant difference.

RV tailgaters were, overall, highly satisfied with their decision to travel to a college football game. Satisfaction with the experience and loyalty to a specific team can create repeat travel intentions for RV tailgaters (Caro & Garcia, 2007). In this case, the product is the experience of tailgating with other RV tailgaters and supporting a specific collegiate football team. In addition to a high satisfaction with the RV tailgating experience, the participants exhibited high behavioral intentions to return as an RV tailgater in the future. Bush, Martin and Bush (2004) define behavioral intentions as the "outcome of socialization that may be of particular importance to advertisers because it is related to favorable and unfavorable behaviors consumers may exhibit toward a brand"

(p. 110). The RV tailgater will choose to continue to experience and “purchase” the brand by bringing the RV to future college sporting events to tailgate.

In addition to the means for each satisfaction and behavioral intentions, destination image was examined. Destination image was not affected by satisfaction nor behavioral intentions. The RV tailgater is happy to follow their favorite team, tailgate and experience college football regardless of the destination or the destination image of the location. While destination image may be of importance when it comes to leisure travel, it is not important to the RV tailgater when it comes to following a specific collegiate athletic team.

Chapter 5 Discussion

The RV Tailgater

One of the questions of this study was to determine who the RV tailgater who attends college football games actually is, especially when we already know quite a bit about the types of sport tourists and RV users. Sport tourism is a growing area for cities and regions across the United States and the world. All communities work to bring new individuals to the area and try to create an environment for repeat travel to the area. In this study, sport tourism was defined as travel to the area for the primary purpose to participate in game day activities within the RV designated parking on a college campus. This included activities before, during and after the event.

The RVIA has shown that the typical RV owner is in their late 40s and has a median income of \$62,000 (RVIA.org, 2014). The RV tailgaters in the present study were a slightly older than the typical RV owner. More than 60% of the respondents were older than 45 with most falling between the ages of 46 and 65 year. This corresponds with literature that indicates the RV owner is near or at retirement age (Hardy & Gretzel, 2011). As the RV owner nears and reaches retirement, the flexibility to travel and adjust travel plans will increase since there is no work schedule to modify. One institution's RV parking area allowed individuals to arrive as early as Sunday and stay the entire week or even the entire season. While this allowed a great deal of flexibility for the RV tailgaters, access to the lot was limited to athletic donors and season ticket holders. All four RV parking areas visited had varying degrees of restrictions on those who were allowed to purchase a permit and park in the lot. Two parking areas only allowed athletic donors to

receive a permit and “spot” within the RV area. The other two parking areas required the purchase of season tickets to receive a season permit and a guaranteed spot, but also offered individual game permits as well as permits for RV tailgaters for the visiting team. The slightly older age of the RV tailgaters in this study might be a result of acquiring more disposable income would allow the purchase of season tickets, a season permit and provide donations to the athletic department and university.

The RV tailgater, in most cases, must purchase season tickets or provide a sizeable donation to the athletic department is often a requirement in order to be eligible for a RV parking permit. The minimum donation amount varies by school to secure season tickets, priority parking permits and RV parking spots. Approximately 50% of the RV tailgaters in this study had a household income of \$100,000 or more with 32% of the total sample indicating an income of over \$150,000. These numbers greatly exceed the RVIA’s median income of \$62,000. The higher income levels allow the RV tailgater the luxury to donate the minimum, or even more, to secure a season long RV permit. One institution requires a minimum donation in order to be placed on a waitlist for the RV space, but despite a donation, a spot is not guaranteed in the premium spaces closest to the stadium.

Other demographics determined through this study included marital status, alumni status and race/ethnicity. Over 75% of all respondents indicated that they were married. A small number of individuals reported as domestic partner (3.9%), widow (0.5%) and divorced (2.9%). When race/ethnicity was looked at, roughly 94% of all respondents identified as White. This was interesting in that the four schools were in different areas of

the southeastern United States and demographics in those areas vary greatly and are not completely representative of the sample.

Finally, the demographic category that was most interesting was the alumni status of the home and visiting institutions. All participants were asked if they were alumni of the home as well as the visiting team. For both categories, the overwhelming majority—62.4% (home) and 93.3% (visiting)—indicated that they were not alumni. It was expected that more would be an alumni of the home team since most of the RV parking areas were heavily populated for the home team and the requirement to purchase season tickets and donate to secure a RV parking permit. Typically alumni want to give back to the university and athletics department. There is a sense of loyalty as well as various motivations of team success, benefits of better tickets and parking and the chance for social interaction increase the likelihood of donations (Billing et al., 1985; Gladden et al., 2005; Staurowsky et al., 1996; Verner et al., 1998). Roughly one third of the RV tailgaters were alumni of the home team. This presented an interesting question as to why so many followed and donated to an institution that they did not attend. One possible answer is the spouse is the alumni, but that would make one think that alumni numbers would be more even. The numbers for the visiting team were even more lopsided with just 6.7% of those participating indicated being alumni of the visiting team. Only two of the institutions offered RV parking to non-donors and one-game passes. This could explain the low number of respondents indicating alumni of the visiting team.

All RV tailgaters were asked about the ownership of the RV that was brought to campus. A small number of the RV tailgaters (8.3%) indicated they had rented the RV

used for the weekend. These particular RV tailgaters indicated that one weekend was chosen each football season for the group to get together and travel to a new sport destination, tailgate and attend the game. They did not meet the typical RV demographic and were much younger in age, newer in their careers and not quite financially stable enough to carry the cost burden of owning and maintaining any type of RV. As expected, the majority (70.1%) of the RV tailgaters owned the RV that was used for the weekend. Those who own the RV expressed the importance of being able to bring their belongings, pets, and beds along for the trip. Hardy & Gretzel (2011) explained the appeal to RV goers to bring possessions from home when traveling and it might reduce the stress of being gone for an extended period of time.

One institution's RV parking area hosted someone from the RV industry the evening before the home football game. This individual provided a meal for all RV tailgaters present as well as a number of products to be given away in a drawing. The prizes ranged from small kitchen items to storage covers for the RV. This presence may have been allowed because of the location and type of RV parking available. The RV parking area was built off-campus specifically for RV tailgaters and was set up like a typical RV park instead of a traditional parking lot allotted for RVs during a home football game weekend. No other institution allowed outside individuals (those permitted to park in area or with the RV tailgater) into the parking area.

Motivation Factors

A number of motivation factors were identified regarding sport consumption, tourism, and RV travel during the conceptualization of this study. Eight motivation

factors were determined to fit this study best after an examination of research on motivations to consume sport. These motivations are (1) escape, (2) achievement, (3) game attractiveness, (4) eustress, (5) self-esteem, (6) group affiliation, (7) family and finally (8) entertainment. The goal of this study was to understand the motivations for the RV tailgater to travel to college football games with a RV. Some of the previously discussed sport consumption motivations did not fit this study since the goal was to understand the RV tailgater and not necessarily why they did or did not attend the game. Five dimensions of motivation were identified through the exploratory factor analysis: (1) game attractiveness, (2) achievement, (3) escape, (4) family and (5) group affiliation.

Game attractiveness encompasses several areas including the entertainment value of the event, closeness of competition, and excitement among others. It accounted for 32.8% of the variance in the EFA. Athletic departments typically have differential prices for games throughout the season with the marquee match-ups bringing more per ticket than a non-conference opponent. Match-ups between two highly ranked opponents or rivals within a conference allow athletic departments to raise the ticket price since the demand is high. Due to the high demand, more tickets and additional concessions will be sold during the game. Marquee match-ups may only be available to season ticket holders and not to the general public. The demand and desire to see these high profile games in person create the need for fans to purchase season tickets. The RV tailgater will most likely have season tickets to the game since many RV parking spaces on campuses have made this a stipulation to even be considered for a spot.

The excitement of the game can be expanded beyond the game for the RV tailgater. The ability to arrive on a Friday, or earlier in some situations, and tailgate the entire weekend allows for the excitement to build throughout the weekend as the game approaches. Once the game is over and a win is secured, the excitement is extended through the remainder of the weekend without the fan to ever need to leave campus. As the RV tailgater, once all food and beverages are purchased for the weekend, there is no need to leave campus. The community will not reap the economic benefits of additional travelers if they have pre-purchased groceries for the weekend. However, if CVBs and other tourism authorities in the area understand this traveler and the reasons for coming to the area, they can find new ways to market the RV tailgater and entice them to stay longer in a local RV park.

Fans of a given sport team will feel a sense of achievement or accomplishment when good things happen with their favorite team, especially when the team wins. Achievement was the next biggest dimension from the EFA and accounted for 11.7% of the variance. Within this dimension, the RV tailgaters felt like they won or were winners when their team won. This is interesting as most of the RV tailgaters were not alumni of the home or visiting team. Some sort of identification with the team has occurred in the past whether it is a family member, son or daughter, or just a fondness for the team in question. People like to feel good about themselves and the teams they follow, so when the team or institution is successful, it makes alumni feel good about themselves.

Fans, including RV tailgaters, often enjoy sporting events because it gives them the opportunity to escape from the everyday struggles and stress of life. No one is

immune to life's daily stresses and they vary from person to person. Sport is a great chance to escape the stresses, even if it is just for a few hours while attending a sporting event. RV tailgaters have the chance to escape the daily stresses for more than just the few hours of the game, but for the entire weekend. The event itself provides a temporary reprieve from the hectic day-to-day battles (Wann, Bilyeu, Brennan, Osborn, & Gambouras, 1999; Wann, Grieve, Zapalac, & Pease, 2008). Another study has shown that fans consume sport and sport information as well as shopping online as a diversion from daily stresses (Hur, Ko, & Valacich, 2007). Hur et al. (2007) states that "diversion is measured by capturing perceptions of pleasure, willing to escape from daily work, and enjoyment when using sport-related Web sites" (p. 525).

As RV tailgaters, the opportunity to spend the weekend on a college campus, enjoying sport, family and friends is a perfect example and opportunity to escape the struggles of daily life and work. Spending the weekend with family, friends and other fans of the same team can provide the escape needed to balance out the stressors in life (Chen & Funk, 2010; Gibson & Yiannakis, 2002). In addition to the sporting event, the flexibility of the RV allows the RV tailgater to spend more time in the area resulting in a need to find additional recreational activities. This is beneficial to the community—both city and university—since additional tourism and entertainment dollars will be spent in the area. Many areas have museums, outdoor parks and numerous other attractions to offer. When the university and city work together and understand the RV tailgater, appropriate travel information can be provided to the RV tailgater along with information for other RV parks within the area for either before or after the game weekend.

RV tailgaters expressed the importance of the opportunity to be with family and friends while having a comfortable place to tailgate and spend the weekend without the need to travel from hotel to campus for the weekend (James et al., 2001; Wann, 1995). It provided a “home base” for people to meet up, visit, spend time with each other, eat a little and have a place to rest. The ease of having the RV on campus, within walking distance of the stadium, provided more time to tailgate before the game and a place to gather immediately following the game. While not all RV tailgaters attend the game, the prospect of seeing family and friends throughout the weekend is a reason to be a RV tailgater.

Family and group affiliation are very similar. Another reason fans enjoy sporting events is to spend time with family (Smith & Stewart, 2010). While not all members may be a fan of sport, a team following creates a time for family to get together and enjoy each other’s company. Allegiances are often created toward specific teams based on family history, a family member attending the university or having some type of affiliation with the university (Raney, 2006).

Finally, group affiliation is the enjoyment of being part of the group. At sporting events you have your personal group of friends to tailgate and have fun with, but you also have the larger group of the entire fan base as well. In essence, you have the “desire to identify with something bigger than oneself” (Smith & Stewart, 2010, p. 161). Fans of a specific sport team will have some things in common as it relates to the fandom of the team. Despite having different backgrounds, the shared idea of watching your team and experiencing the sport allows individuals to be part of “the group”. The RV tailgater

might bring all members of the family to the tailgate along with close friends as well as some new friends. Not all members of the tailgating party may be interested in the outcome or experience of the game, but the time spent and camaraderie experienced over the weekend is important to feeling part of the group.

Destination Image

The other area of interest within this study was destination image and how it is affected by the various motivations to consume sport, particularly the ones specific to RV tailgaters. Currently no literature examines destination image and sport consumption motivation factors. Destination image is the image or perception of the destination or even a specific sporting event (Baloglu & McCleary, 1999; Beerli & Martin, 2004; Chalip & Costa, 2005; Chon, 1990). Game attractiveness highly correlated with destination image. The perception of the location and a high profile match-up will attract new fans to the area. If the institution offers RV parking with a single game pass for fans of the visiting team, this provides another opportunity to bring new individuals to the area. However, while offering a single game pass might attract new RV tailgaters, the institution would be taking opportunities away from season ticket holders and potential donations. As the sense of game attractiveness and achievement (i.e., team will be successful) increases, the destination image also increases. The RV tailgater will seek out new locations to watch their favorite team play and win. If the team has shown success in the past, the RV tailgater will be more motivated to travel for the game.

The opportunity to travel to a new destination for a game weekend is a great escape from the daily stresses. It creates a sense of a mini-vacation for the RV tailgater

with the ease to make travel adjustments as needed. Escape was also highly correlated with destination image. RV tailgaters found the destination was an opportunity for a reprieve from work and other stresses along with the chance to be with other individuals of the same fan base. Group affiliation can go beyond the closeness of family and friends to include the entire fan base of their favorite athletics team. As a fan, being in the stadium with 50,000 or more fans of the same team creates an escape and a whole new meaning to being “part of the group”.

The only dimension that was not significantly correlated to destination image was family. RV tailgaters do not seem to care about the destination so long as there is the opportunity to spend time with family members. The decision to travel to new venues is only important if family is part of the planned trip. In relation to the attitude dimension of TPB, the RV tailgater will travel to the destination and tailgate but may not necessarily attend the game. The reason for travel is solely to see and visit family. This cost-benefit allows the RV tailgater to see a new destination, visit family and friends while still having the convenience of the RV. This RV tailgater might stay at the RV during the game despite subjective norms of attending the game with the group.

Finally, destination image was examined in regards to satisfaction and behavioral intentions. Both of these areas were high for nearly all participants in the study. Participants ($n = 173$) indicated their intent to RV again to college football games and tailgate regardless of the location. The RV tailgaters wanted to see their team compete in a conference college football game and the location was unimportant. RV tailgaters also indicated that satisfaction with their RV tailgating experience was positive. Again, this

was unrelated to the location. The motivation factors identified with the RV tailgater may contribute to satisfaction and behavioral intentions since all five factors—group affiliation, family, escape, achievement and game attractiveness—can occur regardless of location.

Conclusions and Recommendations

The RV tailgater has been provided a unique way to experience college football, the tailgate and the overall game day experience. Societal norms have shown that tailgating is part of the general game day activities. When anyone mentions college or professional football, the tailgate and all included food and activities are also part of the conversation. However, many do not mention the experience of the RV tailgater.

This study has provided insight as to “who” the RV tailgater is and how this group compares to previous studies on sport fan consumption, motivations and RV owners and travelers. This knowledge will allow CVBs and universities to provide a better game day and weekend experience for the RV tailgater. While many motivations have been identified for sport fans in general, the motivations specific to RV tailgaters have been identified. Understanding which motivations are important to the RV tailgater will allow both the institution and the city or CVB to spend marketing dollars in a more efficient way to entice repeat travel to the area and not just for a sport event.

Finally, destination image is important to the CVB, city, university as well as the RV tailgater. All parties want to convey a positive image and reputation for the destination. The RV tailgater who has a great experience will share that information with family and friends and possibly suggest future travel plans for a return trip. The RV

tailgater who is a fan of the home team is likely to make repeat trips throughout the football season due to season ticket and permit purchases, but if a bad experience arises, may choose not to renew tickets or permit the next season. In addition, negative word of mouth could cause friends and family to not return either.

Limitations

Every study has its limitations and this one is no exception. First, only four institutions were utilized for this study. This limited the number of potential RV tailgaters who could be invited to participate. Another possible limitation is the day of data collection. All data were collected on a Friday before the home game. In theory this made sense so as not to interfere with game day activities and the potential to get more individuals willing to participate. However, in reality, very few of the RV tailgaters actually arrived on the Friday before the game. Since game start times are typically announce one to two weeks in advance, it was difficult to determine the best game weekend for data collection.

In all four instances, the game start time was the following evening which might have led to more people traveling Friday evenings and arriving very late or traveling early Saturday morning. The late game start time may have affected the number of potential participants for the study. In the future, data collection should be done on Saturday, or game day, to maximize the number of possible participants. Many of the participants indicated that more people would be tailgating with them on Saturday.

Gaining access to the RV parking areas was another limitation. One of the institutions only allowed access during a specific set time in order to comply with their

non-solicitation rules. Fridays before a home game, local sponsors provide a dinner to all those in the RV parking area. The RV park president only allowed permission to seek participants at this dinner. Many potential participants were hesitant to participate and left immediately following the dinner and door prizes. The lack of opportunity at this site solicit participation hindered the amount of completed surveys collected at the institution. Another institution allowed permission to seek participants, but restricted the number and location of RV parking areas allowed to visit. While this restriction actually provided a mix of season and individual game permit holders, it may have altered the demographics of the group since season tickets were not required to purchase a permit for the designate lots. Also, other parking lots on the campus were reserved for high dollar donors, which were not represented in the sample from this particular institution.

The survey did not ask about expenses associated with the particular weekend or trip. It is unknown the costs of travel compared to money saved by not acquiring hotel accommodations and eating at local restaurants. Other outside factors that could influence the decision to travel are local weather conditions, other events that might be scheduled on a Friday that would result in travel on game day or not at all, or even the personal health of the individuals.

Recommendations

Cities and universities often work independent of one another when attracting individuals to the area. The cities are looking to bring new and repeat tourists to the area while universities are looking to attract new students. However, with these students, come the family and friends as well. This can translate to new dollars spent in the local

community for everyday living but also include sporting events and game weekends. The CVBs often are tasked with attracting new events to the area, but also tourists.

University athletic departments should work with the local CVB to market to the RV tailgater. These sport tourists often have the flexibility to adjust their travel schedule without much additional cost since their travel vehicle is also their accommodations. Now that the demographics of the RV tailgater are known, it will be easier for CVBs to provide information on specific attractions that are popular to similar demographics. For example, travel or admission packages can be created to entice the RV tailgater to stay beyond the game weekend and visit local museums, wineries, or other attractions.

Many schools within the conference studied have national and/or state parks close by as well as various types of sport and history museums. Athletic departments could be the vehicle to distribute the tourism information to all individuals who purchase the RV parking permit. For example, parking space, specifically RV parking, on college campuses may be scarce. The number of RV parking spaces varied greatly within the conference schools utilized within this study. The school with the least number of available spaces offered approximately 100 RV parking spaces while the school with the most had enough available space for over 500 RVs to park for the game weekend.

Many institutions are located within larger cities and are bound by other areas of the city and cannot add additional parking areas for tailgaters or RV tailgaters. The athletic department and CVB can provide information to potential RV tailgaters—specifically those for the away team—about RV parks located off campus, but within the area. This information could be administered via email or postal mail, depending on the

contact preferences of the individual. The athletic department stands to gain as well. If the RV tailgater has a good experience on campus and in the community, the likelihood of return travel as well as season ticket and permit purchase will increase.

The athletic department has an opportunity to provide services to the RV tailgater. The RV tailgater may or may not bring another mode of transportation to campus. This could severely limit travel and spending in other areas of the city or region if no other vehicle is available for the RV tailgater to leave the RV parking area. Some potential services could be a grocery service. This service would allow the RV tailgater to select needed groceries, paper goods or other needed items from a predetermined list of items. The items would be purchased and available to the RV tailgater during set-up preventing providing a stress-free option to get needed supplies that were either forgotten or needed to be purchased upon arrival. Fans often want to document their trip by purchasing athletic merchandise on the trip. A traveling bookstore or cart located within the RV tailgating area would allow fans to purchase a new t-shirt or hat for the game. Both of these options allow for additional spending in the area and benefit both the city (i.e., taxes) and the athletic department (i.e., sales revenue).

Future Research

The idea of the RV tailgater is new and will require additional research to learn more about this group of individuals. Sport tourism is still a growing area of research but lends itself to learning more about the RV tailgater. To learn more about the RV tailgater, future studies should include more institutions within the same conference to better generalize and learn about the RV tailgating population. College football is popular

throughout the United States, but is considered a way of life in the South. This study focused on college football in the south, particularly a high profile conference.

The RVIA found that RV owners are most likely from the Pacific Northwest. Looking at the RV tailgater in other regions of the United States is important to learning more about who these individuals are and why they are motivated to travel to college football games with a RV. The comparison of RV tailgaters across the Big 5 Division I FBS conferences would give insight into the group. It would also be helpful to understand how they are different across the country because each CVB will need to market their area differently based on the characteristics of the RV tailgaters and tourists for the area.

In addition to applying the study to different potential RV tailgaters across the United States, the information collected from this and future studies could be examined through the lens of different theories. For example, expectant value theory could look at the social behaviors of RV tailgaters along with the identified motivations for the group. Future research might also include utilizing destination image as a moderator between the factors identified and satisfaction and behavioral intentions.

List of References

- Ajzen, I. (1985). From Intentions to Actions: A Theory of Planned Behavior. In P. D. J. Kuhl & D. J. Beckmann (Eds.), *Action Control* (pp. 11–39). Springer Berlin Heidelberg. Retrieved from http://link.springer.com/chapter/10.1007/978-3-642-69746-3_2
- Ajzen, I. (1987). *Attitudes, Traits, and Actions: Dispositional Prediction of Behavior in Personality and Social Psychology, Advances in Experimental Social Psychology* (Vol. 20). Academic Press.
- Ajzen, I. (1989). *Attitude, Structure and Behavior, in Attitude Structure and Function.* (A. R. Pratkanis, S. Breckler, & A. Greenwald, Eds.). Psychology Press.
- Ajzen, I. (1991). The theory of planned behavior. *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Process*, 50, 179–211.
- Baloglu, S. (1997). The relationship between destination images and sociodemographic and trip characteristics of international travellers. *Journal of Vacation Marketing*, 3(3), 221–233.
- Baloglu, S., & McCleary, K. W. (1999). A model of destination image formation. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 26(4), 868–897.
- Bamberg, S., Ajzen, I., & Schmidt, P. (2003). Choice of travel mode in the Theory of Planned Behavior: The roles of past behavior, habit, and reasoned action. *Basic and Applied Social Psychology*, 25(3), 175–187.
- Beerli, A., & Martín, J. D. (2004). Factors influencing destination image. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 31(3), 657–681.

- Beerli, A., & Martín, J. D. (2004). Tourists' characteristics and the perceived image of tourist destinations: a quantitative analysis—a case study of Lanzarote, Spain. *Tourism Management*, 25(5), 623–636.
- Billing, J. E., Holt, D., & Smith, J. (1985). *Athletic fund-raising: Exploring the motives behind donations*. Chapel Hill, NC: University of North Carolina Press.
- Borland, M. V., Goff, B. L., & Pulsinelli, R. W. (1992). College athletics: Financial burden or boon? In *Advances in the Economics of Sport* (Vol. 1, pp. 215–235). JAI Press Inc.
- Boyd, T.C. & Krehbiel, T.C. (2003). Promotion timing in Major League Baseball and the stacking effects of factors that increase game attractiveness. *Sport Marketing Quarterly*, 12(3), 173-183.
- Brick, J. M. (2011). The future of survey sampling. *Public Opinion Quarterly*, 75(5), 872–888.
- Bush, A. J., Martin, C. A., & Bush, V. D. (2004). Sports celebrity influence on the behavioral intentions of generation Y. *Journal of Advertising Research*, 44(1), 108–118.
- Burgan, B., & Mules, T. (1992). Economic impact of sporting events. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 19(4), 700–710.
- Chalip, L., & Costa, C. A. (2005). Sport event tourism and the destination brand: Towards a general theory. *Sport in Society*, 8(2), 218–237.
- Chang, S., Gibson, H., & Sisson, L. (2013). The loyalty process of residents and tourists in the festival context. *Current Issues in Tourism*, 1–17.

- Chen, C. F., & Tsai, D. (2007). How destination image and evaluative factors affect behavioral intentions? *Tourism Management*, 28(4), 1115–1122.
- Chen, N., & Funk, D. C. (2010). Exploring destination image, experience and revisit intention: A comparison of sport and non-sport tourist perceptions. *Journal of Sport & Tourism*, 15(3), 239–259.
- Chon, K.-S. (1990). The role of destination image in tourism: A review and discussion. *Tourism Review*, 45(2), 2–9.
- Clawson, M., & Knetsch, J. L. (2013). *Economics of Outdoor Recreation*. Routledge.
- Colton, D., & Covert, R. W. (2007). *Designing and Constructing Instruments for Social Research and Evaluation*. John Wiley & Sons.
- Conner, M., & Armitage, C. J. (1998). Extending the theory of planned behavior: A review and avenues for further research. *Journal of Applied Social Psychology*, 28(15), 1429–1464.
- Cooper, D. R., & Schindler, P. S. (2003). *Business Research Methods* (Eighth.). Boston: McGraw-Hill Irwin.
- Crompton, J. L. (1979). Motivations for pleasure travel. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 6(4), 408–424.
- Cunningham, G. B., & Kwon, H. (2003). The theory of planned behaviour and intentions to attend a sport event. *Sport Management Review*, 6, 127–145.
- Delaney, T. (2008). The social aspects of sports tailgating. *The New York Sociologist*, 3, 1–10.

- Dionísio, P., Leal, C., & Moutinho, L. (2008). Fandom affiliation and tribal behaviour: a sports marketing application. *Qualitative Market Research: An International Journal*, 11(1), 17–39.
- Drenten, J., Peters, C. O., Leigh, T., & Hollenbeck, C. R. (2009). Not just a party in the parking lot: An exploratory investigation of the motives underlying the ritual commitment of football tailgaters. *Sport Marketing Quarterly*, 18(2).
- Echtner, C. M., & Ritchie, J. R. B. (1993). The measurement of destination image: An empirical assessment. *Journal of Travel Research*, 31(4), 3–13.
- Fishbein, M. (1967). *Readings in Attitude Theory and Measurement*. New York: Wiley.
- Fowler, F. J. (2014). *Survey Research Methods* (5th ed.). SAGE Publications.
- Fricker, R. D., & Schonlau, M. (2002). Advantages and disadvantages of internet research surveys: Evidence from the literature. *Field Methods*, 14(4), 347–367.
- Fulks, D. L., & others. (2012). 2004-12 NCAA [R] Revenues and expenses of division I intercollegiate athletics programs report. *National Collegiate Athletic Association (NJI)*. Retrieved from <http://www.ncaapublications.com/productdownloads/2012RevExp.pdf>
- Gallarza, M. G., Saura, I. G., & García, H. C. (2002). Destination image: towards a conceptual framework. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 29(1), 56–78.
- Getz, D. (2008). Event tourism: Definition, evolution, and research. *Tourism Management*, 29(3), 403–428.
- Gibson, H. (2005a). Sport tourism: Concepts and theories. An introduction. *Sport in Society*, 8(2), 133–141.

- Gibson, H. (2005b). Towards an understanding of “why sport tourists do what they do.” *Sport in Society*, 8(2), 198–217.
- Gibson, H. J. (1998). Active sport tourism: who participates? *Leisure Studies*, 17(2), 155–170.
- Gibson, H. J. (2004). Moving beyond the “what is and who” of sport tourism to understanding “why.” *Journal of Sport & Tourism*, 9(3), 247–265.
- Gibson, H. J., Gammon, S., & Kutzman, J. (2002). Sport tourism at a crossroad? Considerations for the future. *Sport Tourism: Principles and Practice*, 111–122.
- Gibson, H. J., Willming, C., & Holdnak, A. (2003). Small-scale event sport tourism: fans as tourists. *Tourism Management*, 24(2), 181–190.
- Gladden, J. M., Mahony, D. F., Apostolopoulou, A., & others. (2005). Toward a better understanding of college athletic donors: What are the primary motives. *Sport Marketing Quarterly*, 14(1), 18–30.
- Goff, B. (2000). Effects of university athletics on the university: A review and extension of empirical assessment. *Journal of Sport Management*, 14, 85–104.
- Gordon, K. O. (2013). Emotion and memory in nostalgia sport tourism: examining the attraction to postmodern ballparks through an interdisciplinary lens. *Journal of Sport & Tourism*, 18(3), 217–239.
- Green, B. C., & Chalip, L. (1998). Sport tourism as the celebration of subculture. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 25(2), 275–291.
- Green, F. B. (1978). Recreation vehicles: A perspective. *Annals of Tourism Research*, Oct/Dec, 429–439.

- Gunn, C. A. (1997). *Vacationscape: Developing tourist areas*. Taylor & Francis.
- Guinn, R. (1980). Elderly recreational vehicle tourists: Motivations for leisure. *Journal of Travel Research*, 19(1), 9–12.
- Hair, J. H., Jr., Black, W. C., Babin, B. J., & Tatham, R. L. (2005). *Multivariate data analysis*. Upper Saddle River, NJ: Prentice Hall.
- Hansen, H., Gauthier, R., & others. (1989). Factors affecting attendance at professional sport events. *Journal of Sport Management*, 3(1), 15–32.
- Hardy, A., & Gretzel, U. (2011). Why we travel this way: An exploration into the motivations of recreational vehicle users. In *Drive Tourism: Trends and Emerging Markets* (pp. 194–209). Routledge.
- Hinch, T. D., & Higham, J. E. (2001). Sport tourism: A framework for research. *International Journal of Tourism Research*, 3(1), 45–58.
- Hinch, T., & Higham, J. (2005). Sport, Tourism and Authenticity. *European Sport Management Quarterly*, 5(3), 243–256.
- Hornik, J., & Ellis, S. (1988). Strategies to secure compliance for a mall intercept interview. *Public Opinion Quarterly*, 52(4), 539–551.
- Howard, D. R., & Crompton, J. L. (2004). Tactics used by sports organizations in the United States to increase ticket sales. *Managing Leisure*, 9(2), 87–95.
- Hrubes, D., Ajzen, I., & Daigle, J. (2001). Predicting hunting intentions and behavior: An application of the Theory of Planned Behavior. *Leisure Sciences*, 23(3), 165–178.

- Huang, S., & Hsu, C. H. C. (2009). Effects of travel motivation, past experience, perceived constraint, and attitude on revisit intention. *Journal of Travel Research*, 48(1), 29–44.
- Humphreys, B. R., & Mondello, M. (2007). Intercollegiate athletic success and donations at NCAA Division I institutions. *Journal of Sport Management*, 21(2), 265.
- Hur, Y., Ko, Y. J., Valacich, J., & others. (2007). Motivation and concerns for online sport consumption. *Journal of Sport Management*, 21(4), 521.
- Husbands, W. (1989). Social status and perception of tourism in Zambia. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 16(2), 237–253.
- James, J., Breezeel, G. S., & Ross, S. (2001). A two-stage study of the reasons to begin and continue tailgating. *Sport Marketing Quarterly*, 10(4), 212–222.
- Kaiser, H. F. (1960). The application of electronic computers to factor analysis. *Educational and Psychological Measurement*, 20(1), 141–151.
- Kerstetter, D., Stansfield, M., Dombroski, P., Bae, S. Y., Usher, L., & McKinney, M. (2012). The multiple meanings associated with the football tailgating ritual. In: Fisher, Cherie LeBlanc; Watts, Clifton E., Jr., eds. *Proceedings of the 2010 Northeastern Recreation Research Symposium. Gen. Tech. Rep. NRS*. Retrieved from <http://www.nrs.fs.fed.us/pubs/gtr/gtr-p-94papers/06kerstetter-p94.pdf>
- Krosnick, J. A. (1999). Survey research. *Annual Review of Psychology*, 50(1), 537–567.
- Kurtzman, J., & Zauhar, J. (2005). Sports tourism consumer motivation. *Journal of Sport & Tourism*, 10(1), 21–31.

- Lee, C.-K., Taylor, T., Lee, Y.-K., & Lee, B. (2005). The impact of a sport mega-event on destination image: The case of the 2002 FIFA World Cup Korea/Japan. *International Journal of Hospitality & Tourism Administration*, 6(3), 27–45.
- Leiper, N. (1990). Tourist attraction systems. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 17(3), 367–384.
- Mahony, D. F., Madrigal, R., & Howard, D. (2000). Using the psychological commitment to team (PCT) scale to segment sport consumers based on loyalty. *Sport Marketing Quarterly*, 9(1), 15–25.
- Martínez Caro, L., & Martínez García, J. A. (2007). Cognitive–affective model of consumer satisfaction. An exploratory *study within the framework of a sporting event*. *Journal of Business Research*, 60(2), 108–114.
- Masberg, B. A. (1998). Defining the tourist: Is it possible? A view from the convention and visitors bureau. *Journal of Travel Research*, 37(1), 67–70.
- McCullough, B. P. (2013). Identifying the influences on sport spectator recycling behaviours using the theory of planned behaviour. *International Journal of Sport Management & Marketing*, 14(1-4), 146–168.
- McCullough, B. P., & Cunningham, G. B. (2011). Recycling intentions among youth baseball spectators. *International Journal of Sport Management & Marketing*, 10(1/2), 104–120.
- Melnick, M. J., & Wann, D. L. (2011). An examination of sport fandom in Australia: Socialization, team identification, and fan behavior. *International Review for the Sociology of Sport*, 46(4), 456–470.

- Miller, K. W., Wilder, L. B., Stillman, F. A., & Becker, D. M. (1997). The feasibility of a street-intercept survey method in an African-American community. *American Journal of Public Health*, 87(4), 655–658.
- Neale, L., & Funk, D. (2005). Fan motivation and loyalty: Extending the sport interest inventory (SII) to the Australian football league. Retrieved from <http://eprints.qut.edu.au/26075/>
- Nemec, B. M. (2011). Tailgating at collegiate sporting events. Retrieved from http://scholarworks.umass.edu/gradconf_hospitality/2011/Poster/19/
- RV Perceptions & Purchase Motivators: A Communications Planning Study*. (2010). Retrieved from <http://www.rvia.org/?ESID=pstudy>
- Raney, A. A. (2006). Why we watch and enjoy mediated sports. *Handbook of sports and media*, 313-329.
- Riaz, S., Rambli, D. R. A., Salleh, R., & Mushtaq, A. (2010). Study to investigate learning motivation factors within formal and informal learning environments and their influence upon web-based learning. *iJET*, 5(4), 41–50.
- Sagas, M., Cunningham, G. B., & Pastore, D. (2006). Predicting head coaching intentions of male and female assistant coaches: An application of the theory of planned behavior. *Sex Roles*, 54(9-10), 695–705.
- Schmidt, R., & Watanabe, Y. (2001). Motivation, strategy use, and pedagogical preferences in foreign language learning. *Motivation and Second Language Acquisition*, 23, 313–359.

- Schofield, J.A. (1983). Performance and attendance at professional team sports. *Journal of Sport Behavior*, 6(4), 196-206.
- Seo, W. J., & Green, B. C. (2008). Development of the motivation scale for sport online consumption. *Journal of Sport Management*, 22(1).
- Smith, A. C. T., & Stewart, B. (2007). The travelling fan: Understanding the mechanisms of sport fan consumption in a sport tourism setting. *Journal of Sport & Tourism*, 12(3-4), 155–181.
- Smith, S. L. J. (1988). Defining tourism: A supply-side view. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 15, 179–190.
- Staurowsky, E. J., Parkhouse, B., Sachs, M., & others. (1996). Developing an instrument to measure athletic donor behavior and motivation. *Journal of Sport Management*, 10, 262–277.
- Stern, E., & Krakover, S. (1993). The formation of a composite urban image. *Geographical Analysis*, 25(2), 130–146.
- Sutton, W. A., McDonald, M. A., Milne, G. R., & Cimperman, J. (1997). Creating and fostering fan identification in professional sports. *Sport Marketing Quarterly*, VI(1), 15–22.
- Tasci, A. D. A., & Gartner, W. C. (2007). Destination image and its functional relationships. *Journal of Travel Research*, 45(4), 413–425.
- Taylor, S., & Todd, P. (1995). Decomposition and crossover effects in the theory of planned behavior: A study of consumer adoption intentions. *International Journal of Research in Marketing*, 12, 137–155.

- The next generation of Title IX: Athletics. (2012, June). Retrieved from http://www.nwlc.org/sites/default/files/pdfs/nwlcathletics_titleixfactsheet.pdf
- Tom, G., & Elmer, L. (1994). Alumni willingness to give and contribution behavior. *Journal of Services Marketing*, 8(2), 57–62.
- Trail, G. T., & James, J. D. (2001). The motivation scale for sport consumption: Assessment of the scale's psychometric properties. *Journal of Sport Behavior*, 24(1), 108–127.
- Trail, G. T., Robinson, M. J., Dick, R. J., & Gillentine, A. J. (2003). Motives and points of attachment: Fans versus spectators in intercollegiate athletics. *Sport Marketing Quarterly*, 12(4), 217–227.
- Van Acker, V., Van Wee, B., & Witlox, F. (2010). When transport geography meets social psychology: Toward a conceptual model of travel behaviour. *Transport Reviews*, 30(2), 219–240.
- Verner, M. E., Hecht, J. B., & Fansler, A. G. (1998). Validating an instrument to assess the motivation of athletics donors. *Journal of Sport Management*, 12, 123–137.
- Wann, D. L., Bilyeu, J. K., Brennan, K., OSBORN, H., & GAMBOURAS, A. F. (1999). An exploratory investigation of the relationship between sport fan's motivation and race. *Perceptual and Motor Skills*, 88(3c), 1081–1084.
- Wann, D. L. (1995). Preliminary validation of the sport fan motivation scale. *Journal of Sport & Social Issues*, 19(4), 377–396.
- Wann, D. L., & Ensor, C. L. (1999). Further validation of the economic subscale of the Sport Fan Motivation Scale. *Perceptual and Motor Skills*, 88(2), 659–660.

- Wann, D. L., Fahl, C. L., Erdmann, J. B., & Littleton, J. D. (1999). Relationship between identification with the role of sport fan and trait aggression. *Perceptual and Motor Skills*, 88(3c), 1296–1298.
- Wann, D. L., Schrader, M. P., & Wilson, A. M. (1999). Relationship to athletic motivation. *Journal of Sport Behavior*, 22(1), 2.
- Wann, D. L., & Waddill, P. J. (2003). Predicting sport fan motivation using anatomical sex and gender role orientation. *North American Journal of Psychology*, 5(3), 485–498.
- Wann, D. L., & Wilson, A. M. (1999). Variables associated with sport fans' enjoyment of athletic events. *Perceptual and Motor Skills*, 89(2), 419–422.
- Yong, A. G., & Pearce, S. (2013). A beginner's guide to factor analysis: Focusing on exploratory factor analysis. *Tutorials in Quantitative Methods for Psychology*, 9(2), 79–94.
- Yoon, Y., & Uysal, M. (2005). An examination of the effects of motivation and satisfaction on destination loyalty: a structural model. *Tourism Management*, 26(1), 45–56. doi:10.1016/j.tourman.2003.08.016
- Young, W. B., & Montgomery, R. J. (1997). Crisis management and its impact on destination marketing: A guide for convention and visitors bureaus. *Journal of Convention & Exhibition Management*, 1(1), 3–18.

Appendices

Appendix A: Instrument

Welcome to

Thanks for taking the time complete this survey. The data collected will help us understand why people choose to RV to attend football games in the Southeastern Conference. The completion and submission of this survey indicates your informed consent to participate in this study and you are age 18 or older. Please contact Cheryl Rode at crode1@vols.utk.edu if you have any questions.

The first part of the survey examines why you choose to attend sporting event. Please indicate your level of agreement with the following statements on a 1 to 7 scale with 1= strongly disagree and 7 = strongly agree as to why you attend sporting events.

One of the main reasons that I attend sporting events is that it gives me the opportunity to temporarily escape life's problems.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I feel proud when the team plays well.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I like to watch highly skilled players.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I like the stimulation I get from watching sports.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
One of the main reasons that I attend sporting events is that it makes me feel good when my team wins.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I enjoy promotions offered at a game.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
One of the main reasons that I attend sporting events is I am the kind of person who likes to be with other people.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
One of the main reasons that I attend sporting events is that I get pumped up when I am watching my favorite teams.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I like to attend sporting events because it gives me an opportunity to be with my family.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I like to attend sporting events because it gives me an opportunity to be with my children.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
To me, my favorite team's successes are my successes and their losses are my losses.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I feel like I have won when the team wins.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I enjoy going to games because of their entertainment value.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I enjoy watching sports more when I am with a large group of people.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
One of the main reasons that I attend sporting events is that it allows me to forget about my problems.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I like the closeness of competition.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
To me, sports spectating is simply a form of recreation.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I enjoy attending sporting events because it makes me feel good about myself.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
One of the main reasons that I attend sporting events is because most of my friends are sports fans.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I feel a personal sense of achievement when the team does well.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
One of the reasons that I attend sporting events is that I enjoy the excitement of the game.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I like to attend sporting events because doing so gives me an opportunity to be with my significant other.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I enjoy attending sporting events simply because it is a good time.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I like to go to sporting events so I can see the top teams play.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
To me, attending sporting events is like daydreaming because it takes me away from life's hassles.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Welcome to

This part of the survey examines why you choose to travel via RV to attend sporting event. Please indicate your level of agreement with the following statements on a 1 to 7 scale with 1= strongly disagree and 7 = strongly agree as they apply to you.

I traveled to [city] to...

Learn new things and increase my knowledge about a part of the country	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Experience different cultures and ways of life	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Enrich myself intellectually	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Experience new places	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Experience different places	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Go to places my friends have not been	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Tell my friends about the trip	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Do exciting things	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Find excitement	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Be adventurous	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Have fun and be entertained	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
To see a part of the country I have never seen before	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Please indicate your level of agreement with 1 = strongly disagree and 7 = strongly agree.

I would enjoy RVing to another game	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I will continue to go to football games via RV	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I would enjoy traveling to another game via RV	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I am likely to continue to RV to football games	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I will continue to RV to football games	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I am glad I chose to RV to this football game	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I am satisfied in my decision to RV to the football game	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I am happy with my experiences in RVing to the football game	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

What is your single most important reason for traveling to college football games with a RV?

What is your single most important reason for traveling to [city] this weekend?

Welcome to

What is your age? _____

What is your gender?

What is your zip code? _____

☐ Male

☐ Female

What is your marital status?

☐ Single

☐ Married

☐ Domestic Partner

☐ Widowed

☐ Divorced

☐ Separated

What is your yearly income?

☐ Less than \$29,999

☐ \$50,000 to \$59,999

☐ \$80,000 to \$89,999

☐ \$150,000 or more

☐ \$30,000 to \$39,999

☐ \$60,000 to \$69,999

☐ \$90,000 to \$99,999

☐ \$40,000 to \$49,999

☐ \$70,000 to \$79,999

☐ \$100,000 to \$149,999

Which best describes you?

☐ Asian

☐ Pacific Islander

☐ White

☐ Black-African Descent

☐ Black-Caribbean Descent

☐ Hispanic

☐ Multi-Ethnicity

☐ Native American

☐ Self-Identify: _____

☐ Choose not to answer

Which type of recreational vehicle did you use for travel to the game this weekend?

☐ Travel Trailer ☐ 5th Wheel ☐ Don't Know

☐ Motorhome: ☐ Class A ☐ Class B ☐ Class B+ ☐ Class C ☐ Class Super C

Do you own the recreational vehicle you used for travel to the game this weekend?

☐ Yes

☐ No

☐ Rent

How many people are in your party?

Total: _____ Number 17 & under: _____ Number 18 & older: _____

Are you an alumni of the home team?

Are you an alumni of the visiting team?

☐ Yes

☐ No

☐ Yes

☐ No

Is there anything else you would like to add?

Appendix B: IRB Approval

THE UNIVERSITY of TENNESSEE 
KNOXVILLE
Office of Research & Engagement
INSTITUTIONAL REVIEW BOARD (IRB)

1534 White Ave.
Knoxville, TN 37996-1529
865-974-7697
fax 865-974-7400

October 20, 2014

Cheryl Rode,
UTK - Kinesiology Recreation & Sport Studies
HPER Building
Campus-2700

Re: UTK IRB-14-01832- XM

Study Title: Sport Tourism, Destination Image and College Football Games: The Importance of the
Recreational Vehicle Tailgater

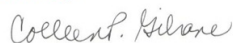
Dear Ms. Rode:

The Administrative Section of the UTK Institutional Review Board (IRB) reviewed your application for the above referenced project. The IRB determined that your application is eligible for **exempt** review under 45 CFR 46. Your application has been determined to comply with proper consideration for the rights and welfare of human subjects and the regulatory requirements for the protection of human subjects. This letter constitutes full approval of your application for the above referenced study.

In the event that volunteers are to be recruited using solicitation materials, such as brochures, posters, web-based advertisements, etc., these materials must receive prior approval of the IRB.

Any alterations (revisions) in the protocol must be promptly submitted to and approved by the UTK Institutional Review Board prior to implementation of these revisions. You have individual responsibility for reporting to the Board in the event of unanticipated or serious adverse events and subject deaths.

Sincerely,



Colleen P. Gilrane, Ph.D.
Chair
UTK Institutional Review Board

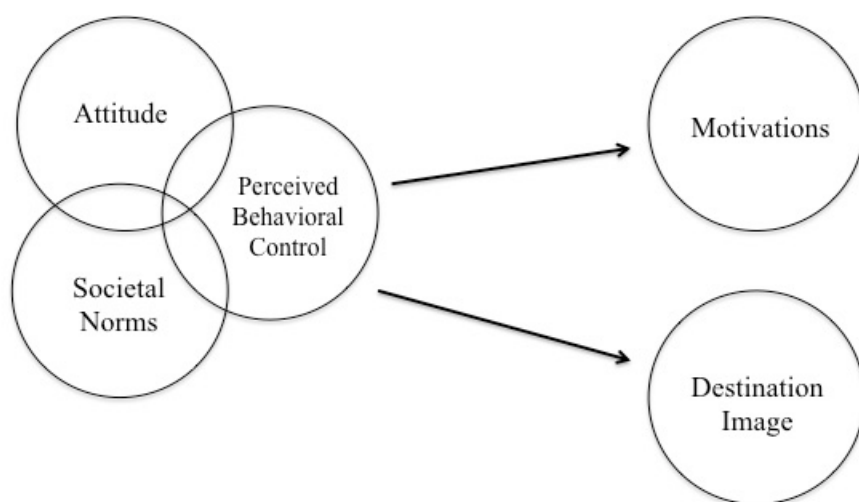
Appendix C: Figures

Figure 1: Theory of Planned Behavior Model

Appendix D: Tables

*Table 1: Demographics***Table 1***Demographics*

Characteristic	n	%
Age		
18-25	28	13.8
26-35	23	11.3
36-45	21	10.3
46-55	61	30.0
56-65	42	20.7
66-75	24	11.8
76 and older	4	2.0
Marital Status		
Single	32	15.5
Married	159	77.2
Domestic Partner	8	3.9
Widowed	1	0.5
Divorced	6	2.9
Income		
Less than \$29,999	13	7.0
\$30,000 - \$39,999	9	4.8
\$40,000 - \$49,999	8	4.3
\$50,000 - \$59,999	9	4.8
\$60,000 - \$69,999	18	9.7
\$70,000 - \$79,000	9	4.8
\$80,000 - \$89,000	9	4.8
\$90,000 - \$99,000	17	9.1
\$100,000 - \$145,999	34	18.3
\$150,000 and up	60	32.3
Alumni-Home Team		
Yes	76	37.6
No	126	62.4
Alumni-Visiting Team		
Yes	13	6.7
No	182	93.3

*Table 2: RV Characteristics***Table 2***RV Characteristics*

Characteristic	N	%
RV Type		
Travel Trailer	37	20.6
5 th Wheel	27	15.1
Motorhome: Class A	77	43.0
Motorhome: Class B	2	1.1
Motorhome: Class B+	6	3.4
Motorhome: Class C	20	11.2
Motorhome: Class Super C	4	2.2
Don't Know	6	3.4
RV Ownership		
Yes	143	70.1
No	44	21.6
Rent	17	8.3

Table 3: Exploratory Factor Analysis of Motivations

Table 3

Exploratory Factor Analysis of Motivations

Factors (Variance Explained 64.9%)	1	2	3	4	5
Game Attractiveness					
<i>One of the reasons that I attend sporting events is that I enjoy the excitement of the game.</i>	.809				
<i>I enjoy going to games because of their entertainment value.</i>	.776				
<i>I like the stimulation I get from watching sports.</i>	.758				
<i>I like to watch highly skilled players</i>	.756				
<i>One of the main reasons that I attend sporting events is that I get pumped up when I am watching my favorite team.</i>	.684				
<i>I like the closeness of competition</i>	.666				
<i>I enjoy attending sporting events simply because it is a good time.</i>	.661				
<i>I feel proud when the team plays well.</i>	.619				
<i>I like to go to sporting events so I can see the top teams play.</i>	.605				
<i>To me, sports spectating is simply a form of recreation.</i>	.595				
<i>One of the main reasons that I attend sporting events is that it makes me feel good when my team wins.</i>	.558				
Achievement					
<i>I feel a personal sense of achievement when the team does well.</i>		.844			
<i>I feel like I have won when the team wins.</i>		.817			
<i>To me, my favorite team's successes are my successes and their losses are my losses.</i>		.771			
<i>I enjoy attending sporting events because it makes me feel good about myself.</i>		.680			
<i>I enjoy promotions offered at a game.</i>		.507			
Escape					
<i>One of the main reasons that I attend sporting events is that it gives me the opportunity to temporarily escape life's problems.</i>			.881		
<i>One of the main reasons that I attend sporting events is that it allows me to forget about my problems.</i>			.864		
<i>To me, attending sporting events is like daydreaming because it takes me away from life's hassles.</i>			.744		
Family					
<i>I like to attend sporting events because it gives me an opportunity to be with my children.</i>				.878	
<i>I like to attend sporting events because it gives me an opportunity to be with my family.</i>				.848	
<i>I like to attend sporting events because doing so gives me an opportunity to be with my significant other.</i>				.706	
Group Affiliation					
<i>One of the main reasons that I attend sporting events is I am the kind of person who likes to be with other people.</i>					.791
<i>I enjoy watching sports more when I am with a large group of people.</i>					.765
<i>One of the main reasons that I attend sporting events is because most of my friends are sports fans.</i>					.513

Table 4: Relative Rank and Reliability

Table 4*Relative Rank and Reliability*

Factor	Mean	S.D.	Cronbach's α
Game Attractiveness	5.4702	1.03975	.906
<i>Eustress_3</i>	5.8447	1.32339	
<i>Entertainment_1</i>	5.5659	1.40091	
<i>Eustress_1</i>	5.1527	1.65048	
<i>Game_Attract_1</i>	5.8439	1.50001	
<i>Eustress_2</i>	5.4078	1.54564	
<i>Game_Attract_3</i>	4.8107	1.59208	
<i>Entertainment_3</i>	6.0927	1.24310	
<i>Achievement_1</i>	6.1635	1.39086	
<i>Game_Attract_4</i>	4.6127	1.77892	
<i>Entertainment_2</i>	5.4138	1.42336	
<i>Self_Esteem_1</i>	5.2794	1.52979	
Achievement	3.6561	1.55313	.856
<i>Achievement_3</i>	4.0000	1.88447	
<i>Achievement_2</i>	4.4417	1.97151	
<i>Self_Esteem_2</i>	3.6650	2.00960	
<i>Self_Esteem_3</i>	3.2906	1.75738	
<i>Game_Attract_2</i>	3.2573	1.92210	
Escape	3.3652	1.77863	.844
<i>Escape_1</i>	3.7882	2.11535	
<i>Escape_2</i>	3.2585	1.91395	
<i>Escape_3</i>	3.2282	1.89772	
Family	5.2696	1.66672	.794
<i>Family_2</i>	4.7811	2.36259	
<i>Family_1</i>	5.6456	1.70384	
<i>Family_3</i>	5.1902	2.00683	
Group Affiliation	4.7155	1.35864	.673
<i>Group_1</i>	5.3186	1.61625	
<i>Group_2</i>	5.0683	1.64949	
<i>Group_3</i>	4.0193	1.78440	
Destination Image	4.0191	1.44467	.922

Note: 1 = Not at all descriptive of me, 7 = Very descriptive of me; Destination Image: 1 = Strongly Disagree, 7 = Strongly Agree

Table 5: Correlation Table Between Factors and Destination Image

Table 5

Correlation Table Between Factors and Destination Image

Factor		Game Attractiveness	Achievement	Escape	Family	Group Affiliation	Destination Image
Game Attractiveness	Pearson Correlation	1	.516**	.272**	.246**	.359**	.296**
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.000	.000	.001	.000	.000
	N		186	185	183	186	167
Achievement	Pearson Correlation		1	.380**	.045	.237**	.373**
	Sig. (2-tailed)			.000	.532	.001	.000
	N			198	196	200	176
Escape	Pearson Correlation			1	.045	.181*	.254**
	Sig. (2-tailed)				.532	.011	.001
	N				194	198	177
Family	Pearson Correlation					.185**	.031
	Sig. (2-tailed)					.009	.680
	N					196	174
Group Affiliation	Pearson Correlation					1	.402**
	Sig. (2-tailed)						.000
	N						177

**, Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

*, Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

Vita

Cheryl R. Rode was born in Texas City, Texas and lived in the Houston area until high school. She attended Llano High School in Llano, Texas. Upon graduation, she attended Texas A&M University in College Station, Texas, where she earned a bachelor's of science degree in Horticulture in 2001. She later decided to pursue a teaching career and earned a second bachelor's degree from Texas A&M University in Agriculture Science with Teacher Certification. During her time at Texas A&M, she found a love of working with students within the academic services office of Aggie Athletics. From there, she determined that working with collegiate student-athletes and students was where she needed to be. She made the decision to return to school and earn a master's degree in Kinesiology with an emphasis in Sport Management from Texas A&M in 2008. After graduation, she worked as an academic advisor to undeclared students and student-athletes at Texas A&M before leaving Texas in 2012 to pursue a doctoral degree in Sport Management from the University of Tennessee.