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## Predicting Expenditure Patterns Based on Motivations to Travel for Active Sport Tourists

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PREDICTING EXPENDITURE PATTERNS BASED ON MOTIVATIONS TO  
TRAVEL FOR ACTIVE SPORT TOURISTS

by

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Bachelor of Science  
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A dissertation submitted in partial fulfillment  
of the requirements for the

Doctor of Philosophy in Higher Education

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May 2012

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THE GRADUATE COLLEGE

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## ABSTRACT

### **Predicting Expenditure Patterns based on Motivations to Travel for Active Sport Tourists**

by

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Professor of Educational Leadership  
University of Nevada, Las Vegas

The present study continued the line of research into general tourism motivations and expenditures by further expanding the scope into active sport tourists traveling to participate in a specific sport. In completing this research, a broad range of travel, expenditure, and motivational factors were considered. In addition, multiple regression was utilized to answer the proposed research question in an attempt to achieve a more comprehensive understanding of active sport tourists' motivations for travel and their subsequent expenditures.

This research study offers additional insight into sport and tourism marketing and planning strategies, and offers another brick in the wall that is sport tourism research. Vested in the idea of consumer behavior and motivations, initiated from Crompton's (1979) study on the motives of pleasure vacation travelers' and Iso-Ahola's (1982) Seeking-Escaping Theory, and based on an active sport tourism travel survey, this study examined the impacts of Iso-Ahola's tourism motivational variables on selected tourism expenditure patterns for active sport tourists traveling to play golf. This paper focused on the micro level of sport tourism expenditures.

Hierarchical and stepwise multiple regression analysis provided meaningful results. Hierarchical analysis was initially completed to force total income into the equation to control for certain financial factors and to remove those factors as influences on the overall relationship between motivations and expenditures. Hierarchical analysis suggested that total income was able to explain 6% of the variance in overall expenditures.

To confirm what the hierarchical analysis suggested, stepwise multiple regression was also completed. The first stepwise analysis indicated that personal seeking (ps) motives were statistically significant and contributed to the prediction of expenditures. A second stepwise analysis indicated that within the personal seeking (ps) motives, “to experience new things by myself” was the best contributor to the prediction of travel expenditures.

The third stepwise regression analysis was used to determine whether the other nine individual travel motives that contribute to the remaining three constructs are good overall predictors for travel expenditures. This analysis found that total expenditures were statistically significant with interpersonal seeking (is) motives, specifically “to meet new people.” However, none of the personal escape (pe) or interpersonal escape (ie) motives were statistically significant with travel expenditures. All in all, one intrinsic motivational category (personal seeking) was found to be the most significant factor to explain tourism expenditure patterns for active sport tourists. Implications of these findings for theory, practice and future research are discussed in the final chapter.

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## CHAPTER I

### INTRODUCTION

Standeven and De Knop (1999) suggested that sport tourism, a prevalent and growing phenomenon, did not just develop in the 20th century. Baron Pierre de Coubertaine, the father of the Modern Olympic Games gave support for the development of sport tourism. He believed that sport brings people together and in doing so contributes to a better understanding between peoples and nations (Kurtzman, 2005). It was de Coubertaine's concept that gave sport tourism its vitality and foundation (Kurtzman, 2005). The 19th century was an important period in the development of both sport and tourism, largely due to the industrial revolution. Travel and transport increased significantly with the development of steam-powered machinery. The steam train revolutionized travel, making it possible for sports participants and spectators to move beyond their own locality (Standeven & De Knop, 1999). As a result of continued expansion and availability of travel, as well as an increased focus on leisure and recreation, the business of sport tourism became a reality and gave impetus for the pursuit of business entrepreneurship, economic impact, and profitability within the tourism industry (Kurtzman, 2005).

While the growth and historical significance of sport and tourism is well documented, the last decade of the twentieth century was marked by a growing recognition of the inherent relationship between sport and tourism (De Knop, 1990; Gibson, 1998a; Standeven & De Knop, 1999). De Knop (1990) and Glyptis (1991) began to examine the role of sport and vacations from the perspective of tourists as active sports participants, proposing that not all who travel to sporting events do so to be

spectators; many travel to sporting events to participate in those events. Kurtzman and Zauhar (2005b) suggested that “in the past decade or so, sport has become a social phenomenon of great magnitude and perhaps, complexity” (p. 8). Zauhar (2004) noted that people all over the world are participating more in sports and traveling to certain destinations for the pleasures and enjoyments of physical activities. In addition, according to Bouchet, Lebrun, and Auvergne (2004), the tourism consumer is changing and expectations are greater today than in years past, mainly because of travelers putting a greater value on their free time.

De Knop (2004) indicated that the relationship between sport and tourism in our modern world is symbiotic. It is not simply that sport influences tourism producing an ever increasing range of treasured visitor experiences; tourism also influences sport. That symbiotic relationship that De Knop refers to occurs with such sporting events as the Summer and Winter Olympics, the FIFA World Cup, the Super Bowl, and the Wimbledon Tennis Championships. That mutual relationship can be further extended to vacations when the emphasis is on sport participation, such as mountain biking, hiking, or running marathons. Sport and tourism are now linked, and as sport grows globally, new and exciting possibilities are opening up to improve tourism experiences through sport and enhance sport development through tourism. Sport as an element of a business, particularly hospitality, is big, profitable and growing, with many tourists attending events miles away from where they live. As Higham and Hinch (2003) observed, a considerable amount of sporting activity is featured by travel while a considerable amount of tourism is featured by sport.

Both the growth in sport tourism and the role tourism plays in the U.S. national economy have led to the need for understanding the tourism service industry. There is an increased interest in understanding the underlying variables, specifically socio-demographic, socio-psychological, and travel-related that influence tourist travel and expenditures.

### **Defining Sport Tourism**

Weed and Bull (2004) provided a conceptualization of sport tourism as a social, economic and cultural phenomenon arising from the unique interaction of activity, people, and place. Only recently have sport and tourism professionals begun to consider the inherent relationship between the two, resulting in relatively scarce literature on the issue (Gibson, 1998a). However, sport tourism is becoming increasingly important in both the areas of sport and tourism. According to Standeven and De Knop (1999), sport is the whole range of competitive and noncompetitive active pursuits that individuals engage in at their own level, simply for enjoyment and training. Standeven and De Knop suggested that while no universal definition has been adopted, they define tourism as the temporary movement of people beyond their own home and work localities involving experiences unlike those of everyday life. The experiences might take place as part of a vacation or secondary to business travel. Deery, Jago, and Fredline (2004) proposed that sport tourism is basically sport event tourism and that it should be focused on competitive sports rather than recreational activities. They also suggested that participants in sport tourism must be purposely involved and that both positive and negative outcomes are part of the experience. Gammon and Robinson (2004) provided a more flexible definition of

sport tourism, they suggested that a sport tourist would be someone who travels and is primarily involved in active recreational participation.

Gibson (2003) combined both sport and tourism and suggested that sport tourism is leisure-based travel that takes individuals temporarily outside of their home communities to participate in physical activities, to watch physical activities, or to visit attractions associated with physical activities. She also wrote that there are three types of sport tourism: active sport tourism, event sport tourism, and nostalgia sport tourism. While Gibson's definition is the one most widely accepted within the current sport tourism research, Bouchet et al. (2004) defined sport tourism as tourists who stay at a certain destination, complemented or determined by at least one type of sport or physical activity. Bouchet et al. proposed five characteristics of sport tourism: (a) that actual physical involvement is essential; (b) the duration of the visit must be equal to or greater than two days and one night in order to differentiate it from a recreational stay; (c) the stay may or may not be organized by the client; (d) housing may be at a set location or itinerant; and (e) the sport tourism product is comprised of a group of services which are often tangible. The definitions included in this section promote the idea that sport can be experienced and enjoyed by tourists much like any other traditional type of tourist attraction. The current study used Gibson's 2003 definition to guide the research because it is the one most widely accepted within the current sport tourism field.

### **Economic Impacts of Sport Tourism**

According to the U.S. Travel Association (2011b), in 2010 travel and tourism generated \$1.8 trillion in economic impact, with \$759 billion spent directly by domestic and international travelers, which stimulated an additional \$1 trillion in other industries.



In addition, direct spending by resident and international travelers in the U.S. averaged \$2 billion a day, \$86.6 million an hour, \$1.4 million a minute, and \$24,000 a second (U.S. Travel Association, 2011a).

The importance of tourism expenditures has been recognized not only by the tourism industry itself but also by local, state, and national governments. Consequently, understanding tourism expenditure patterns has attracted a great deal of attention both from academic researchers and tourism practitioners. A key issue in strategic planning for facilities is to understand the expenditure patterns and activities of tourists during their visit to a particular destination (Mok & Iverson, 2000). In addition, “tourism has become an important economic sector in many parts of the world, and many regions, states, and local areas have identified expenditures by visitors as a potential source of economic growth” (Hodur & Leistritz, 2006, p. 64).

The economic impacts of sport tourism are not narrowly confined to a specific sporting event. Research shows that money is spent on meals, transportation, entertainment, attractions, and gifts regardless of the specific type of sports event. In economic terms, tourism has a relatively elastic demand (Standeven & De Knop, 1999). The overall elasticity of tourism and sport tourism specifically provides cities, states, and countries with a product that could increase revenues and generate part-time and full-time employment, which in turn stimulates the local economy. Jang, Bai, Hong, and O’Leary (2004) noted that travel expenditures normally include expenditures on transportation, lodging, food and beverage, and gifts and souvenirs, as well as entertainment and recreation.

Daniels, Norman, and Henry (2004) noted that the Travel Industry Association of America estimated that in a 2003, over 50 million adults in the United States traveled 50 miles or more to attend organized sport events, competitions, or tournaments as either a spectator or participant. Communities, large and small, are beginning to recognize the development potential of sport tourism; they understand the economic effects of sport events. Crompton (1999) analyzed the reasons why local governments invest in major sports facilities and identified four reasons for economic impact: increased community visibility, enhanced community image, stimulation of other development, and psychological reasons. Sport events have a tremendous economic potential for host cities. In 2009, according to Miller and Washington (2009), Las Vegas, Nevada, had an estimated 36.4 million visitors, with expenditures by visitors, including gaming, equaling \$35.2 billion dollars. Those expenditures included lodging, meals, transportation, shopping, cultural entertainment, and sports events such as professional boxing, UFC matches, the National Finals Rodeo, auto racing, arena football, UNLV basketball, and golf tournaments.

### **Link between Tourism Motivation and Economic Impacts**

The link between tourism motivation and economic impacts is diverse and far reaching. Downward and Lumsdon (2000) noted that the economic theory of consumer behavior implies that the demand for a good or service might be expressed as a function of tastes and preferences, income, and market prices. Consumer behavior is affected by internal and external influences: internal influences include demographics, lifestyle, personality, and motivation; external influences include culture, locality, ethnicity, family, social class, and lifestyle.

Kurtzman and Zauhar (2005a) suggested that consumer motives determine what people want to do or want to have, and the extent to which they want to do it or have it. When consumers “see, feel or conceive a connection between their needs and the product or service offered, incentives to follow up develop, suggesting the greater the need, the greater the incentive” (Kurtzman & Zauhar, 2005a, p. 23). Consumers evaluate the potential expenditure in terms of value for money and experiences to be gained or re-lived. After balancing these factors, the perceived value to the individual increases the consumers’ motivation and legitimizes their desire as to the worthiness of the sport tourism endeavor. In fact, both short and long term motivation usually guide a travelers’ behavior (Kurtzman & Zauhar, 2005a).

Several empirical studies have been conducted to examine the association between travel activity and travel spending (Cai, Hong, & Morrison, 1995; Cai, 1998; Dardis, Soberon-Ferrer, & Patro, 1994). Spots and Mahoney (1991) found that heavy spenders on travel were significantly different from non-heavy spenders in terms of trip-related characteristics and their travel activities. The results of the study indicated that greater involvement with recreation activity appeared as one of the variables that could distinguish heavy spenders from the other spender group. Active participation in recreation was a factor that positively influenced the level of expenditure.

As one may anticipate and as current research supports, the tourism consumer of today has evolved, mainly because travelers’ expectations are greater today than in years past and because travelers are putting greater meaning on their free time (Bouchet et al., 2004). In conjunction with the change, sport tourists have evolved as well; research shows they are looking for excitement and new experiences that will provide good and/or

new feelings, stimulating the senses. Bouchet et al. found that expectations with regard to vacations are greater today because they correspond to the desire to live intensely, attributing greater meaning to free time. Travelers are looking for excitement and new experiences that will provide enjoyable and/or new feelings while getting a bigger value for their free time.

### **Significance and Importance**

Weed and Bull (2004) researched the links between sports and tourism, largely focused on one element of sport tourism, namely, vacations involving sport either as participant or as a spectator. There is growing research interest in what motivates consumers to travel specifically as sport tourists (Bouchet et al. 2004; Deery et al., 2004; Compton, 1979; Crandall, 1980; Kurtzman & Zauhar, 2005a). Little research has been conducted that examines the connections between traveler motivation and travel expenditure patterns. This is surprising because in previous research tourism motives have been linked to tourism attitudes and behaviors as well as socio-demographic characteristics (Cai, 1998; Cai et al., 1995; Dardis et al., 1994; Thrane, 2002). The growing importance of the sport tourism industry, along with demographic, social, and economic changes within society highlighted the need for this study.

### **Purpose of the Study**

Over the past 25 years the concept of sport tourism has taken on numerous forms and broadened tourism and recreation research tremendously, providing the tourism industry with useful information to develop new marketing and promotion strategies. This information is valuable to the industry in order to attract sport tourists through product expansion, tourism packages, and target marketing. Travel destinations and the

travel industry as a whole could benefit by understanding sport tourist travel expenditure patterns.

It has been presumed that different motives for travel lead to different expenditure levels, although this has not yet been empirically tested. Prior research has shown that tourism expenditures depend on a number of factors (Cai et al., 1995; Cai, 1998; Dardis et al., 1994; Wang, Rompf, Severt, & Peerapatdit, 2006) including, purpose of the trip, travel party size, length of stay, type of travel activities participated in, and socio-demographic characteristics (Spots & Mahoney, 1991).

The purpose of this study is to examine if and how expenditures for golf are related to sport tourists' motives for travel. In reviewing the literature on this topic, two separate streams of research emerged: (1) one stream considers the economic impact of tourism and sport tourism, and (2) one stream focuses on the reasons or motives people have for travel and tourism. This study links these two separate streams of research by examining how sport tourists' motives for traveling and participating in golf affect their subsequent personal expenditures during the trip. Petrick, Backman, Bixler, and Norman (2002) noted that there is increasing competition for attracting golfers to individual sites, meaning it is becoming more important for managers to identify the variables which attract and retain their golfing clientele.

This study will provide the golf, sport tourism, and tourism industries with valuable information that can be used to create specific market and sales strategies. Understanding the impact of various expenditure patterns can be beneficial to consumers and destinations.

## **Theoretical Framework**

Within the framework of examining golfer's travel expenditure behaviors with motivation for travel, two important theories were considered: (1) economic theory of consumer behavior and (2) motivation for travel. First, Downward and Lumsdon (2000) noted that the economic theory of consumer behavior implies that the demand for a good or service might be expressed as a function of tastes and preferences, income, and market prices. They suggested that consumer behavior is affected by internal and external influences: internal influences include demographics, lifestyle, personality, and motivation; external influences include culture, locality, ethnicity, family, social class, and lifestyle.

Second, the internal influences of consumer behavior connect the economic theory of consumer behavior to the second theoretical framework, Iso-Ahola's (1982) Social Psychological Model of Tourism Motivation (SPMTM), known as the Seeking-Escaping Theory. Satisfaction that individuals expect to derive from involvement in a leisure activity is linked to two motivational forces: approach (seeking) and avoidance (escape). Essentially, "individuals perceive a leisure activity as a potential satisfaction producer for two major reasons: it provides certain intrinsic rewards, such as feelings of mastery and competence, and helps them leave the routine environment behind" (Iso-Ahola, 1982, p. 258). Iso-Ahola's model provides four motivational categories: personal escape, interpersonal escape, personal seeking, and interpersonal seeking. Snepenger, King, Marshall, and Uysal (2006) tested Iso-Ahola's model and developed 12 motivational statements that characterized the four motivation categories.

Iso-Ahola (1982) believed that internal factors could be linked to potential satisfaction. Therefore, individuals participate in leisure activities to derive satisfaction by seeking or escaping something. The awareness of the potential satisfaction or traveling leads individuals to develop goals or reasons for travel (e.g., to seek or escape). Iso-Ahola (1982) noted that these motivational forces influence travelers' decisions. There would seem to be an inherent relationship between individuals' attempting to reach satisfaction through traveling to play golf and their subsequent expenditures.

### **Research Question**

The question that guided this study was: What are the most influential motivational variables among Iso-Ahola's Social Psychological Model of Tourism Motivation affecting tourism expenditures for active sport tourists traveling to play golf?

### **Delimitations and Limitations**

The narrowed scope of the research was a delimiting factor. The researcher only studied individuals who traveled and participated in golf. Second, the researcher only studied one segment of the tourist spectrum, specifically active sport tourists. Third, the researcher only had access to a limited population in terms of data collection.

The first limitation was that data was predicated upon the assumption that respondents will respond accurately. The second limitation was that the ability to generalize the findings to other populations would be difficult. Specifically, the ability to generalize the findings to other active sport tourist populations would be difficult because the representative sample is very golf specific. The respondents in this study were golfers who specifically trained and went to college for golf; respondents were not the general golfing public. The third limitation was the use of an on-line survey, and only

individuals who had access to a computer could participate, which potentially skews the responses to a group who has greater access to technology.

### **Definitions**

For the purpose of this study, the following terms were defined as follows:

*Domestic Tourism*: comprises the activities of a resident visitor within the country of reference, either as part of a domestic tourism trip or part of an outbound tourism trip (World Tourism Organization, 2011).

*Extrinsic Motivation*: defined as simply participating in activities because of external rewards (Pelletier, Fortier, Vallerand, Tuson, & Briere, 1995).

*Intrinsic Motivation*: defined as engaging in an activity purely for the pleasure or satisfaction from participating in the activity (Pelletier, Fortier, Vallerand, Tuson, & Briere, 1995).

*Novelty*: defined as visiting someplace that is new or provides a unique stimulation (Petrick, 2002).

*Professional Golfers' Association of America (PGA)*: founded in 1916, the PGA of America is the largest working sports organization in the world (Golf 20/20, 2009)

*Pseudo and Intentional*: the pseudo choice to travel and participation is determined by external factors and the intentional choice is determined by the participant or spectator specifically. Regardless, the tourist has a basic attraction for the sport or activity in question (Kurtzman & Zauhar, 2005a).

*Push and Pull Motivations*: push factors for choosing a vacation are socio-psychological motives and the pull factors are motives that are stimulated by the destination itself (Crompton, 1979).



*Sport Tourism*: leisure-based travel that takes individuals temporarily outside of their home communities to participate in physical activities, to watch physical activities, or to visit attractions associated with physical activities (Gibson, 2003).

*Sport Tourist Motivation*: that set of needs and desires which predispose a person to travel for sporting events (Kurtzman & Zauhar, 2005a).

*Tourism Expenditure*: refers to the amount paid for the acquisition of consumption goods and services, as well as valuables, for own use or to give away, for and during tourism trips (World Tourism Organization, 2011).

*Travel/Tourism*: travel refers to the activity of a traveler; a traveler is someone who moves between different geographic locations, for any purpose and any duration (World Tourism Organization, 2011).

### **Chapter Summary**

With the rapid growth of the tourism market and more predominantly the sport tourism market, the expenditures associated with tourism have been expanding. However, identifying the rationale behind tourists' expenditure patterns can be difficult. The growing contribution of tourism to the economy has been accompanied by an increased interest in understanding the determinants which influence tourist expenditures (Seiler, Hsieh, Seiler, & Hsieh, 2002). Both the growth in international travel and the role tourism plays in the U.S. economy suggest the need for understanding the tourism service industry. Thus, there is an interest in understanding the underlying variables, specifically the socio-demographic and travel characteristics, which influence tourist expenditures (Seiler et al., 2002).

The strength of this study was that it examined the relationship of Iso-Ahola's social psychological model of tourism motivations on travel expenditure patterns for sport tourists. This study is one of the very few that examine the comprehensive effects of specific travel motivations on tourism expenditure patterns. The findings of this study could possibly suggest important marketing implications to both academic researchers and sport tourism industry practitioners.

## CHAPTER II

### REVIEW OF CURRENT LITERATURE

A large body of literature relative to sport, tourism, travel expenditures, and motivational theory provided the basis for this study. This chapter will review the theoretical and empirical literature and then correlate its relevance to reasons for linking active sport tourists' motivations for travel and their expenditure patterns.

The review of literature is organized into five sections. In the first section, an introduction to sport tourism is provided. The second section reviews studies relevant to travel expenditures. The third section reviews the different areas of sport tourism research. The fourth section reviews studies relevant to golf tourism and the final section focuses on sport tourism motivations with a review of motivational theories.

#### **Introduction to Sport Tourism**

The purpose of this section is to introduce the subject of sport tourism and review studies relevant to the subject area. Though the connection between sport and tourism seems fundamental, it is not until recently that the concept of sport tourism has been reviewed and studied within academia. Research on the connection between both subjects has increased and people are becoming more aware of the relationship and benefits of understanding sport tourism.

#### **Connection between Sport and Tourism**

The significance of physical activity and vacations has increased in popularity and has created growth in the tourism industry, specifically in sport tourism (Bouchet, Lebrun & Auvergne, 2004). Sport tourism is a prevalent and growing phenomenon; however, it did not just develop in the 20th century (Standeven & De Knop, 1999). According to

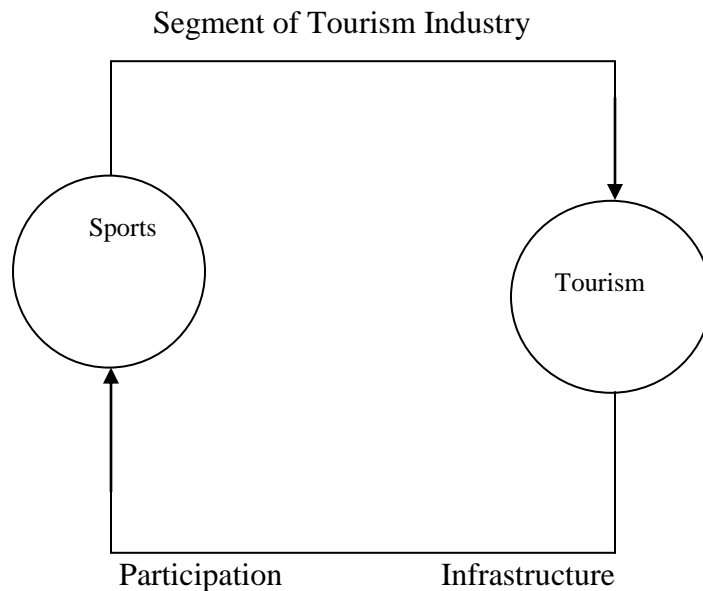
Gibson (1998a), sport tourism is merely a new adaptation on an old theme. The connection between sport and tourism can trace its beginnings back to the first Olympic Games, one of the earliest examples of a connection between the two (Standeven & De Knop, 1999). In the 19th century, the steam train, probably more than any other invention, revolutionized travel, making it practical for sports participants and spectators to move beyond their own locality (Standeven & De Knop, 1999).

While the growth and historical significance of sport and tourism is well documented, the last decade of the 20th century was marked by a growing recognition of the inherent relationship between sport and tourism (Gibson, 2003). In the 1980s, “Glyptis and De Knop began to investigate and write about the role of sport in vacations, primarily from the perspective of the tourist as an active sports participant” (Gibson, 2003, p. 205).

The relationship between sport and tourism in modern society is symbiotic (Standeven & De Knop, 1999). It is not simply that sport furthers tourism by offering an ever increasing range of visitor experiences; but tourism also aides sport (Standeven & De Knop, 1999). Tassiopoulos and Haydam (2008) wrote that the concept and scope of sport tourism activities are far from recent. Economic data suggests that “sport tourism is a multi-billion dollar global business and the fastest growing sector of the US \$4.5 trillion global travel and tourism industry” (Tassiopoulos & Haydam, 2008, p. 71).

Standeven and De Knop (1999) illustrated the interdependent relationship between sport and tourism (Figure 1). Their model of sport tourism identifies sport as a unique segment of the tourism industry. In addition, their model illustrates that the relationship between sport and tourism originates from some inherent interaction of sport

with tourism which, in turn, influences sports participation and the sports infrastructure. They also suggest that sport and tourism are now inextricably linked, and as globalization advances, new and exciting possibilities are opening up to enhance tourists' experiences through sport and enhance sport development through tourism. Gibson (1998b) wrote that not all sport tourists travel to take part in sport; some travel to watch sporting events. And some do both. Events such as the Olympic Games or FIFA World Cup are examples of sporting occasions that have become major tourist attractions. Sports events on a somewhat smaller scale, such as the U.S. Open tennis tournament and the Super Bowl, are part of the spectator centered sector of sport tourism. Likewise, tourism associated with professional, collegiate, and amateur sports are also considered part of sport tourism.



*Figure 1.* Segment of tourism industry: Adapted from *Sport Tourism* (1st ed.) by J. Standeven & P. De Knop, 1999, Champaign, IL: Human Kinetics.

## **Definition of Sport Tourism**

Weed and Bull (2004) provided a conceptualization of sport tourism as a social, economic and cultural phenomenon arising from the unique interaction of activity, people and place. Only recently have sport and tourism professionals begun to consider the inherent relationship between the two, suggesting that the literature is relatively scarce (Gibson, 1998a). However, sport tourism is becoming increasingly important in both the areas of sport and tourism. According to Standeven and De Knop (1999), sport is the whole range of competitive and noncompetitive active pursuits that individuals engage in at their own level, simply for enjoyment and training. Standeven and De Knop suggested that while no universal definition has been adopted, they define tourism as the temporary movement of people beyond their own home and work localities involving experiences unlike those of everyday life. The experiences might take place as part of a vacation or secondary to business travel. Deery, Jago, and Fredline (2004) proposed that sport tourism is basically sport event tourism and that it should be focused on competitive sports rather than recreational activities. They also suggest that participants in sport tourism must be purposely involved and that both positive and negative outcomes are part of the experience. Gammon and Robinson (2004) provided a more flexible definition of sport tourism, they suggest that a sport tourist would be someone who travels and is primarily involved in active recreational participation.

Gibson (2003) combined both sport and tourism and suggested that sport tourism is leisure-based travel that takes individuals temporarily outside of their home communities to participate in physical activities, to watch physical activities, or to visit attractions associated with physical activities. She also wrote that there are three types of

sport tourism: active sport tourism; event sport tourism; and nostalgia sport tourism.

While Gibson's definition is the one most widely accepted within the current sport tourism research, Bouchet, Lebrun, and Auvergne (2004) defined sport tourism as tourists who stay at a certain destination complemented or determined by at least one type of sport or physical activity. They suggested that sport tourists are tourists who stay at a certain destination, complemented or determined by at least one type of sport or physical activity. Bouchet et al. proposed five characteristics of sport tourism: (a) that actual physical involvement is essential; (b) the duration of the visit must be equal to or greater than two days and one night in order to differentiate it from a recreational stay; (c) the stay may or may not be organized by the client; (d) housing may be at a set location or itinerant; and (e) the sport tourism product is comprised of a group of services which are often tangible. The definitions included in the review promote the idea that sport can be experienced and enjoyed by tourists much like any other tradition type of tourist attraction.

### **Classifications of Sport Tourism**

Classifications of sport tourism are important to this study in that they help explain the overall structure of sport tourism, as well as help indicate where golf fits into the hierarchy of sport tourism. Glyptis (1982) investigated the relationship between sport and tourism in five European countries. Two key concepts that Glyptis' early work are that sport tourists may be either active or passive and that sports may be the primary purpose of the trip or be secondary to holidays that have other prime purposes (Weed & Bull, 2004). Traditionally golfers are considered active sport tourists travelling for a purpose.

The active/passive distinction is one that has been used subsequently by other researchers (Weed & Bull, 2004). Hall, for example, in his conceptual framework for adventure, health, and sport tourism, plots the level of activity against the level of competitiveness to derive a nine category matrix (Figure 2) (as cited in Weed & Bull, 2004). Hall's model has proven to be useful in that it distinguishes recreationally based activities from competitive sport categories. For the purpose of this study, golf is considered a recreation based activity.

<div> <div>Less active ←</div> <div>→ More active</div> </div>			
<div> <div>Non-competitive</div> <div>↑</div> <div>↓</div> <div>Competitive</div> </div>	<b>Health Tourism</b> (e.g. spa tourism, health travel)	<b>Health Tourism</b> (e.g. fitness retreats)	<b>Health Tourism</b> (e.g. whitewater rafting, SCUBA diving, hiking)
	<b>Adventure travel</b> (e.g. yacht chartering)	<b>Tourism activities</b> ... contains elements of health, sport and adventure (e.g. cycling, sea kayaking)	<b>Adventure travel</b> (e.g. climbing)
	<b>Sport tourism</b> (e.g. spectating)	<b>Sport tourism</b> (e.g. lawn bowls)	<b>Sport tourism</b> (e.g. ocean racing)

*Figure 2.* Model of adventure, health and sports tourism. Adapted from “Adventure, sport and health tourism” by C. Hall, 1992, in *Special interest tourism* (pp. 141-158) by B. Weiler & C. M. Hall (Eds.), London: Belhaven Press.

To further expand on the current sport tourism classification system, Weed and Bull (2004) created participant profiles as another form of sport tourists' classification. The three profiles include (a) primary sport tourists, (b) associated experience sport tourists, and (c) tourists interested in sport.

For the purpose of this study, Weed and Bull's primary sport tourist classification was explored. Weed and Bull (2004) suggested that primary sport tourists are the most straightforward group to address and are the group that perhaps comprises the typical



sports tourism market. However, Weed and Bull concluded that this group is inconsistent and it would be very difficult to assign any common characteristics across these sport tourists, except that sport is the primary motivation for their trips. According to Weed and Bull, the sports tourists included as primary sport tourists are elite athletes, outdoor adventure and alternative sports participants, athletic event spectators, committed football and cricket fans, golf participants, and participants in mass participation sports events.

In addition, Gibson (2004) wrote that Cohen was the first to suggest that there was more than one type of tourist, suggesting that tourists who prefer familiarity will seek destinations and accommodations that are similar to those experiences at home. Tourists who prefer originality are more tolerant of change and will seek out less familiar destinations. Sport tourists who travel to play golf fit Cohen's sport tourist classification. Gibson suggested that it is possible to engage in behaviors associated with two or three types of sport tourism on the same trip. Someone might be both an active and event sport tourist; for example, a golf tourist who plays golf while also attending a PGA Tour event on the same trip. The ability to classify and/or categorize a sport tourist, specifically a golf sport tourist, is important because it sufficiently differentiates the active sport tourist's categories from the general sport tourist's categories.

### **Travel Expenditures**

The purpose of this section is to review the relevant literature on tourism expenditure patterns, including golfing expenditures. This section is intended to examine the long established, yet until recently little recognized importance of travel expenditures within sport tourism. Though the connection between tourism and travel expenditures are well established, the connection between sport tourism and travel expenditures is

gaining global significance. Research on the subject has increased and people are becoming more aware of the relationship and benefits of understanding travel expenditures specifically for sport tourism.

### **Travel-Related Expenditures**

A theoretical basis of travel expenditure research can be found in consumer demand theory and the economic theory of consumer behavior. Consumer demand theory refers to how consumers choose goods or services, given a change in the factor (i.e. income, price, etc.) being analyzed (Bryant, 1992). Consumer demand theory assumes that because consumers have limited income they will tend to maximize their total satisfaction, subject to the constraint of limited income. Understanding the basic and theoretical foundations for travel related expenditures provides background information for the study. Prior research on expenditure patterns, specifically for sport tourists, provides a framework for establishing and understanding golf related travel expenditures.

Prior research has shown that tourism expenditures depend on a number of factors. For example, purpose of the trip, travel party size, length of stay, type of travel activities participated in, and socio demographic characteristics all appear to correlate with tourism expenditures (Spots & Mahoney, 1991; Thrane, 2002). Understanding the expenditure patterns and activities of tourists during their visit to a particular destination is a key issue in the strategic planning of facilities and amenities (Mok & Iverson, 2000).

In order to understand where consumers are inclined to travel when they spend all of that money, the Travel Industry Association of America (TIA) gathered data from the federal government and national travel organizations (Wellner, 2000). Wellner found

that the U.S. domestic travel market is an annual \$500 billion industry. According to Wellner the single largest category that consumers spend on when they are traveling in the United States is food. Consumers spent nearly a quarter of their travel budget on food in 1998, totaling \$117.2 billion, while lodging accounted for only 20% of total expenditure. Travel spending in the U.S. is highly concentrated; 42% of all domestic travel expenditures occurred in just five states: California, Florida, New York, Texas, and Illinois (Wellner, 2000). According to Miller and Washington (2011a), in 2010 the most popular travel destinations for golfers were Florida, South Carolina, North Carolina, California, and Arizona.

In 2010 domestic and international travelers spent \$758.7 billion in the U.S., an increase of 7.7% over 2009 (U.S. Travel Association, 2011b). According to the Travel and Tourism Market Research Handbook 2010, leisure travel accounts for 74% of all domestic person-trips or over 1.5 billion person-trips annually (Miller & Washington, 2011b). The reported purposes of leisure trips are: personal leisure, 39%; visit friends or relatives, 36%; getaway weekend, 15%; and general vacation, 10% (Miller & Washington, 2011b). The following are the most common trip activities: shopping, 30%; attend a social/family event, 27%; outdoor activities, 11%; city/urban sightseeing, 10%; gambling, 8%; and golf 2% (Miller & Washington, 2011b). Approximately 40% of leisure trips include a stay at a hotel, motel, or resort; the mean of leisure trip spending is \$360 (Economic Research, 2009). This data suggested that active participation in leisure travel is a factor that positively influenced expenditure levels.

Jang, Bai, Hong, and O'Leary (2004) profiled Japanese pleasure travelers by using the 1997 In-Flight Survey data. The pleasure travelers were profiled by income

level and investigated the determinants of travel expenditures in the U.S. Jang et al. expected that higher income earners would spend more while traveling. Japanese who travel with companions were expected to purchase more travel-related goods and services than single travelers, thus demonstrating higher expenditures. The findings suggested that socio-demographic and trip-related variables including age, occupation and travel companion contributed significantly to explaining travel expenditures. In addition, expenditures on food and beverages, and entertainment and recreation indicated that the high income group spent more than the lower income group (Jang et al., 2004). Studies on these expenditure patterns help describe the size of each travel market and it also leads to the identification of attributes influencing travel expenditure characteristics among market segments (Jang et al., 2004). These findings are similar to Fish and Waggles' (1996) study and should directly link to golf travelers because golfers tend to be higher income individuals compared to the general traveling public.

A few empirical studies have been conducted to examine the association between travel activity and travel spending. Spots and Mahoney (1991) found that heavy spenders on travel were significantly different from non-heavy spenders in terms of trip related characteristics and their travel activities. The results of the study indicated that greater involvement with recreation activity appeared as one of the variables that could distinguish heavy spenders from the other spender group. Suggesting active participation in recreation was a factor that positively influenced the level of expenditure. Thus, actively participating in golf could influence the level of expenditure.

Wang, Rompf, Severt, and Peerapatdit (2006) examined the effects of socio-demographic, travel-related and psychographic variables on travel expenditures. The

travel expenditure categories studied included lodging, meals, and restaurants, attractions and festivals, entertainment, shopping, transportation and total expenditures, all of which are related to travel expenditures for leisure and recreation travel, which includes golf.

Two important findings from Wang et al. (2006) that have a practical application to the current study are that household income was found to be the most significant factor influencing expenditure patterns for most of the expenditure categories. Furthermore, length of stay was found to have a significant impact on expenses relating to lodging, meals and restaurants, transportation, attraction and festivals, and shopping. Again, length of stay has a positive relationship with overall travel expenditures, suggesting that understanding the motives that could increase overall length of stay at a facility could provide positive relationship with total travel expenditures.

Seiler, Hsieh, Seiler, and Hsieh (2002) developed a travel expenditure model using socio-demographic and travel characteristics to identify the important determinants affecting travel expenditure for Taiwanese travelers visiting the United States. Results showed that travel party size is positively related to expenditure. However, travel party size is negatively related to length of stay. Thus, people traveling with a larger party size tend to spend more money but stay for a shorter period of time. The converse is also true. Moreover, the model indicated that Taiwanese travelers with higher income or traveling to see friends or relatives were likely to take longer trips (Seiler et al., 2002). Results also indicated that people who took trips to visit friends and relatives tended to stay longer.

Prior research on tourism expenditures has suggested that length of stay at a destination is positively related to expenditures (Wang et al., 2006). Thus, the longer

visitors stay at a facility, the more money they will spend, all else being equal. Research has also shown that the distance traveled to visit tourist attractions affects expenditures positively (Downward, 2003). Hence, it is to be expected that visitors living further away from the destination will spend more money than locals.

A study by Nogawa, Yamaguchi, and Hagi (1996) explored Japanese sport tourists. Cross country skiers were compared with a group that participated in a walking event traditionally viewed as an event for senior citizens. Lodging and transportation made up approximately 70% of the total budget for both groups. These two items were the main expenditures for sport tourists regardless of travel duration. The walking group spent twice as much on gifts and souvenirs as did those in the cross country skiing group. The cross country skiing group spent considerably less money on food, souvenirs, and other items than did the domestic Japanese travelers. These findings suggested that the fundamental sport seekers tended to spend less on sport travel. Mok and Iverson (2000) researched Taiwanese travelers to Guam and found that heavy spenders were highly attracted to shopping and spent more on local expenditure categories including meals, tours, transportation, and entertainment.

There is an increased interest in understanding the underlying variables, specifically socio-psychological and travel characteristics, which influence tourist expenditures. Reviewing prior research on expenditure patterns relating to lodging, food and beverage, household income, and entertainment and recreational activities provides a better understanding of how specific expenditure patterns could explain golfers travel patterns and their motivations to spend. In addition, the review of literature can provide the golf industry with valuable information that can be used to create specific marketing

and sales strategies. Furthermore, the findings from the above studies suggest that travel expenditure levels have a close relationship to trip activities.

### **Golf Expenditures**

Beyond its value as a sport and recreational activity, golf is at the heart of a major industry cluster that generates jobs, business, economic development, and tax revenues for communities throughout the country (Golf 20/20, 2009). According to Golf 20/20 the U.S. golf economy generated \$76 billion in goods and services in 2005. According to the National Golf Foundation, golfers spend about \$26 billion a year on golf travel, 75% of which goes to the hotel, transportation, and food and beverage industries (Miller & Washington, 2011a). Golf 20/20 reported the average spending per golf trip in the U.S. in 2005 was \$451.75 per person. Golf resort managers attempting to target specific groups of sport tourists would do well to pay attention to the expenditure patterns, average number of trips and reasons for travel so that more effective marketing strategies can be created. For example, the average golf tourist spent \$452 per person per trip and total golf related travel expenditures in 2005 amounted to an estimated \$18.0 billion (Golf 20/20, 2009).

Attempting to provide valuable marketing and management information to local policy makers, Downward and Lumsdon (2000) suggested that tourism destinations comprise a number of elements and features which combine to attract staying or day visitors. Golf facilities/resorts attempt to provide features or amenities above and beyond the main attraction of the golf course that could attract golfers to stay longer. Increased spending within the other amenities of the golf facility could provide additional revenue streams and affect overall marketing and management strategies.

Hennessey, MacDonald, and MacEachern (2008) attempted to determine whether there were differences among visitors to golf destinations based on their golfing frequency in the previous year. Golfers were divided into three categories based on golfing frequency: infrequent; moderate; and dedicated. Their research indicated that there were significant differences based on the variables and golf frequency.

Hennessey et al. (2008) concluded that dedicated golfers within this study spend greater than 25% of their travel expenditures on golf, which supports the data presented by the National Golf Foundation. Concluding that those golfers were more likely to stay in more expensive hotels and resorts, as well as spend more money locally. Conversely, the infrequent and moderate golfers in their study may seek more economical golfing trips based on the best prices. Hennessey et al. also concluded that information gathered from their study can assist golf and tourism marketers with information that can be used to create market strategies, branding strategies for specific golfing destinations, and establish systems of customer relations marketing, all based on golfing frequency and expenditures. The same benefits from this study in relation to golf and tourism marketers are benefits that can be derived from the current study.

### **Leisure and Recreation Expenditures**

According to the Miller and Washington (2011b), the purpose of leisure trips vary: personal leisure, 39%; visit friends and relatives, 36%; getaway weekend, 15%; and general vacation, 10%. In addition, Miller and Washington note that of all leisure travel, weekend trips (four nights or less, including Saturday) are taken 53% of the time, extended trips (five nights or more) are taken 28% of the time and weekday trips (no Saturday stay) are taken 19% of the time. This information coincides with travel



information provided by Golf 20/20, showing that those active sport tourists who are traveling to play golf are a representative sample of the overall leisure traveling public.

Fish and Waggle (1996) wrote that holiday and vacation travel is one of the most important activities in the United States. They compared the impact that life cycle income and current income have on the number of vacations and pleasure trips taken and the trip expenditures of families. They hypothesized that permanent income or lifetime average income of households becomes the significant component for determining household expenditures. Current income may have a secondary effect, but total expenditures are a good measure of a household's permanent income and forecaster of travel expenditures and number of trips, according to the authors.

Fish and Waggle (1996) suggested that vacation and pleasure travel is certainly considered to be a luxury, which means greater relative spending on the item by families at higher income levels. Total expenditures are also more highly correlated with travel behavior and may better explain the variability of family trip decisions. In many travel expenditure studies, income has been commonly used to predict consumer expenditure behavior (Cai, 1998; Dardis, Derrick, Lehfeld, & Wolfe, 1981; Fish & Waggle, 1996; Wang et al., 2006). According to Fish and Waggle, permanent income is the most significant variable for forecasting trips and spending.

Thrane (2002) focused on the relationship between visitors' interest in jazz music as a motive for attending a jazz music festival and their subsequent personal expenditures during the festival. Research on tourism expenditures has suggested that length of stay at a destination is positively related to expenditures (Downward, 2003; Thrane, 2002). Thus, the longer visitors stay at a festival the more money they will spend, all else being

equal. Thrane (2002) and Jang et al. (2004) suggested that the distance traveled to visit tourist attractions affects expenditures positively. Therefore, it is to be expected that visitors living further away from an event or destination will spend more money than local people.

A number of tourism studies have documented that household income has a positive influence on tourism expenditures in general (Cai, 1998; Fish & Waggle, 1996). Cai, Hong, and Morrison (1995) concluded that prior research that has examined the determinants of travel expenditures has been conducted in association with the U.S. household expenditure on travel and recreation products and services. Consumer spending has increased significantly on recreation and leisure related products, and as a form of leisure behavior, consumer spending on travel and tourism has increased as well (Cai et al., 1995). The increase in tourism spending on leisure related products and travel has become important for the businesses in the markets of lodging, foodservice, transportation, and entertainment (Cai et al., 1995).

Based on the 1990 Consumer Expenditure Survey, Cai et al. (1995) examined the expenditure patterns of U.S. households, especially food, lodging, transportation, and sightseeing/entertainment expenditures. They analyzed a set of socio-demographic and cultural variables to verify the factors affecting U.S. households. Results from the study vary greatly. Leisure travelers ranging in age from 25 to 34 tend to spend less on food relative to those over the age of 65, the relationship between lodging expenditures and the younger travelers were negative, meaning leisure travelers from age 25 to 34 spend less on lodging relative to those over the age of 65. Dardis et al. (1981) found that expenditures on recreation declines as the age of the household head increases. Marital

status was found to be significant for all expenditure types except for sightseeing and entertainment, supporting the idea that tourism activities of husbands and wives are complements rather than substitutes. Occupation was found to be a significant factor in expenditure behavior; the higher the educational level of the household head, the more the household spent on the four types of leisure travel products and services.

Cai (1998) also examined U.S. lodging expenditures by relating the amount spent on leisure trips to demographic and socio-economic characteristics. These findings indicate that well-educated, high income earners who are married, white, worked full time or part time, and owned a house tended to spend more lodging dollars on vacation, especially when traveling in the summer. However, those who had more children were found to spend less on vacation and lodging.

Socio-demographic variables have been widely used to predict the level of travel or recreational expenditure (Dardis, et al., 1981). The age of the household head, education, and occupation are also important in explaining the recreation expenditures of U.S. households. Dardis et al. suggested that among the items to which households have allocated increasing amounts of their dollars are recreation and travel related goods and services. Therefore, they examined the impact of various household characteristics on recreation expenditures and found that income plays a major role in determining recreation expenditures. These findings are similar to those of Cai et al. (1995) and Wang et al. (2006). In addition, Dardis, et al. found that recreation expenditures were positively related to income.

## **Sport Tourism Research**

The purpose of this section is to review the studies relevant to the categories of sport tourism, including active sport tourism, event sport tourism, and nostalgia sport tourism. In addition, to review literature specific to demographic information related to sport tourists. Research on the three subject areas has increased and people are becoming more aware of differences between them.

### **Active Sport Tourism**

Active sport tourists are individuals who pursue physical involvement in competitive or noncompetitive sports while traveling. Gibson, Attle, and Yiannakis (1998) introduced the term “sport lover” to describe the growing travel market represented by individuals who are physically active and prefer to remain so while on holiday (i.e. playing golf). Delpy (1998) profiled the active sport tourist as physically active, college educated, relatively affluent, and 18 to 44 years old. The average golfer is a 39-year-old male, who is married, and has an average household income of \$87,300 (Golf 20/20, 2009).

Much of the active sport tourism research focuses on individuals who take part in one specific sport (e.g., golf, mountain biking, fishing, tennis). Gibson (1998a) suggested that active sport tourism refers to participation in sports away from the home community. Suggesting that while it would be incorrect to overemphasize the attraction of active sport tourism for the majority of the American population, there is a sizeable minority that selects a vacation destination based on sporting facilities. Active sport tourists appear to be college educated, relatively affluent, and willing to roam in search of the ultimate sport experience (Gibson, 1999a). Golf resorts and other segments of the hospitality

industry have become increasingly aware of the need to provide top-of-the-line facilities for the active sport tourist. Gibson wrote that resorts have become meccas for the active sport tourist. It is suggested that “championship golf courses, challenging, well groomed alpine ski runs, high quality tennis courts, a wide range of water sports, and modern fitness facilities lure the discerning active sport tourist” (Gibson, 1998a, p. 9). Active sport tourists who are golfers are attracted to resorts and chose their vacation destination based on the activities and facilities offered at the resort. For example, golfers may chose a vacation destination based on a nearby famous golf course or exclusive resort, thus supporting Gibson’s research and linking golfers to active sport tourism.

### **Event Sport Tourism**

Understanding the characteristics of a sport tourist is important information when defining event sport tourism and its participants. From the perspective of the destination, sport event tourism is the development and marketing of sport events to obtain economic and community benefits (Hudson, 2003). To the consumer, it is travel for the purpose of participating in, or viewing, a sport event (Hudson, 2003). Relating event sport tourism to the golf industry is easy to do because many golf enthusiasts follow professional golfers and thousands of fans attend major tournaments.

Not all sport tourists travel to take part in sport; some travel to watch sports events, and some do both (Gibson, 1998b). The Olympics or FIFA World Cup are examples of sporting events that have become major tourist attractions. But many sporting events take place on a much smaller scale and are as much a spectator-centered event as the larger events. There are many national and international events that are included as a spectator-centered event. Those events include the U.S Open Tennis

tournament, the Super Bowl, The Masters golf tournament, the Kentucky Derby, the Wimbledon Tennis Championships, and the British and U.S. Golf Opens. Traditionally, event sport tourism is concerned with the development and marketing of sporting events to obtain economic and community benefits.

### **Nostalgia Sport Tourism**

Nostalgia sport tourism is the least studied of the three types of sport tourism. For the majority of nostalgia sports tourists, sport is not the prime purpose of their trip. Weed and Bull (2004) suggested that it may be part of their decision making process and many sports museums or halls of fame will be must see attractions for many tourists interested in sport. Most of the existing work on nostalgia sport tourism relates to sports halls of fame and is framed within the context of sociology (Gibson, 2003). Fairley's (2003) study of a group of fans who took an annual trip to follow their Australian Rules Football team was one of the first analysis of nostalgia sport tourism. The group took a five-day bus trip to watch the team play in another city. The findings indicated that nostalgia was a key element of the experience and nostalgic recollections of past trips were found to be an important basis for repeated travel and socializing with new members. The study concluded that group-based nostalgia could play a more significant role in fan travel behavior than first thought.

Gammon described two journeys that take place during nostalgia sports tourism, the journey made to the attraction or event and the imagined journey that takes place once there (as cited in Weed & Bull, 2004). Gammon included visits to sports museums, such as the Wimbledon Tennis Museum, visits to sports halls of fame, such as the National Basketball Hall of Fame, and participation in 'sports fantasy camps', where sports

tourists are coached by former sports heroes or take part in sport in famous venues (as cited in Weed & Bull, 2004). Nostalgia sport tourism is one of many motivations for sports tourism participation for some, visiting sports halls of fame or famous sports venues may be seen as a pilgrimage.

The active sport tourist who travels to play golf also tends to buy golf equipment and golf magazines. They will travel to a professional golf event; they will travel to famous golf courses (e.g., St. Andrews and Pebble Beach) and golf museums because of their passion for the game. It is important to understand the golfer as a whole because traveling to a destination to play golf is just a small part of the larger travel picture.

### **Sport Tourist Demographics**

Sport tourists as a type of tourist have been identified in the literature for many years. Gibson suggested that the participants are overwhelmingly white, middle class, and more likely to be men than women (as cited in Higham, 2005). There is a growing body of information that has investigated the influence of life stage or family life cycle on sport tourists preferences and demographics. Gibson and Yiannakis found that preference from some tourist roles (such as the active sport tourist, thrill seeker and action seeker) declined with age, whereas preferences for other tourist roles increased with age (as cited in Higham, 2005). Higham noted that women participate less than men in sport tourism travel. Gibson (2003) found that in reference to active sport tourism, vacations were more popular with individuals under the age of 40. The National Golf Foundation reported that the average age of a golfer was 38-years-old, and that the average golfer is married and has an average household income of \$75,000. Additionally, 93% of golfers are male (Perfect Approach Media, 2012). These golfer

demographics are very similar to the overall demographic of the active sport tourist described by Gibson (1998b).

Similar demographic patterns are found in other active sport tourism activities. In a study of 1,277 New England residents, Gibson and Yiannakis found that 621 respondents labeled themselves active sport tourists and were between 18 and 44 years of age (as cited in Gibson, 1998b). In addition, 57% of the male and 44% of the female respondents preferred to remain physically active and engage in their favorite sports while on vacation. Furthermore, it was found that 33% of these active sport tourists had annual household incomes of \$70,000 or more, 76% were college educated, and 23% had earned advanced degrees.

Based on their research, Gibson, Attle, and Yiannakis developed a profile of the typical active sport tourist (Table 1) (Gibson, 1998b). The characteristics which distinguish active sport tourist from other types of tourists are that active sport tourists are more likely to be male, relatively affluent, and college educated. Gender, race, and social class are variables used to determine the participation patterns of active sport tourist (Gibson 1998b).

Sports commonly associated with active sport tourism in the United States include mountain biking, golf, skiing, tennis, swimming, scuba diving, and running. Gibson (1998b) presented some interesting participation patterns: women reported lower participation rates than males, except in swimming and aerobics; the highest rates of participation were reported by individuals between 25 and 34. Additionally, household income of active sport tourists was between \$50,000 and \$74,000. Gibson also found that white males with advanced degrees and higher-income are more likely to participate



in active sport tourism, specifically in golf and tennis. The general conclusion is that the profile for an active sport tourist is an individual who is better educated and more affluent. Gibson also suggested that tourism has become more accessible in the 20<sup>th</sup> century because of mass transportation. However, Gibson suggested that there still exists inequality in the availability to participate in leisure experiences/active sport tourism.

Table 1

*Profile of Action Sport Tourism Individuals Likely to Engage*

Characteristics of the active sport tourist
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>○ More likely to be male</li> <li>○ Affluent individuals</li> <li>○ College Educated</li> <li>○ Willing to travel long distances to participate in their favorite sports</li> <li>○ Likely to engage in active sport tourism well into retirement</li> <li>○ Tend to engage in repeat vacation activities</li> </ul>

*Note.* Adapted from “Active sport tourism: who participates?” by H. J. Gibson, 1998, *Leisure Studies*, 17, 155-170.

The importance of understanding the demographics of active sport tourists, particularly golfers, is that it provides information on patterns of participation within the tourism industry, thus pinpointing the specific demographic that this study targeted. In addition, golf resorts and facilities attempting to target specific groups of sport tourists should pay attention to empirical findings so that more effective marketing strategies can be fostered.

### **Golf Tourism**

This section explores the relationship between golf tourism, expenditures, and socio-psychological motives. So far, no tourism studies have attempted to relate golf spending behavior to the motives for tourism. In a way, this is surprising because in

previous tourism research, tourism motives have been linked to tourism attitudes and behaviors as well as socio-demographic characteristics.

Golf tourists are considered a unique but growing area within the sport tourism segment. Specifically, marketing to golf tourists has gained importance due to increased competition and economic changes. Tassiopoulos and Haydam (2008) noted that the targeting of tourism marketing segments drives repeat visitations to tourism destinations because it allows destination marketers to accurately determine the needs and expectations of targeted tourists and develop more effective marketing strategies. Recently, sport tourism has become widely regarded as a means of generating significant and sustainable economic growth through investment, tourism, and the development of service sector interest (Weed & Bull, 2004).

Tassiopoulos and Haydam (2008) suggested that golf tourism is relatively easy to conceptualize, yet it is less clear as to what specifically constitutes a golf tourist. Golf tourism is defined by Readman (2003) as travel for noncommercial reasons to participate in golf activities away from the traveler's local environment. Golf 20/20 (2009) described golf tourism as a primary motivating factor for travel, or, as an enjoyable activity while traveling.

Golf 20/20 (2009) suggested that golf tourists can be classified into three generic categories: the avid golfer, the core golfer, and the occasional golfer. The avid golfer plays 25 or more rounds of golf per year while traveling and is a person who often arranges to travel with golf as the primary focus of the trip and commonly travels during non-peak golf season. This category of golfer prefers renowned, high-quality golf courses, the availability of night life entertainment and restaurants, as well as mid-to-

high-end accommodations. Golf 20/20 suggested that the core golfers enjoy playing 8 to 24 rounds of golf per year while traveling for business purposes where a golf course is attached to or affiliated with conference centers and hotels (as cited in Tassiopoulos & Haydam, 2008). Tassiopoulos and Haydam wrote the occasional golfer according to Golf 20/20; is a person who plays one to seven rounds of golf per year while traveling and is more likely to consider golfing as an activity while traveling but is not likely to make the destination selection solely based on golf considerations. This golfer generally prefers good quality golf courses that are reasonably priced and are playable by golfers at all skill levels. The family golfer is attracted to golfing destination that offers family activities, outdoor attractions, with mid to high end accommodations (Tassiopoulos & Haydam, 2008). Golf 20/20 (2009) indicated that the associated experience golf tourists can be further classified into avid, non-fan and non-participating fans. An avid fan is a person who expresses a high degree of interest in golf, a non-fan is a person who indicates no interest in golf, and a non-participating fan is a person who expresses at least some degree of interest in golf but is not a participant. For the purposes of this study, all three definitions of golf tourists are considered as active sport tourists.

Globally golf tourism is considered a major activity both as a direct form of special interest travel and as an adjunct to other forms of travel (Hall, 1992, as cited in Weed & Bull, 2004). It is estimated by Readman (2003) that there are over 60 million golfers across the world. Of this, 44% of the market is located in the United States, 25% in Japan and 12% in Europe (Readman, 2003). In addition, Lim and Patterson (2008) estimated that there are between 25,000-30,000 golf courses worldwide serving a market of 60 million golfers, spending around US \$20 million per year. In the past few years the

popularity of golf has grown fast and the arrival of tourists to international golfing destinations has grown in conjunction. The value of golf tourism has grown by 8% in 1998-1999 alone and is currently estimated at US \$10 billion annually, excluding the Far East market (Tassiopoulos & Haydam, 2008). Golf, therefore, represents the largest sport related travel market and this market is served by its own trade association, the International Association of Golf Tour Operators (IAGTO) (Readman, 2003). In addition, since 1989 there has been a 50% increase in the number of global golf tourists (Tassiopoulos & Haydam, 2008).

The concept of novelty plays a significant part in the consideration of the golf tourist (Petrick, 2002; Weed & Bull, 2004). Petrick (2002) described novelty as visiting someplace that is new or provides unique stimulation. Petrick noted that age was determined to be a good indicator of novelty, not education or income. He also noted that young golfers are more likely to be novelty seekers and frequent golfers are more likely to avoid novelty. For some golf tourists on their first golf trip, the novelty of a different type of vacation is likely to have been a significant element in the trip decision-making process (Weed & Bull, 2004). For more experienced participants, the novelty of taking part in a new destination of “collecting places” may be an important motivating factor (Weed & Bull, 2004), suggesting that novelty could provide a motivation to travel and participate in golf, which in turn could affect overall travel expenditures.

Petrick (2002) noted that current research confirms that novelty plays a role in the decision making processes that tourist utilize in their choices of destinations. Petrick’s conclusion regarding the role of novelty in decision making supports Crompton’s (1979) theory on motivations for pleasure travel. Crompton defined novelty as a new experience

but it does not necessarily mean new knowledge. In his study, respondents stated that it was their preference to visit a previously unvisited destination on vacation which may suggest that novelty or a new experience was important to many tourists. Being in the company of like-minded people is a further enhancement to the experience, highlighting again the importance of the interaction of activity, people, and place (Weed & Bull, 2004).

Readman (2003) suggested that a study of golf tourism could encapsulate virtually any form of golf participation including active domestic participation; business or incentive golf; or travel simply to observe golf. Readman noted that the majority of golf trips for Americans are short, organized trips of four to six days and include three or four rounds of golf. Americans who travel abroad do so in relatively small numbers, the reason for travel is most often a “once in a lifetime” trip to well known championship courses in other countries.

The results of the golf tourism research are difficult to apply to all sport tourists or even active sport tourists, but the research does provide a meaningful and practical outcome regarding the relationship between active sport tourism, golf, and related expenditures.

### **Tourism Motivation**

This review is focused on the pleasure vacation traveler and is concerned with the variety of motives and participation patterns that influence sport tourist travel. The purpose of this section is to review relevant literature on tourism motivations and motivations as they relate to sport travel and participation. Crandall (1980) provided a summary of the basic and applied uses of leisure/motivational research. According to

Crandall, the basic and applied uses include using needs to predict leisure choices and demand patterns, providing the most need-fulfilling leisure counseling, basing activity packages on contemporary needs and activities, designing the environment to facilitate relevant needs in activities and to optimize programming and sustainability to meet consumer needs.

One of the key motivations for tourism, according to researchers (Crandall, 1980; Crompton, 1979), is a desire to experience things that would not normally be experienced in everyday work or leisure lives. Many sports tourists may also engage in activities undertaken while on tourist trips in their home environment and, as such, it is likely that these activities already provide some level of stimulation (Weed & Bull, 2004). Tourism literature similarly identifies motivation as something that occurs when there is a need. Crompton (1979) wrote that the underlying principle is that people are trying to reach a state of equilibrium among physical, psychological, and social aspects within one's self.

The travel and tourism industry is often divided into four segments: personal business travel, government or corporate business-travel, visiting friends and relatives, and pleasure vacation travel (Crompton, 1979). Crompton noted that most research insists that motivation is only one of the many variables that could contribute to explaining tourist behavior and choices. Dann suggested when reviewing literature pertaining to sport and tourism motivation it becomes clear that the surplus of explanations offered are often dependent upon the interpretation of what constitutes motivation and in some cases whether it is important to distinguish motive from motivation (as cited in Robinson & Gammons, 2004). Tourism motivation research

demonstrates the myriad of conscious and sub conscious reasons for travel, which in turn effectively illustrates the complexity of this area of study (Robinson & Gammons, 2004).

### **Sport Tourism Motivation**

Owners, managers, and leaders of the sport tourism industry likely value knowing what motivates their consumers. Traditionally, motivation to travel or engage in some form of tourism is defined as that set of needs and desires which predispose a person to act in a specific goal directed way (Kurtzman & Zauhar, 2005a). It is suggested that “motivation concerns energy, direction, persistence, and equifinality-all aspects of activation and intention” (Ryan & Deci, 2000, p. 69). Motivation has been a central and constant issue in the field of psychology, for it is at the core of biological, cognitive, and social guideline. “People can be motivated because they value an activity or because there is strong external coercion” (Ryan & Deci, 2000, p. 69).

It is suggested that “consumer motives determine what people want to do or want to have and the extent to which they want to do it or have it” (Kurtzman & Zauhar, 2005a, p. 23). When consumers “see, feel or conceive a connection between their needs and the product or service offered, incentives to follow up develop, suggesting the greater the need, the greater the incentive” (Kurtzman & Zauhar, 2005a, p. 23). However, consumers do evaluate the incentives in terms of value for money and experiences to be gained or re-lived. The value results improve consumer motivation and legitimize their desires and worthiness of the sports tourism endeavor. In fact, both short and long term motivation usually guide a travelers’ behavior (Kurtzman & Zauhar, 2005a).

Crandall (1980) studied why people chose a particular leisure activity and what satisfactions leisure can provide. According to Crandall, the study of motivations for

leisure is important for theoretical development and for practical service delivery. Current research shows that people can logically be expected to be attracted to and satisfied by leisure activities that meet their needs (Crandall, 1980). Also, if different activities provide the same satisfaction, then those activities should be substitutable for one another.

According to current research, the tourism consumer has changed. Expectations are greater today than in years past, mainly because travelers place a greater meaning on their free time (Bouchet et al., 2004). In conjunction with the change, the sport tourist has evolved as well; research shows they are looking for excitement and new experiences that will provide good and/or new feelings, stimulating the senses. Bouchet et al. suggested that expectations with regard to vacations are greater today because they correspond to the desire to live intensely, attributing greater meaning to free time. Vacationers are looking for excitement and new experiences that will provide enjoyable and/or new feelings, stimulating their senses. Similarly, Iso-Ahola (1982) wrote that the need for a “break” is one of the principle factors motivating tourists.

Crompton (1979) focused his study on the pleasure vacation traveler and was concerned with identifying the aspects of pleasure vacations that influence the selection of a destination. Crompton suggested that most research insists that motivation is only one of the many variables that could contribute to explaining tourist behavior and choices. With regards to tourist motivations, Crompton noted that most research on a tourist’s motivation has revolved around the concepts of pull and push. The push factors for choosing a vacation are socio-psychological motives; the pull factors are motives that are stimulated by the destination itself, rather than initially coming from the traveler.



Traditionally, push factors have been thought useful for explaining the desire to go on vacation while the pull factors have been thought useful for explaining the choice of destination.

Kurtzman and Zauhar (2005a) provided a broader overview of consumer motivations related to sport tourism, particularly within the realms of pseudo and intentional choices. The individual motivation for sports destination travel is directly influenced and dependent upon others and not necessarily upon oneself-the pseudo choice. The intentional choice for the sports tourist differs in that the person concerned makes his or her decision to travel having in mind a deeper meaning of the sport involvement-as participant or spectator.

In addition, Kurtzman & Zauhar (2005a) suggested that participants and/or spectators make sports tourism decisions without truly being aware of the subtle or hidden forces shaping or attracting their sport destination selection. Basically, the decision to travel to and participate in or attend a sporting activity is intentionally engineered by external forces such as family, friends, social peer groups, and/or entrepreneurial media advertising (Kurtzman & Zauhar, 2005a). Regardless of the motivation, the tourist has a basic attraction for the sport in question. Kurtzman and Zauhar also suggested that motives determine what people want to do or want to have and the extent to which they want to do it or have it.

Considering that various factors move different people to travel, McIntosh and Goelder identified four categories of travel motivators that could be applied to sport travel: (a) physical motivators-directly related to physical needs and drives such as fitness or sports; (b) cultural motivator-linked to traditions, mores and heritage, such as sport

museums, halls of fame and historic sites; (c) interpersonal motivators-include the socialization potential to be found in sports resorts, cruises, and world games; and, (d) status and prestige motivators-demonstrated by people enticed by high profile destinations, athletic celebrations, and distinctive sports events (as cited in Kurtzman & Zauhar, 2005a). These motives provide a broader outlook and could be considered all-encompassing rather than specific.

Understanding intrinsic and extrinsic motivations and how they affect decisions is important to this study because choosing a destination can directly affect overall travel expenditures. A study by Griffit, Recours, and Souville (2004) analyzed the motives of participants in sports and contended that intrinsic and extrinsic motivations could be sub-grouped into four distinct categories: exhibitionism, competition, sociability and emotion and, playing to the limit. Competition and exhibition fit into the extrinsic category because the rewards and enjoyment extend beyond the activity itself. The other categories, sociability and emotion, and playing to the limit, were intrinsic motivators that went beyond the desire to compete or show off to others (Griffit et al., 2004). The study contended that intrinsic motivations were linked to relatedness, which was also a strong motive for leisure participation.

Deci and Ryan (2008) continued the study of motivations and suggested that intrinsic motivation involves engaging a behavior because the activity itself is interesting and spontaneously satisfying. When intrinsically motivated, people perform activities because of the positive feelings resulting from the activities themselves. Extrinsic motivation, in contrast, involves engaging in an activity because it leads to some separate consequence (Deci & Ryan, 2008). The most obvious examples of extrinsically

motivated behaviors are those performed to obtain a tangible reward or to avoid a punishment.

According to Weed and Bull (2004), both sport and tourism as separate activities involve a complex set of motivations and a considerable amount of literature exists which reflects this. Reeves reviewed the motivational literature relating to both sports participation and tourism and there is much evidence in this review that the motivations of both sports participants and tourists share a number of common traits which may offer some insights into the uniqueness of the sports tourists (as cited in Weed & Bull, 2004). Weinberg and Gould suggested that a significant amount of research on the motives behind sports participation involves an individual's characteristics-interests, needs, goals, and personality (as cited in Weed & Bull, 2004). There are clearly motives which are more specifically identified with sport (rather than tourism) such as competitiveness, a desire to win, the testing of one's abilities and the development of skills and competencies, especially among more elite athletes (Weed & Bull, 2004).

Sport, for example, may be perceived as an important component within a particular lifestyle and, furthermore, may be used by individuals as a means of escaping from the pressures of everyday life (Weed & Bull, 2004). In addition, a particularly strong internal motive for playing sport is a sense of connection, involving the need to belong to a team, group, club or society in general. Traditionally golfers have a strong sense of affiliation with other golfers, suggesting a strong internal motive to travel and play.

Status and prestige motives are equally important for both sport and tourist activities (Weed & Bull, 2004). Goal achievement is often regarded as a key motive for

sport, especially in relation to elite performances. In addition, there is the related motive of wish fulfillment, with tourists seeking to achieve their dreams and fantasies, and this is also related to status, another ambition of the sports person (Weed & Bull, 2004). Just as athletes can achieve status through winning and achieving high levels of performance, so too the tourists can acquire status through conspicuous consumption in the form of ever more exotic and expensive holidays (Weed & Bull, 2004).

Iso-Ahola stated that those who have high level of stimulation in their working lives will seek to escape stimulation on holiday. By contrast, those with low levels of stimulation at work have a tendency to seek greater novelty and stimulation on holiday (as cited in Weed & Bull, 2004). To help illustrate this point when describing expressed leisure needs, Iso-Ahola (1980) used an iceberg analogy to help illustrate the layers of different motives. The tip of the iceberg, what is visible, represents expressed motives while the overwhelming majority of the iceberg, which remains unseen below the waterline, accounts for the underlying motives such as those pertaining to socialization and personality factors (Robinson & Gammons, 2004).

Jonsson and Devonish (2008) studied whether there are differences between motivations of those who are from different countries traveling to the destination of Barbados. The study revealed that push factors such as relaxation and pleasure seeking were ranked as the most important motivations for all nationalities visiting Barbados. Hence, tourists often choose to travel when there is a need to escape or to find relaxation. With respect to age differences, older tourists were more likely to travel for reasons based on cultural exploration and relaxation, whereas younger tourists were more likely to travel to engage in sports. These findings are not surprising given that one would expect

older tourists, more so than younger tourists, to prefer activities that do not require physical exertion. Older tourists, who are likely to be retired and have more free time, tend to desire mental stimulation and prefer to visit countries to increase their knowledge and awareness, and have new experiences (Jonsson & Devonish, 2008). In general, younger tourists are more active and are more likely to seek a whole range of physical activities when visiting a destination, which supports previous literature (Gibson, 1998a; Gibson, Attle, & Yiannakis, 1998; Higham, 2005) regarding the typical age of active sport tourists.

### **Connecting Iso-Ahola's and Crompton's Motives for Travel**

Crompton's (1979) *Motivations for pleasure travel* seems to be the corner stone for all motivational research within tourism, recreation, and leisure. His contribution to the literature provided a detailed interpretation of the motivational factors contributing to travel. Although Iso-Ahola's (1982) motivational research came a couple years after Crompton, there is a strong link and between the two and Crompton's contributions and theories are woven throughout Iso-Ahola's work.

Crompton's (1979) research elaborated on tourists' motivations and suggested most research on tourist's motivation has revolved around the concepts of pull and push. The push factors for choosing a vacation are socio-psychological motives, and the pull factors are motives that are stimulated by the destination itself, rather than initially coming from the traveler. According to Crompton, the concept of pull and push is very common in motivational literature for travel and tourism. Simply put, the push motives have been traditionally thought to be useful in explaining the desire to go on vacation, and the pull motives have been used to explain the actual choice of destinations.

Crompton's research explored the relationship between socio-psychological motives and their role in specifically directing a tourist to a particular destination, Iso-Ahola also studied the socio-psychological motives relating to tourism. The seven socio-psychological motives are derived from within the traveler themselves and the two cultural motives were stimulated by the destination itself. First, escape from a perceived mundane environment, a temporary change of environment that should be physically and socially different from the environment they currently resided in. Second, exploration and evaluation of self, a pleasure vacation could be an opportunity to discover more about themselves or re-evaluation. Third, relaxation, simply taking time to engage in activities of interest because vacationers had the time to do that. Fourth, prestige, the basic opportunity to have a pleasure vacation made some feel prestigious. Fifth, regression, the opportunity to engage in behavior that was out of the question within the context of their usual day to day lives. Sixth, enhancement of kinship relationships, the pleasure vacation could serve as an opportunity to enhance or enrich family relationships. Seventh, facilitation of social interaction, to meet new people in different locations

Iso-Ahola's (1982) tourism motivational theory consists of four motivational categories: seeking personal rewards, seeking interpersonal rewards, escaping personal environment, and escaping interpersonal environment. Iso-Ahola's model is based on a social psychological perspective in that a person's perceptions of traveling are subjective because travel experiences are biased by psychological awareness; thus, different individuals may perceive the same trip differently (Wolfe & Hsu, 2004).

Iso-Ahola suggested that the satisfaction individuals expect to derive from involvement in a leisure activity is linked to two motivational forces: approach (seeking)

and avoidance (escape). In other words, individuals perceive a leisure activity as a potential satisfaction producer for two major reasons: it provides certain intrinsic rewards, such as feelings of mastery and competence, and helps them leave the routine environment behind themselves (Iso-Ahola, 1982).

The tourist may escape the personal world (e.g., personal troubles, problems, difficulties and failures) and/or the interpersonal world (e.g., co-workers, family members, relatives, friends and neighbors) and may seek personal rewards (e.g., feelings of mastery, learning about other cultures, rest and relaxation, recharge and getting renewed, ego enhancement and prestige) and/or interpersonal rewards (e.g. varied and increased social interaction, interacting with friendly natives or members of the travel group, interacting with old friends in a new place or with new friends in an old place) (Iso-Ahola, 1982). This is similar to Crompton's (1979) seven socio-psychological motivations for choosing a destination. However, traveling is primarily a mode of escape for people, which is in accordance with Iso-Ahola's theory. In a state of disequilibrium, people either try to find more or less stimulation to satisfy their needs and return balance, or equilibrium, to their lives.

Based on Crompton's seven socio-psychological motives and Iso-Ahola's four motivational categories, which include the twelve motivational statements developed by Snepenger, King, Marshall, and Uysal (2006) that characterize the four motivation categories, a simple connection can be made between the two sets of tourism motives (Table 2). Crompton provided the foundation and Iso-Ahola adds to it. Listed below are the socio-psychological motives for both Crompton and Iso-Ahola.

Table 2

*Connection between Iso-Ahola's and Crompton's Travel/Tourism Motives*

Crompton	Iso-Ahola
escape from a mundane environment and exploration and evaluation of self	Personal escape: To get away To have a change in pace from my everyday life To overcome a bad mood
self, escape exploration and evaluation of from a mundane environment	Interpersonal escape: To avoid people who annoy me To get away from a stressful social environment To avoid interactions with others
prestige and facilitation of social interaction	Personal seeking: To tell others about my experiences To feel good about myself To experience new things by myself
relaxation, regression and enhancement of kinship relationships	Interpersonal seeking: To be with people of similar interests To bring friends/family closer To meet new people

**Social Psychological Model of Tourism Motivation**

Iso-Ahola (1982) introduced the Social Psychological Model of Tourism Motivation (SPMTM), known as the Seeking-Escaping Theory (Figure 3). In the model he recognized four motivational categories: seeking personal rewards; seeking interpersonal rewards; escaping personal environment; and escaping interpersonal environment.



		Seeking Intrinsic Rewards	
		Personal	Interpersonal
Escape the Everyday Environment	Personal Environment	(1)	(2)
	Interpersonal Environment	(3)	(4)

*Figure 3.* Iso-Ahola's (1982) Social psychological model of tourism motivation. Adapted from "Toward a social psychological theory of tourism motivation: A rejoinder" by S. E. Iso-Ahola, 1982, *Annals of Tourism Research*, 9 (2), 256-261.

Iso-Ahola (1982) suggested that the satisfaction individuals expect to derive from involvement in a leisure activity is linked to two motivational forces: approach (seeking) and avoidance (escape). In other words, "individuals perceive a leisure activity as a potential satisfaction producer for two major reasons: it provides certain intrinsic rewards, such as feelings of mastery and competence, and helps them leave the routine environment behind themselves" (Iso-Ahola, 1982, p. 258). For example, tourism, because of its unique characteristics, represents more of an escape oriented than approach oriented activity for most people under most conditions. That is, for many people, change from home/work environment to the Bahamas is not enough for them to be able to feel they have escaped from the routine unless they can perform activities (e.g., golf) that provide for feelings of mastery and achievement (Iso-Ahola, 1982).

Therefore, Iso-Ahola (1982) suggested people think about intrinsic rewards in more general terms. Intrinsic rewards can be grouped into two categories: seeking, in which one might discover feelings of mastery or competence; and escaping, in which one

might avoid something or leave the daily routine (as cited in Wolfe & Hsu, 2004). Iso-Ahola suggested that both seeking and escaping elements are evident and under certain conditions, one may be stronger than the other.

Therefore, an awareness of the potential satisfaction from traveling as a tourist provides a person with the energy for selecting goals for travel. In other words, “it provides the energy for deciding the relative importance of the two motivational forces (seeking and escaping) and their components as the perceived reasons for traveling and for subsequently selecting appropriate travel plans and behaviors that are believed to lead to the potential satisfaction” (Iso-Ahola, 1982, p. 260). Once the awareness of the potential satisfaction has developed, the two motivational forces become the critical determinants of tourism behavior and simultaneously influence the tourist/individual (Iso-Ahola, 1982). These forces are: (1) the desire to leave the everyday environment behind oneself; and (2) the desire to obtain psychological (intrinsic) rewards through travel in a contrasting (new or old) environment. Suggesting that “the tourist may escape the personal world and/or the interpersonal and may seek personal rewards such as feelings of mastery, learning about other cultures, rest and relaxation, recharge and getting renewed, ego enhancement and prestige and/or interpersonal rewards such as varied and increased social interaction, interacting with friendly natives or members of the travel group, interacting with old friends in a new place or with new friends in an old place” (Iso-Ahola, 1982, p. 259).

Furthermore, the above model can be used for practical considerations, because a person’s reasons (the relative importance of the two forces and their categories) for travel

may significantly influence his/her selection of the tourist group with whom he/she wishes to travel as well as the destiny of the travel (Iso-Ahola, 1982).

The Social Psychological Model of Tourism Motivation was developed to determine why individuals are motivated to travel ((Iso-Ahola, 1982). The SPMTM recognizes four motivational categories: seeking personal rewards; seeking interpersonal rewards; escaping personal environment; and escaping interpersonal environment. Along with consumer behavior theory, the conceptual framework of SPMTM appears relevant for building the motivation-expenditure construct formulated to examine specific questions concerning the relationship between active sport tourists' motivations and their expenditure patterns.

Iso-Ahola's social psychological model of tourism motivation and subsequent list of motivations for travel are foundational to this study because that theory appears to be the cornerstone for many motivational research studies within tourism, recreation, and leisure. Many of the sport tourism and motivation articles used in the current study (Bouchet et al., 2004; Gibson, 1998a; Hu & Ritchie, 1993; Kurtzman & Zauhar, 2005a; Robinson & Gammons, 2004) reference Iso-Ahola. His contributions provided a detailed interpretation of the motivational factors contributing to travel.

As stated, Iso-Ahola's theory emphasizes that personal escape, personal seeking, interpersonal escape, and interpersonal seeking are motivations for tourism. In a review of current tourism literature, very little has been found that clearly tested Iso-Ahola's four categories of motivation theory. However, Snepenger et al. (2006) was able to complete a study that attempted to specifically operationalize within a tourism and recreation context, Iso-Ahola's theory by scaling each of the four motivational categories. The

research and subsequent findings from Snepenger et al. were important to the current study because the 12 motivational statements created in their study characterize Iso-Ahola's four motivational categories, which were used as independent variables in the study.

In the study by Snepenger et al. (2006), motivation was measured through potential fulfillment. In that study, because different scenarios were used to assess motivation, motivational statements were anchored toward one type of experience to see how well the travel experience would match with certain types of motivation statements. The 12 motive statements (Table 3) were developed through a multistep process. The items were pretested with an undergraduate student sample and from that pilot study 12 statements were developed that could possibly characterize Iso-Ahola's four motivation categories. After the pretest, the 12 statements were randomized and pretested again using two hypothetical vacation experiences. An exploratory factor analysis was then conducted on the data with separate factor analyses performed for the two vacation experiences (Snepenger et al., 2006). The results of the factor analyses loaded on the four latent constructs proposed by Iso-Ahola for both activities (Snepenger et al., 2006). The statements for each construct were stable across the two factor analyses. The reliability alpha of the four factor groupings of motivation ranged from .61 to .84 for both analyses, suggesting that there is a high degree of robustness within each factor grouping of motivation statements (Snepenger et al., 2006).

Table 3

*Snepenger et al. (2006) 12 motivational statements that characterize Iso-Ahola's Four Motivational Categories*

Motivational Categories	Statements
Personal escape (seeking personal rewards)	To get away To have a change in pace from my everyday life To overcome a bad mood
Interpersonal escape (seeking interpersonal rewards)	To avoid people who annoy me To get away from a stressful social environment To avoid interactions with others
Personal seeking (escaping personal environment)	To tell others about my experiences To feel good about myself To experience new things by myself
Interpersonal seeking (escaping interpersonal environment)	To be with people of similar interests To bring friends/family closer To meet new people

This current study attempted to take the motives for travel that Iso-Ahola has already established and relate those motives to expenditure patterns. No other examples were found that attempted to connect and predict motives and expenditure patterns, suggesting that this type of study has not been attempted in the tourism or leisure literature.

### Chapter Summary

So far, no tourism studies have attempted to relate spending behavior to the motives for tourism. In a way this is surprising because in previous research and on a number of occasions, tourism motives have been linked to tourism attitudes and behaviors as well as socio-demographic characteristics. The tourism literature

acknowledges the long-standing relationship between travel expenditures, various trip characteristics and socio-demographic variables. However, the current tourism literature does not specifically show the relationship between travel expenditures and motivations for travel. This chapter included the literature relevant to sport tourism, golf, expenditures, and motivations to travel in an effort to show a relation between tourism expenditure patterns and motivations.

## CHAPTER III

### METHODOLOGY

The methodology used in the present study is organized into five sections: (1) research design, (2) research variables, (3) data source and sampling, (4) survey instrument and review, and (5) data collection and follow up. The section on research design covers information regarding formulas and variables. The variables section provides detailed description of the independent and dependent variables used in the study. The section on data source and sampling provides information on the sample and how the sample was chosen. Survey instrument and review includes information about the survey, how it was created and the selection of the variables used in the survey. In addition, this section covers the development of the survey, sample questions and a description of the four motivational items based on Iso-Ahola's (1982) Social Psychological Model of Tourism Motivation theory and the work completed by Snepenger, King, Marshall, and Uysal (2006). Data collection and follow up provide the procedure for organizing the variables and the method for data collection, as well as a review of how the data was collected and the procedures used to follow up with subjects during data collection.

This study focused on the relationship between golfers' motives for travel and participation in golf and their subsequent personal expenditures during their most recent golf trip. To meet this goal, the research approach that was used differs from previous travel expenditure research in two important ways. First, this study investigated the relationship between motives and expenditures made by active sport tourists. It did not attempt to estimate the overall economic impact made by their expenditures. Second, this

study focused on Iso-Ahola's (1982) Social Psychological Model of Tourism Motivation (SPMTM), more commonly known as the seeking escaping theory.

Another purpose of this study was to extend the literature by examining, within the active sport tourism context, if and how tourism expenditures are related to socio-psychological motives. The relationship between sport and tourism has grown tremendously in the past few years. In reviewing the literature on this topic, two separate streams of research have emerged: (1) one stream considers the economic impact of tourism and sport tourism, and (2) the other stream focuses on the reasons or motives people have for travel and tourism. This study links these two separate streams of research by examining how sport tourists' motives for traveling and participating in golf affect their subsequent personal expenditures during the trip.

### **Research Design**

The growing contribution of tourism to the economy has been accompanied by an increased interest in understanding the determinants which influence tourist expenditures (Seiler, Hsieh, Seiler, & Hsieh, 2002). Prior research has shown that tourism expenditures depend on a number of factors, including purpose of trip; travel party size; length of stay; type of travel activities participated in; and socio-demographic characteristics, which all correlate with tourism expenditures (Thrane, 2002). The formula for the current study was configured as:

$$EXP = f(PE1, PE2, PE3, IE1, IE2, IE3, PS1, PS2, PS3, IS1, IS2, IS3)$$

Where

EXP = Expenditures on golf trip

Independent variables in this study are explained in Table 4.



Table 4

*Independent Variables*

Measure	Variable
Personal escape	
PE1	To get away
PE2	To have a change in pace from my everyday life
PE3	To overcome a bad mood
Interpersonal escape	
IE1	To avoid people who annoy me
IE2	To get away from a stressful social environment
IE3	To avoid interactions with others
Personal seeking	
PS1	To tell others about my experiences
PS2	To feel good about myself
PS3	To experience new things by myself
Interpersonal seeking	
IS1	To be with people of similar interests
IS2	To bring friends/family closer
IS3	To meet new people

**Variables****Dependent Variable**

Previous research in travel and tourism has shown dependent variables vary among the tourist destination, hotel, accommodations, likelihood of taking a future trip, length of stay, total travel expenditure, and total visits. After a comprehensive review of the literature and based on the research question, the dependent variable for this study was established as the total travel expenditures in U.S. dollars. The total expenditures were established by adding the amount of dollars from each category of expenditure

including lodging, meals and restaurants, festivals and attractions, entertainment, shopping, transportation, and golf expenditures. The total expenditures included all expenditures counting cash and credit on participants' most recent golf trip.

### **Independent Variables**

The selection of the independent variables for this study was critical. In the last few decades, many researches (Crandall, 1980; Crompton, 1979; Iso-Ahola, 1982; Gibson, 1998b), have presented hypotheses and developed theories concerning the motivations of sport fans and tourists. Even though specific terms given to these motives change from study to study, most can be classified into one of the four categories: personal escape, interpersonal escape, personal seeking, and interpersonal seeking. From those four categories a set of twelve developed and validated statements that characterize the four motivation categories were used as independent variables (Snepenger et al., 2006)

The independent variables are Iso-Ahola's (1982) four categories of the Social Psychological Model of Tourism Motivation: seeking personal rewards, seeking interpersonal rewards, escaping personal environment, and escaping interpersonal environment. Snepenger et al. (2006) tested Iso-Ahola's (1982) Social Psychological Model of Tourism Motivation by specifically operationalizing within tourism and recreation contexts Iso-Ahola's theory. Snepenger et al. did this by scaling each of the four motivational categories (Table 4), then created a scenario based, repeated measure research design to complete the test. They suggested that motivation focuses on the initiation of behavior and is largely a function of expectations about future consequences of behavior. In their study respondents were given eight different hypothetical scenarios

and then questioned on their motivation for each. In an effort to acquire data for a broad set of tourism experiences, the authors created two natural and two cultural vacation experiences for the respondents. The natural vacations were parks and beaches, whereas the cultural vacations included amusement parks and sporting events. That study focused on motivation structures and differences across four vacation experiences and four recreation experiences.

A series of motivation statements were selected from the literature that operationalized one or more of the categories from Iso-Ahola's theory. The statements were pretested with an undergraduate student sample at a land grant university. Statements were evaluated by the students for redundancy, clarity, and response format. From the pilot study, they developed 12 statements that potentially characterize the four motivation categories. The findings from the competing models analysis confirmed the existence of the four categories proposed by Iso-Ahola (1982). The 12 statements developed and validated within the study are listed in Table 4 at the beginning of the chapter.

## **Regression Analysis**

### **Multiple Regression**

The present study employed a correlational research design, specifically a prediction study using multiple regression analysis. More specifically, hierarchical and stepwise regression was used for data analysis. Both hierarchical and stepwise analyses were used because of the predictive nature of the study and the continuous independent variables being used. McMillan and Schumacher (2001) suggested that prediction studies are used to provide a more accurate estimation of prediction. Multiple regression also

allows researchers to control for selected variables to determine the relationship between the remaining independent variables and the dependent variable (McMillan & Schumacher, 2001). In addition to prediction, another major purpose of multiple regression is explanation. Multiple regression allows the researcher to explain the phenomena of relationships among variables and to support or develop theories. Another advantage of correlational research designs is they provide information concerning the degree and direction of the relationship among the variables being studied. Given that the main purpose of the present study is to investigate how motivations for travel/tourism explain travel expenditures for active sport tourists, correlational research design is particularly useful. McMillan and Schumacher (2001) stated that for correlational survey research, there should be approximately 100 subjects.

### **Mathematical Regression**

Mathematical regression provides three different types of regression: the forward solution, the stepwise solution, and the backward solution. The significant difference between these types of regression is the statistical criteria used for the order of entry of predictor variables. The forward solution involves entering the variables one at a time, the predictor with the highest zero-order correlation with the criterion variable is entered first, then the predictor with the highest semi-partial correlation with the criterion variable is added along with the variable in step one. This continues until all the significant variables are entered.

The stepwise solution, the one used in the current study, is similar to the forward solution in terms of criteria used to enter predictor variables, except that variables that were entered on earlier steps are eliminated if their significance disappears on later steps.

Within the backward solution, all predictor variables are initially entered in step one, then in step two then the predictor with the smallest-semi partial correlation is eliminated, this process continues until only significant variables remain.

**Stepwise regression.** Stepwise solution is a variation of the forward solution. Predictor variables are entered one at a time but can be deleted if they do not contribute significantly to the regression when considered in combination with newly entered predictors (Hinkle, Jurs, & Wiersma, 2003).

In a stepwise solution, predictor variables are selected in the same manner as the forward solution. However, within the stepwise solution, at each step after a new predictor variable is added to the model, a second significance test is conducted to determine the contribution of previously selected variables (Hinkle et al., 2003). Therefore, it is possible for a predictor variable to be deleted if it loses effectiveness as a predictor when considered in combination with newly entered variables. The stepwise solution stops when all predictor variables are entered or when the remaining predictor variables do not make a statistically significant contribution to the regression (Hinkle et al., 2003). The major weaknesses of stepwise regression are that the process is data driven and Type I errors may be inflated.

**Hierarchical analysis.** Hierarchical regression (also called stepdown or sequential) is another type of mathematical regression. However, hierarchical regression differs from forward, stepwise, and backward in that variables are entered into the hierarchical regression equation based on a predetermined logical scheme or a theoretical rationale, not on statistical criteria.

## **Data Transformation of Dependent and Independent Variables**

The dependent variable for this study was established as the total travel expenditures in U.S. dollars. The total expenditure variable was created by adding the amount of total dollars from each category of expenditures including lodging, meals and restaurants, festivals/attractions, entertainment, shopping, transportation, and golf expenditures. Once the total expenditures were calculated they were then recoded into one new variable.

The independent variables are Iso-Ahola's (1982) four categories of the Social Psychological Model of Tourism Motivation: seeking personal rewards, seeking interpersonal rewards, escaping personal environment, and escaping interpersonal environment. Each of the four motivational categories included three motivational statements created by Snepenger et al. (2006). The 12 motivational statements were collapsed into their respective motivational categories and computed into four new composite variables. The four new variables created were personal escape (pe); interpersonal escape (ie); personal seeking (ps); and interpersonal seeking (is). For example, "to get away from my normal environment," "to have a change in pace from my everyday life," "and to overcome a bad mood" were all collapsed into the personal escape (pe) variable, a new composite variable. That step was completed for the remaining motivational statements and corresponding motivational categories. The 12 motivational statements and corresponding motivational categories are listed in Table 4 at the beginning of the chapter.

## **Data Source and Sampling Frame**

### **Data Source**

Tourism expenditure data is difficult to categorize because the industry consists of so many component sub industries. Those sub industries include, but are not limited to, eco-tourism, adventure tourism, marine tourism, and spa/health tourism. Data collection is usually performed by national tourism offices, a governmental statistical agency such as the Department of Labor, or a central bank. The three most commonly used methods of tourist expenditure data collection are bank records, self-reporting from tourists, and surveys of tourism establishments (Sheldon, 1993).

Several studies (Cai, Hong, & Morrison, 1995; Dardis, Derrick, Lehfeld, & Wolfe, 1981; Dardis, Soberon-Ferrer, & Patro, 1994) used interview data from the Consumer Expenditure Survey (CES) conducted annually by the U.S. Bureau of the Census under contract to the U.S. Bureau of Labor Statistics (BLS) or the In-flight Survey of International Air Travelers compiled by the U.S. Tourism Industries, International Trade Administration, Department of Commerce (Cai et al., 1995; Fish & Waggle, 1996; Jang, Bai, Hong, & O'Leary, 2004). Data upon which studies are frequently based are obtained from existing secondary data on recreation and sport expenditures. Such data does not generally exist in a form useful for determining consumer expenditure associated with specific types of recreation and sport activities. Since government data available on personal consumption activities are obtained from the general public, recreation expenditure analyses based on these data usually include population level variables such as household socio-economic characteristics (Lee, 2001).

The PGA Golf Management University Program, a 4.5 to 5-year college curriculum for aspiring PGA Professionals is offered at 20 PGA accredited universities nationwide. These programs provide students the opportunity to acquire the knowledge and skills necessary for success in the golf industry through extensive classroom studies and internship experiences. The sample for this study was drawn from PGA Golf Management programs because of their large alumni base.

The sample for this study was taken from alumni of four PGA Golf Management programs. Acquisition of the sample for this study was completed from November 2010 through February 2011. The programs included Ferris State University, Penn State University, New Mexico State University, and Arizona State University. All university PGA Golf Management programs accredited by the Professional Golfers Association of America (PGA) are designed for students interested in a career in the golf industry as a PGA member. The PGA Golf Management Program at Ferris State University was established in 1975, and was the first program in the country. Ferris State's PGA program is the oldest and has the largest alumni base. The third in the nation to be endorsed by the PGA in 1987 was New Mexico State University. The fourth university to receive and accredited program was Penn State University in 1990. Three of the four programs used in the study are the oldest programs currently accredited by the Professional Golfers Association of America (PGA). Arizona State University was the last program selected; it was accredited by the PGA in 1998. Students graduating from Ferris State and New Mexico State earn a Bachelor of Science in Business, Penn State graduates earn a B.S. in Recreation Management, and Arizona State students earn a B.S. in Agri-Business.



The four PGA Golf Management programs listed have some of the largest number of alumni. The study did not have a cut-off number for potential subjects; however, based on the total number of alumni from the four selected programs, the target number of potential subjects was approximately 2,200.

Table 5

*Approximate Size and Number of Alumni for each selected PGA program*

PGA Program	Current Student	Alumni
Arizona State University	150	300
Ferris State University	200	1000
New Mexico State University	140	500
Penn State University	150	400
Totals	640	2,200

### **Sampling Frame**

Sound values of research design dictate that the researcher first decide the effect size, or relation, deemed substantively meaningful in a given study (Pedhazur, 1997). To draw a representative sample from the golfing population, stratified random sampling was used to select the participants. Stratified random sampling is a form of random sampling in which a population is first divided into subgroups or strata, and subjects are selected from each subgroup (Babbie, 2007).

Stratified random sampling was implemented through a series of sampling methods. First, subjects for this study had to play golf and needed to have traveled to play golf within the past two years. Second, based on the initial criteria for subjects, alumni of PGA Golf Management programs were selected based on the fact that these

programs educate, train, and graduate individuals who are required to play golf as part of their PGA management career. Third, after selecting PGA programs and their alumni as potential subjects, the selection of the programs to partner with was based on the influence of the program within the golf industry. That influence within the golf industry was specifically related to the number of total alumni, meaning that the programs that had the highest number of alumni were selected. As long as students were alumni from one of the selected PGA programs they were eligible for the study, regardless if they had PGA membership.

The study population was a very specific subset of golfers. The respondents in this study were golfers who specifically trained and went to college for golf; respondents were not the general golfing public. The requirement of subjects being alumni of PGA programs (a very specific subset of golfers) was important for many reasons. First, it ensured the participants' comprehension of the survey. Second, PGA alumni can be expected to be dedicated and passionate golfers who enjoy playing the game and have had the opportunity to travel and play throughout their academic and professional careers. Third, PGA program alumni are experts in the game of golf and business, stewards for the golf industry and they understand the dynamics of traveling to play golf. Fourth, PGA program alumni were purposefully chosen with the intention of enhancing the potential respondents' positive opinions of golf and therefore the response rate to the survey. In addition, three of the four schools chosen for the study are the original PGA programs, which lends itself to a higher number of alumni and in turn a larger number of participants.

### **Survey Instrument and Variable Selection**

The data for this study were acquired from an on-line survey that was conducted from November 2010 through February 2011. The study was created to develop a profile of those persons who traveled to play golf within the past two years, which included their motivations for travel and their subsequent expenditures on their most recent golfing trip.

This study used an instrument designed, in part, by the researcher. One of the first steps in the design process was to review the appropriate literature from previous studies and related research. After conducting a comprehensive review of the literature, the investigator concluded that no instrument had been specifically developed that measured expenditure patterns based on motivations for travel for active sport tourists, therefore the questionnaire was created through a variety of measures and based off previous travel surveys. Specifically, the researcher modeled the Midwest travel survey that was designed and developed by the National Laboratory for Tourism and eCommerce at the University of Illinois-Champaign (Peerapatdit, 2004). The items contained in the instrument were intended to measure active sport tourists' motivations for travel and their subsequent expenditure patterns, specifically focusing on golf trip expenditures and Iso-Ahola's (1982) Social Psychological Model of Tourism Motivation, thus providing a profile and travel history of active sport tourists which include their expenditures and motivations for travel.

The survey utilized for this study consisted of six major parts with a total of 23 questions: general demographic information (7 questions), general golf interest (3 questions), and specific golf travel related questions (10 questions), travel expenses (1 question with 8 items), non-golfing activities (1 questions with 10 items), and travel

motivation (1 question with 12 items). The general demographic questions, the travel expenses questions, the non-golfing activities and travel motivation questions were adapted from previous studies with changes made for question sequence, flow and question importance. The questions about general golf interest and specific golf travel related questions were adapted from previous research literature. Question responses were obtained on a variety of scales ranging from open-ended questions to closed-ended questions to a typical Likert scale where a “1” indicated the subject strongly disagree with the statement through a response of “5” which was interpreted to indicate that the subjects strongly agreed with the statement (see Appendix C).

In an attempt to understand the characteristics of the sample, the first section covered seven demographic items. All demographic items were addressed in a closed-ended form with a variety of possible answers. The second section specifically focused on how the subjects became interested in playing golf. These were closed-ended questions with a range of possible responses. The third section specifically focused on the subject’s most recent golf trip/vacation and the specifics about that trip. A couple of open-ended questions asked respondents to include the state they traveled to for their trip, and whether they traveled outside the United States and, if so, to which country they traveled.

The fourth section inquired about their total individual travel expenditures during the most recent golf trip/vacation, including cash and credit charges. The fifth section asked respondents to identify the non-golfing activities they considered important when deciding where to travel to their golf trip/vacation. The subjects responded using a typical Likert scale where a “1” indicated the subject strongly disagreed with the

statement through a response of “5” which was interpreted to indicate that the subjects strongly agreed with the statement. The last section of the survey included questions focusing on respondents’ motivations to travel, specifically focusing on four motivational items: personal escape, interpersonal escape, personal seeking and interpersonal seeking, with additional breakdown consistent with Snepenger et al. (2006). Similar to section five, the subjects again responded using a typical Likert scale. More detail regarding the survey is provided in Chapter IV.

### **Data Collection and Follow Up**

Selection of a suitable survey marketing and distribution method is of vital importance to sport and tourism researchers. Based on observations and conversations with program administrators, it was determined that on-site data collection would not be appropriate therefore, data collection took place through an on-line survey.

Although in its infancy compared to traditional survey methodology, internet survey research can offer a number of important advantages over traditional modes of survey administration. For instance, it can provide considerable cost and time savings, allow large samples to be collected as easily as smaller samples, and eliminate data entry errors (Reips, 2002). Recent work has shown that respondents are more likely to use the medium and that response rates are generally higher than traditional approaches (Bonometti & Tang, 2006). In fact, research in various disciplines, including education, engineering, medicine, nursing, and sport administration, has shown that the response rate for online surveys typically ranges from 15% to 73%, depending on the contact system, use of incentives, and salience of survey (Baig, Shadigian, & Heisler, 2006).

All alumni from the selected PGA Golf Management programs received an email with an introductory letter (see Appendix B) explaining the purpose of the study, information from the PGA director explaining their role in the study as well as the directors' support for the study. The body of the email also contained a tentative date for survey completion, and a written statement notifying recipients that by "continuing with the survey they have read and understand the description of the study and agree to participate." This statement is deemed the equivalent of the signed and returned consent form for online surveys involving minimal risk (Hicks, 2011). All efforts were made to protect the anonymity of each individual. Before the survey was sent to subjects, it was approved at the university level by UNLV's Institutional Review Board (IRB) (see Appendix A). The email also contained a link to *Qualtrics* for survey completion. The email to participants was sent through the director of each selected PGA program and had no direct link or contact with the researcher. The text of the email, including the informed consent language, was sent to the designee along with the link to the *Qualtrics* survey. All emails to participants in the study were sent directly from the director of each PGA Golf Management program using their own respective email database for alumni.

### **Follow Up**

The methodological literature strongly suggests that follow up mailings provide an effective method for increasing return rates in mail surveys (Babbie, 2007). This study did not use a traditional mail survey; however the researcher felt the same follow up methodology applied. For this study, the same process of follow up was used with all four PGA programs, which included four emails (the original and three follow ups).

Surveys were available for completion from November 2010 through February 2011. An initial email was sent on November 1, 2010, with a reminder email sent on November 15, 2010. After the initial email reminder was sent, approximately 50 surveys had been completed. After sending the second email reminder on December 1, 2010, the response rate was still low; approximately 89 surveys had been completed. At the first of the year and after consultation with each of the directors, the researcher decided to send a third email reminder to potential participants on January 12, 2011. Following the third email reminder, which again included the appropriate information and the support of each director, the response rate increased tremendously, approximately 353 surveys had been completed as of February 10, 2011. Because of the tremendous improvement in response rates and because after February 10 participants did not submit any additional surveys, the researcher concluded that 353 completed responses was ample.

The survey effort resulted in 353 completed responses for a 16.04% response rate. After scrutinizing the data for irregularities and discrepancies, 65 surveys were removed from the analysis. The final data set consisted of 288 usable surveys.

### **Chapter Summary**

This chapter presented the research design and methodology to achieve the objective of the study. In the beginning section of the chapter, there was a discussion regarding the research design and variables used in the study. The chapter continued to review the data source and sampling methodology, as well as a review of the survey instrument and variable selection. A brief overview of the process of contacting the sample as well as follow up with sample was discussed. Chapter IV will present the data analysis and results relevant to the specific research question

## CHAPTER IV

### RESULTS

This chapter presents the results of the data analysis for travel expenditures and motivations to travel. The research question that guided this study was: What are the most influential motivational variables among Iso-Aholas' Social Psychological Model of Tourism Motivation affecting tourism expenditures for active sport tourists traveling to play golf?

The dependent variable for this study was total travel expenditures in U.S. dollars for active sport tourists' most recent golf trip. Total expenditures were comprised of seven expenditure patterns examined in this study including: (1) lodging, (2) meals and restaurants, (3) attractions and festivals, (4) entertainment, (5) shopping, (6) transportation, and (7) golf expenditures. The independent variables include Iso-Ahola's (1982) four categories of the Social Psychological Model of Tourism Motivation. Each analysis consisted of variables for (1) personal escape, (2) interpersonal escape, (3) personal seeking, and (4) interpersonal seeking, measuring different categories of travel expenditure on a recent golf trip/vacation. Multiple regression analysis, specifically stepwise and hierarchical procedures, was used in this study to investigate the impacts of tourism motivation variables on different categories of tourism expenditures.

#### **Sample**

The PGA Golf Management University Program is a 4.5 to 5-year college curriculum for aspiring PGA Professionals, which is offered at 20 PGA accredited universities nationwide. These programs provide students the opportunity to acquire the knowledge and skills necessary for success in the golf industry through extensive and



rigorous classroom studies and internship experiences. The sample consisted of approximately 2,200 alumni of four PGA Golf Management programs accredited by the PGA of America. They were drawn from programs at Arizona State University, Ferris State University, New Mexico State University, and Penn State University. Acquisition of the appropriate sample for this study was completed from November 2010 through February 2011.

The survey effort resulted in 353 completed responses for a 16.04% response rate. After scrutinizing the data for irregularities and discrepancies, 65 surveys were removed from the analysis. The final data set consisted of 288 usable surveys.

### **Data Transformation and Analysis**

The data transformation and analysis section includes information on the transformation of data to fit the multiple regression requirements and the description of techniques and procedures for statistical analysis that are used to answer the research question. A normality test showed that total income was not normally distributed, but total income needed to be normally distributed because the researcher wanted to control for it in the regression analysis. Based on the distribution of total income from the survey results, the nine lowest income levels were dropped from the study. The remaining income levels were then recoded into 6 new categories that were normally distributed.

After a comprehensive review of literature and based on the research question, the dependent variable for this study was established as the total travel expenditures in U.S. dollars. The total expenditures included all expenditures counting cash and credit on participants' most recent golf trip. The total expenditures were established by adding the amount of dollars from each category of expenditures including lodging, meals and

restaurants, festivals and attractions, entertainment, shopping, transportation, and golf. Once total expenditures were calculated from all seven expenditure categories, they were recoded into one new variable.

The independent variables consisted of Iso-Ahola's (1982) Social Psychological Model of Tourism Motivation, which include twelve motivational statements categorized into four categories: (1) personal escape: to get away from my normal environment, to have a change in pace from my everyday life, and to overcome a bad mood; (2) interpersonal escape: to avoid people who annoy me, to get away from a stressful social environment, and to avoid interactions with others; (3) personal seeking: to tell others about my experiences, to feel good about myself, and to experience new things by myself; and (4) interpersonal seeking: to be with people of similar interests, to bring friends/family closer, and to meet new people. These twelve motivations were recoded into four specific categories (personal escape; interpersonal escape; personal seeking; and interpersonal seeking) to allow for normal distribution. (Refer to Table 4 in Chapter III for a review of the independent variables).

To effectively complete an analysis of the data, a quantitative method of analysis was applied. The usable 288 responses were assessed and analyzed by Statistical Package of Social Sciences (SPSS). The design employed in the present study was correlational research design, specifically a prediction study using multiple regression analysis. More specifically, hierarchical and stepwise regression was used for data analysis. Both hierarchical and stepwise analyses were used because of the predictive nature of the study and the continuous independent variables being used.

McMillan and Schumacher (2001) illustrated that prediction studies are used to provide a more accurate estimation of prediction. Generally, researchers use multiple regression analysis when they are interested in the relationship of several independent variables combined with a dependent variable. Multiple-regression also allows researchers to control for selected variables to determine the relationship between the remaining independent variables and the dependent variable (McMillan & Schumacher, 2001). Some major purposes of multiple-regression include prediction and explanation, to explain phenomena of relationships among variables and to support or develop theories. Another advantage of correlational research designs is that they provide information concerning the degree and direction of the relationship among the variables being studied. Given that the main purpose of the present study is to investigate how motivations for travel/tourism predict travel expenditures for active sport tourists, correlational research designs are particularly useful.

## **Survey Analysis**

### **Survey Information**

In an attempt to understand the characteristics of the sample, the first section of the survey covered seven demographic items. Items included gender, age, marital status, education attainment, annual household income, number of children under 18 living at home, and ethnic background. All demographic items were addressed in a closed ended form with a variety of possible answers (see Appendix C).

The second survey section specifically focused on how the subjects became interested in playing golf, including questions about who introduced the subject to the game of golf, and at what age they became passionate about playing the game. These

were closed-ended questions with a range of responses. The third survey section specifically focused on the subjects' most recent golf trip/vacation and the specifics about that trip. Question #12 solicited the most important factors considered by the respondent when planning a golf trip. Three questions (#13, #14, & #18) asked respondents where their most recent golf trip/vacation took place, how many individuals traveled on that most recent trip, and what type of facility they visited. Additional golf trip/vacation questions included how many days the trip lasted and what type of accommodations did the respondents stay in. Two open-ended questions (#16 & #17) asked respondents to include the state they traveled to for their trip, and if they traveled outside the United States, to which country they traveled.

The fourth survey section inquired about their total individual travel expenditures during the most recent golf trip/vacation, including cash and credit charges in the expense categories. The expense categories were further divided into lodging, meals and restaurants, attractions/festivals, entertainment, shopping (other than food), transportation (including gas), golf (tee times, equipment, etc.), and other (to be specified by respondent). The fifth survey section asked respondents to identify the non-golfing activities they considered important when deciding where to travel to their golf trip/vacation; activities included hiking, biking, visiting a beach, going boating, gambling, or going shopping. The subjects responded using a typical Likert scale where a "1" indicated the subject strongly disagreed with the statement through a response of "5" which was interpreted to indicate that the subjects strongly agreed with the statement (see Appendix C).

The last section of the survey included questions focusing on respondents' motivations to travel, specifically focusing on four motivational items. Twelve specific motivations based on Iso-Ahola's tourism motivation theory and created by Snepenger, King, Marshall, and Uysal (2006) were included in the last section. This section asked respondents to identify how important these 12 motives were when deciding to go on a golf trip/vacation. Motivations included: to get away from my normal environment, to have a change in pace from my everyday life, to overcome a bad mood, to avoid people who annoy me, to get away from a stressful social environment, to avoid interactions with others, to tell others about my experiences, to feel good about myself, to experience new things by myself, to be with people of similar interests, to bring friends/family closer, and to meet new people. The subjects responded using a typical Likert scale where a "1" indicated the subject strongly disagreed with the statement through a response of "5" which was interpreted to indicate that the subjects strongly agreed with the statement.

### **Socio-Demographic Information**

An initial step of the survey was to examine socio-demographic variables of the respondents (see Table 6). The sample of the present study consisted of 288 adult active sport tourists (golfers) from four different PGA Golf Management programs. Ninety-eight percent of the survey respondents were male and 59% were married. The majority of the survey respondents were Caucasian (97%), 1% were Asian, 1% were Hispanic, and 1% answered "other." There were no African American survey respondents. Of the survey respondents, 66% were between 21 and 35 years of age, 24% were between 36 and 45, 9% were between 46 and 55, 0% between 56 and 65, and 1% were 65 years of

age and above. Three percent of the survey respondents had annual household incomes less than \$25,000, 15% were between \$25,000 and \$39,000, 15% were between \$40,000 and \$49,000, 21% were between \$50,000 and \$74,000, 17% were between \$75,000 and \$99,000, 18% were between \$100,000 and \$150,000, and 11% had annual household income of \$150,000 and over. Thirty-six percent had children under the age of 18 living at home. Eighty-six percent of the survey respondents had a college degree, 13% had some graduate school or a graduate degree, and 1% had some college.

Table 6

*Socio-Demographic Profile of Survey Respondents*

Characteristics	Frequency	Percent (%)	Valid N
Gender			288
Female	7	2%	
Male	281	98%	
Age			288
Under 21	0	0%	
21 – 35	190	66%	
36 – 45	69	24%	
46 – 55	25	9%	
56 – 65	0	0%	
Over 65	4	1%	
Marital Status			286
Single	97	34%	
Married	170	59%	
Separated	1	0%	
Divorced	6	2%	
Living w/ Significant Other	12	4%	

Characteristics	Frequency	Percent (%)	Valid <i>N</i>
Education			286
High School or GED	0	0%	
Vocational School	0	0%	
Some College	2	1%	
College Degree	248	86%	
Graduate School or Degree	36	13%	
Total annual income before taxes			286
Less than \$25,000	9	3%	
\$25,000 – \$39,000	43	15%	
\$40,000 – \$49,000	44	15%	
\$50,000 – \$74,000	60	21%	
\$75,000 – \$99,000	48	17%	
\$100,000 – \$149,000	51	18%	
\$150,000 and over	31	11%	
Number of children under 18 years of age at home			288
Yes	105	36%	
No	183	64%	
Ethnic background			288
White	280	97%	
African American	0	0%	
Asian American	2	1%	
Hispanic American	3	1%	
Other	3	1%	

### **Golf Interest**

Survey respondents were asked about their introduction to the game of golf (see Table 7). Seventy-three percent of survey respondents were introduced to the game of golf by a parent, 15% were introduced by a friend, 5% worked as a caddy and were introduced to golf through work, 1% were introduced through a school activity, and 7% of the survey respondents answered “other” and indicated they had been introduced to golf by grandparents, relative, or a local PGA Professional. Forty-six percent of survey

respondents became passionate about playing golf during childhood, 45% became passionate during adolescence, and 9% during early adulthood. Fifty-two percent of the survey respondents felt their initial passion for golf was mainly because it was fun, 27% felt their initial passion was because it was challenging, 9% because they could spend time with family, 7% because they could spend time with friends, and 10% answered “other” and included responses like “they could spend time alone” or participating in golf “got them out of classes.”

Table 7

*Golf Interest of Survey Respondents*

Question	Frequency	Percent (%)	Valid N
Introduction to the game of golf			288
A parent	209	73%	
A friend	42	15%	
As a caddy	13	5%	
A school activity	2	1%	
A neighborhood activity	1	0%	
Other	21	7%	
Became passionate about playing golf			287
Childhood	132	46%	
Adolescent years	128	45%	
Early Adult	25	9%	
Adult	2	1%	
Initial passion for golf			288
It was fun	151	52%	
It was challenging	79	27%	
Spend time with family	27	9%	
Spend time with friends	19	7%	
Business opportunities	2	1%	
Other	10	3%	



## **Golf Travel**

Survey respondents were asked to identify the most important factor in planning a golf trip (see Table 8). When identifying the most important factor in planning a golf trip, 67% of the survey respondents felt that a specific golf course (e.g., Pebble Beach, St. Andrews) was the most important factor. Twenty-five percent stated that the location of the facility (e.g. beach, mountains, desert) was the most important factor, 3% thought lodging was most important, and 4% felt shopping was the most important. The majority of respondents traveled on golf trips with groups, 36% of the survey respondents traveled with five or more individuals on their most recent golf trip, 28% traveled with four individuals, and 16% traveled with two individuals. Eighty-nine percent of survey respondents traveled inside the United States on their most recent trip, while 11% traveled outside the United States to places that included Scotland, Ireland, Spain, and the Caribbean. Of the survey respondents who traveled within the United States, 35% traveled to the Southeast, 21% traveled to the Midwest, 17% traveled to the Southwest with another 17% traveling West (including Hawaii and Alaska), and only 11% traveled to the Northeast on their most recent golf trip.

On their most recent golf trip, 46% of the survey respondents played at a resort facility, 27% played at a private facility, 21% played at a public facility, and 14% answered “other” and provided responses that included a combination of facilities (e.g. resort and private). In addition, 37% of survey respondents stayed at a resort setting on their most recent golf trip, 36% stayed at a traditional hotel, 17% stayed with family and friends, 6% stayed at a bed and breakfast, and 4% stayed at a motel. Furthermore, survey respondents tended to travel frequently. Forty-eight percent of survey respondents had

taken one to two golf trips in the past two years, 31% have taken three to four trips, and 20% have taken more than five trips. With regard to length of stay on their most recent golf trip, 23% of the respondents vacationed for one to two days, 50% vacationed three to four days and 27% vacationed for more than five days. The findings relative to length of stay are important and provide interesting information. Wang, Rompf, Severt, and Peerapatdit (2006) found that length of stay had a significant impact on expenses relating to lodging, meals and restaurants, transportation, attraction and festivals, and shopping. Suggesting that length of stay has a positive relationship with overall travel expenditures. This data could be used for additional research to help support the research completed by Wang et al.

Table 8

*Golf Travel of Survey Respondents*

Question	Frequency	Percent (%)	Valid N
Most important factor when planning a trip			288
Lodging	9	3%	
Meals/Restaurants	2	1%	
Attractions/Festivals	2	1%	
Entertainment	11	4%	
Shopping	0	0%	
Golf Course	193	67%	
Location of facility	71	25%	
On most recent trip, how many traveled to play (including self)			286
1	27	9%	
2	47	16%	
3	29	10%	
4	81	28%	
More than 5	102	36%	

Question	Frequency	Percent (%)	Valid N
On most recent trip, where did you travel			287
United States	254	89%	
Outside the US	33	11%	
Which region of the country did you visit			255
Northeast	27	11%	
Southwest	88	35%	
Midwest	54	21%	
Southeast	43	17%	
West	43	17%	
On most recent trip, which type of facility did you visit			288
Resort	132	46%	
Private	79	27%	
Public	60	21%	
Military	2	1%	
Golf School	1	0%	
Other	14	5%	
Type of overnight accommodation on most recent trip			282
Hotel	101	36%	
Motel	10	4%	
Bed & Breakfast	18	6%	
Resort	105	37%	
Family & Friends	48	17%	
In the past two years, how many golf trips have you taken			283
1 to 2	137	48%	
3 to 4	89	31%	
More than 5 trips	57	20%	

## **Travel Expenditure**

The dependent variable for this study was different categories of tourism expenditures per trip in U.S. dollars. The total expenditures were created by adding the amount of total dollars from each category of expenditures including lodging, meals and restaurants, attractions/festivals, entertainment, shopping, transportation, and golf expenditures. The total expenditures were then recoded as a new variable.

Although total expenditures for all survey respondents was calculated into a new variable for multiple regression purposes, every survey respondent provided approximate expenditures on their most recent golf trip for all seven expenditures categories. The total averages for travel expenditures are presented in Table 9. Lodging accounted for the largest overall average expenditure for every golf trip, and meals/restaurants and golfing related costs also accounted for a large portion of the overall expenditures from the sample group. The lodging results fit well with the results of Jang, Bai, Hong, and O'Leary (2004). However, the meals/restaurant expenditures do not support previous research. According to Wellner (2000), the single largest category that consumers spend on when they are traveling in the United States is food.

Visiting attractions/festivals while on a golf trip can be described as going to Southern California to play golf and also going to Santa Monica Pier or Disney-land during that same trip. Within this study, those expenditures made up the smallest expenditure category, which could be interpreted to mean that survey respondents were more focused on playing golf during their trip rather than tangential opportunities. The overall travel expenditure findings support previous research by Wang, Rompf, Severt, and Peerapatdit (2006). Wang et al. (2006) found that length of stay had a significant

impact on expenses relating to lodging, meals and restaurants, transportation, attraction and festivals, and shopping. Fifty percent of respondents vacationed three to four days and 27% vacationed for more than five days, which supports the data from this study and findings from Wang et al. that length of stay had an effect on overall expenditures.

Table 9

*Average Amount Spent on Most Recent Golf Trip Per Person*

Expenditure category	Average amount spent (\$)
Lodging	380.25
Meals/Restaurants	279.48
Attractions/ Festivals	29.93
Entertainment	105.57
Shopping (other than food)	70.79
Transportation (including gas)	246.16
Golf (tee times, equipment, etc.)	267.81

### **Non-Golfing Activities**

Survey respondents were asked to rate the importance of non-golfing activities when determining where to go on a golf trip. A list of nine statements was included in the questionnaire and subjects were asked to indicate their level of agreement or disagreement using a typical Likert scale where a “1” indicated the subject strongly disagreed with the statement through a response of “5” which was interpreted to indicate that the subjects strongly agreed with the statement. The nine statements are listed in Table 10 with descriptive statistics. Data analysis using inferential and descriptive statistics was used to generate these findings.

Table 10

*Non-Golfing Activities Profile of Survey Respondents*

Statements	Mean	Variance	SD	Valid N
Hike, bike, etc.	2.51	1.49	1.22	286
Attend a cultural site/event	2.70	1.36	1.17	285
Attend a festival, etc.	2.49	1.19	1.09	285
Participate in an outdoor activity (hunting, fishing)	3.04	1.71	1.31	285
Boating	2.63	1.23	1.11	283
Visit a beach/water area	3.58	1.20	1.09	288
Gamble	3.29	1.44	1.20	285
Visit a historic site	2.94	1.21	1.10	285
Go shopping	2.62	1.28	1.13	286

**Travel Motives**

Survey respondents were asked to rate the importance of their travel motives when deciding to take a golf trip/vacation. A list of 12 travel motives created from Iso-Ahola's motivations for pleasure travel was included in the survey. Survey respondents were asked to indicate their level of agreement or disagreement using a typical Likert scale where a "1" indicated the subject strongly disagreed with the statement through a response of "5" which was interpreted to indicate that the subjects strongly agreed with the statement. The 12 statements with the corresponding responses are listed in Table 11.

Table 11

*Travel Motives of the Survey Respondents*

Statements	Mean	Variance	SD	Valid N
To have a change in pace from my everyday life	4.00	0.79	0.89	287
To overcome a bad mood	2.65	1.07	1.04	288
To experience new things by myself	3.05	1.35	1.16	288
To avoid people who annoy me	2.37	1.24	1.12	288
To get away from a stressful situation	3.02	1.47	1.21	288
To bring friends/family closer	3.99	0.72	0.85	288
To avoid interactions with others	2.02	0.88	0.94	288
To tell others about my experiences	2.93	1.19	1.09	287
To get away from my normal environment	3.80	0.87	0.93	285
To feel good about myself	3.32	0.99	1.00	288
To be with people of similar interests	3.84	0.85	0.92	288
To meet new people	3.14	1.04	1.02	287

### **Hierarchical Regression Analysis**

Multiple-regression was used in this study to investigate the most influential motivational variables among Iso-Ahola's motivations for tourism travel affecting tourism expenditures for active sport tourists traveling to play golf. Hierarchical multiple regression was conducted to examine whether total income helped predict expenditures for active sport tourists who have traveled to play golf in the past two years, to force total income into the regression equation to control for certain factors and to remove those factors as influences on the overall relationship between motivations and expenditures. Total income was entered into the regression equation first through hierarchical regression so that it was controlled, thus allowing conclusions about the relationship without allowing total income to be confounded with motivations. For example, individuals with larger total incomes are more likely to travel and therefore would likely have greater expenditures. The hierarchical analysis shows that total income explained 6% of the variance in expenditures,  $F(1,275) = 17.586, p < .0005$ .

Table 12

#### *Hierarchical Analysis*

	R <sup>2</sup>	F	P
Step 1	.060	17.586	p < .0005

### **Stepwise Regression Analysis**

#### **Stepwise Regression #1**

After forcing total income into the equation, all four motivational categories were allowed to enter into the regression equation to see if any were statistically significant.

The stepwise solution indicated that personal seeking ( $p = .037$ ) contributed to the



prediction of expenditures,  $R^2 = .075$ ,  $R^2_{adj} = .069$ ,  $F(2, 269) = 10.975$ ,  $p < .05$  (see Table 13). Personal escape, interpersonal escape, and interpersonal seeking were not statistically significant and, therefore, were not included in the model. The regression equation for this sample was:  $Y^1 \text{expenditure} = -73.559 + 80.342 (\text{personal seeking})$ .

Table 13

*Stepwise Regression Analysis #1*

	$R^2$	b	$\beta$	t
Step 1 newtotal	.060	.010	.246**	4.165
Step 2 ps	.075	80.342	.123*	2.093

newtotal = total income, ps = personal seeking, *Note.* \* $p < .05$ . \*\* $p < .001$

This analysis can be interpreted to suggest that active sport tourists who travel to play golf are motivated by personal seeking motives (i.e., to tell others about my experiences, to feel good about myself, and to experience new things by myself), and tend to have higher overall expenditures.

**Stepwise Regression #2**

The initial hierarchical and stepwise analysis revealed that of the four motivational categories (personal escape, interpersonal escape, personal seeking, and interpersonal seeking), only personal seeking was statistically significant with total expenditures. Thus, it can be surmised that personal seeking motives are the best predictors of travel expenditures based on this data. However, to ensure the data is fully vetted and to attempt to support the initial finding, stepwise analysis using personal seeking (ps) was completed.

This stepwise analysis was additionally important because previous hierarchical and stepwise analysis confirmed that personal seeking (ps) travel motives (to tell others

about my experiences, to feel good about myself, and to experience new things by myself) where the best predictors of travel expenditures. This additional analysis allowed for further vetting of the personal seeking (ps) motives to help determine which, if any, individual motives are the best predictors. For this analysis, the independent variable with the highest zero-order correlation was “to experience new things by myself.” “To tell others about my experiences” and “to feel good about myself” were not significant and therefore not included in the model.

The stepwise solution indicated that “to experience new things by myself” ( $p < .003$ ) contributed to the prediction of travel expenditures,  $R^2 = .017$ ,  $R^2_{adj} = .014$ ,  $F = (1,285) = 4.954$ ,  $p < .003$ . Approximately 2% of the variance in total expenditures was accounted for by the “to experience new things by myself” motive. The regression equation for this sample:  $Y^{\text{total expenditure}} = 868.654 + 213.871(\text{experience})$ .

### **Stepwise Regression #3**

For the next analysis, with personal seeking motives fully vetted, stepwise regression was again used to determine whether the other nine individual travel motives that contribute to the remaining three categories are good overall predictors for travel expenditures. In other words, the nine remaining motivational items were used as predictors in a series of stepwise regression analyses for total expenditures for the remaining categories (personal escape, interpersonal escape, and interpersonal seeking). Similar to the first stepwise regression analysis, total income was again forced into each equation, allowing for the three remaining motivational categories to enter into the regression equation to see if any were statistically significant with the remaining travel motives.

**Analysis #1: Total expenditures and personal escape (pe) motives.** In step one of this stepwise analysis, all three personal escape (pe) motives (to get away from my normal environment, to have a change in pace from my everyday life, and to overcome a bad mood) were entered along with the dependent variable (total expenditures). In step two, analysis found that none of the three personal escape (pe) motives had any statistical significance with total expenditures, which is consistent with the previous hierarchical and stepwise analysis.

**Analysis #2: Total expenditures and interpersonal escape (ie) motives.** In step one of this stepwise analysis, all three interpersonal escape (ie) motives (to avoid people who annoy me, to get away from a stressful social environment, to avoid interactions with others) were entered along with the dependent variable (total expenditures). In step two, analysis found that none of the three interpersonal escape (ie) motives had any statistical significance with total expenditures, which is consistent with the previous hierarchical and stepwise analysis.

**Analysis #3: Total expenditures and interpersonal seeking (is) motives.** This stepwise analysis was additionally important because previous stepwise analysis confirmed that interpersonal seeking (is) travel motives (to be with people of similar interests, to bring friends/family closer, and to meet new people) had the highest semi-partial correlation with regards to predictors of travel expenditures. This additional analysis allowed for further vetting of the interpersonal seeking (is) motives to help determine if any individual motives are good predictors. For this analysis, the independent variable with the highest zero-order correlation was “to meet new people.”

“To be with people of similar interests” and “to bring friends/family closer” were not significant and therefore not included in the model.

The stepwise solution indicated that “to meet new people” ( $p < .0005$ ) contributed to the prediction of travel expenditures,  $R^2 = .021$ ,  $R^2_{adj} = .018$ ,  $F = (1,285) = 6.211$ ,  $p < .0005$ . Approximately 2% of the variance in total expenditures was accounted for by the ‘to meet new people’ motive. The regression equation for this sample:  $Y^{\text{total expenditure}} = 710.922 + 213.871(\text{meet new})$ .

### **Chapter Summary**

Multiple regression analysis was used to examine if Iso-Ahola’s motivations for tourism travel are good predictors of travel expenditures for active sport tourists traveling to play golf. The research question was: What are the most influential motivational variables among Iso-Ahola’s motivations for tourism travel affecting tourism expenditures for active sport tourists traveling to play golf? Hierarchical and stepwise regression analysis was completed to determine the effects of tourism motives on travel expenditures for active sport tourists. Hierarchical analysis was completed first so that total income would be controlled for, thus allowing the conclusions about the relationship without allowing total income to be confounded with motivations. To control for total income, total income was entered first in the equation, explaining 6% of the variance in expenditures.

The first stepwise analysis indicated that personal seeking (ps) motives were statistically significant and contributed to the prediction of expenditures. Personal escape, interpersonal escape, and interpersonal seeking were not statistically significant and were not included in the model. This analysis can be interpreted to suggest that

active sport tourists who travel to play golf that are motivated by personal seeking motives tend to have higher overall expenditures.

A second stepwise regression was completed. This additional analysis allowed for further vetting of the personal seeking (ps) motives to help determine which, if any, individual motives are the best predictors for travel expenditures. The stepwise analysis indicated that “to experience new things by myself” as the best contributor to the prediction of travel expenditures. “To tell others about my experiences” and “to feel good about myself” were not significant.

In the third analysis, with personal seeking motives fully vetted, stepwise regression was used to determine whether the other nine individual travel motives that contribute to the remaining three constructs are good overall predictors for travel expenditures. This analysis found that total expenditures were statistically significant with interpersonal seeking (is) motives, specifically “to meet new people.” However, none of the personal escape (pe) or interpersonal escape (ie) motives were statistically significant with travel expenditures.

The socio-demographic data from the study was important because it provided the researcher with a comprehensive understanding of the golf public specifically relating to active sport tourists. The data revealed that 98% of the survey respondents were male and 59% were married. The majority of the survey respondents were Caucasian (97%), 1% were Asian, 1% were Hispanic, and 1% answered “other.” There were no African American survey respondents. Of the survey respondents, 66% were between 21 and 35 years of age, 24% were between 36 and 45, 9% were between 46 and 55, 0% between 56 and 65, and 1% were 65 years of age and above. Three percent of the survey respondents

had annual household incomes less than \$25,000, 15% were between \$25,000 and \$39,000, 15% were between \$40,000 and \$49,000, 21% were between \$50,000 and \$74,000, 17% were between \$75,000 and \$99,000, 18% were between \$100,000 and \$150,000, and 11% had annual household income of \$150,000 and over. Thirty-six percent had children under the age of 18 living at home. Eighty-six percent of the survey respondents had a college degree, 13% had some graduate school or a graduate degree, and 1% had some college.

## CHAPTER V

### DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

This chapter summarizes and discusses the findings, implications, and limitations, of this dissertation. The first section of the chapter includes the summary of the study, followed by a discussion of the multiple regression and golf travel/non-golfing results, and a general discussion of the results that were presented in the previous chapter. The next section includes implication of findings, as well as limitations of the study. Finally, a number of ideas are presented for future research.

#### **Summary of the Study**

This study identified the travel motivations that best predict expenditures for active sport tourists traveling to play golf. It also provided information on socio-demographic, golf travel, and non-golfing activities of active sport tourists. In reviewing the literature on this topic, two separate streams of research emerged: (1) one stream considers the economic impact of tourism and sport tourism, and (2) one stream focuses on the reasons or motives people have for travel and tourism. This study links these two separate streams of research by examining how sport tourists' motives for traveling and participating in golf affect their subsequent personal expenditures during the trip. The question that guided this study was: What are the most influential motivational variables among Iso-Ahola's Social Psychological Model of Tourism Motivation affecting tourism expenditures for active sport tourists traveling to play golf?

The targeted sample for this study was alumni of four PGA Golf Management programs who had traveled to play golf within the last two years. The data for this study were acquired from an on-line survey that was conducted from November 2010 through

February 2011. The survey effort resulted in 353 completed responses for a 16.04% response rate. After scrutinizing the data for irregularities and discrepancies, 65 surveys were removed from the analysis. The final data set consisted of 288 usable surveys.

In an attempt to understand the characteristics of the sample, the first section of the survey covered seven demographic items. All demographic items were addressed in a closed- ended form with a variety of possible answers. The second section specifically focused on how the subjects became interested in playing golf. These were closed-ended questions with a range of possible responses. The third section specifically focused on the subject's most recent golf trip/vacation and the specifics about that trip. Two open-ended questions asked respondents to include the state they traveled to for their trip and whether they traveled outside the United States and if so, to which country they traveled.

The fourth section inquired about their total individual travel expenditures during the most recent golf trip/vacation, including cash and credit charges. The fifth section asked respondents to identify the non-golfing activities they considered important when deciding where to travel to their golf trip/vacation. The subjects responded using a typical Likert scale where a "1" indicated the subject strongly disagreed with the statement through a response of "5" which was interpreted to indicate that the subjects strongly agreed with the statement. The last section of the survey included questions focusing on respondents' motivations to travel, specifically focusing on four motivational items: personal escape, interpersonal escape, personal seeking and interpersonal seeking, with additional breakdown consistent with Snepenger, King, Marshall, and Uysal (2006). Similar to section five, the subjects again responded using a typical Likert scale.



The present study employed a correlational research design, specifically a prediction study using multiple regression analysis. More specifically, hierarchical and stepwise regression was used for data analysis. Both hierarchical and stepwise analyses were used because of the predictive nature of the study and the continuous independent variables being used. McMillan and Schumacher (2001) suggested that prediction studies are used to provide a more accurate estimation of prediction. Multiple regression also allows researchers to control for selected variables to determine the relationship between the remaining independent variables and the dependent variable (McMillan & Schumacher, 2001). Given that the main purpose of the present study is to investigate how motivations for tourism explain travel expenditures for active sport tourists, correlational research design is particularly useful.

### **Multiple Regression Summary**

Multiple regression analysis, more specifically, hierarchical and stepwise regression was used for data analysis to investigate how motivations for travel predict travel expenditures for active sport tourists. The appropriate conclusion was that the data provided a moderate relationship between motivations and travel expenditures. However, not all of the four motivational predictors: (1) personal escape, (2) interpersonal escape (3) personal seeking, and (4) interpersonal seeking, contributed to the overall results.

Hierarchical analysis was initially completed to force total income into the equation to control for certain financial factors and to remove those factors as influences on the overall relationship between motivations and expenditures. Hierarchical analysis suggested that total income was able to explain 6% of the variance in overall

expenditures, more importantly the analysis showed that personal seeking (ps) motives were the most influential in explaining tourism expenditures.

To confirm what the hierarchical analysis suggested, stepwise multiple regression was also completed. The first stepwise analysis indicated that personal seeking (ps) motives were statistically significant and contributed to the prediction of expenditures. Personal escape, interpersonal escape, and interpersonal seeking were not statistically significant and were not included in the model. This analysis can be interpreted to suggest that active sport tourists who travel to play golf that are motivated by personal seeking motives tend to have higher overall expenditures.

A second stepwise regression was completed. This additional analysis allowed for further vetting of the personal seeking (ps) motives to help determine which, if any, individual motives are the best predictors for travel expenditures. The stepwise analysis indicated that within the personal seeking (ps) results, “to experience new things by myself” was the best contributor to the prediction of travel expenditures. “To tell others about my experiences” and “to feel good about myself” were not significant.

In the third analysis, with personal seeking motives fully vetted, stepwise regression was used to determine whether the other nine individual travel motives that contribute to the remaining three constructs are good overall predictors for travel expenditures. This analysis found that total expenditures were statistically significant with interpersonal seeking (is) motives, specifically “to meet new people.” However, none of the personal escape (pe) or interpersonal escape (ie) motives were statistically significant with travel expenditures. All in all, one motivational category (personal seeking) that included three independent motivational statements was found to be the

most significant factors to explain tourism expenditure patterns. These results support previous tourism motivation literature that seeking or micro-level motivations influence travel (Gibson, 2004).

### **Golf Travel and Non-Golfing Summary**

The major findings from the study relating to golf travel and non-golfing activities are summarized as follows. First, when planning a golf trip/vacation, the golf course itself, not the location of the golf course, is the most important factor. This supports Crompton's (1979) pull factor theory which suggested motives that are stimulated by the destination itself, rather than initially coming from the traveler themselves are extrinsic in nature. This is an interesting piece of data because the multiple regression analysis suggested that intrinsic motivations, not extrinsic, are more prevalent when planning a golf trip/vacation.

Second, on their most recent golf trip/vacation, 89% of the respondents traveled within the United States and 35% of those respondents traveled to the Southeast for their trip. The Midwest was the second highest travel destination. According to Miller and Washington (2011a), in 2010 the most popular travel destinations for golfers were Florida, South Carolina, North Carolina, California, and Arizona. The respondents in this study traveled to 32 different states with the majority of their travels to South Carolina, Florida, and California, which is in line with the Miller and Washington information.

Third, resort and private golf courses were visited by the majority of respondents on their most recent golf trip/vacation. In addition, most respondents stayed an average of three to four days at the facility. Length of stay is important in understanding expenditures patterns of tourists. Wang, Rompf, Severt, and Peerapatdit (2006)

examined the effects of socio-demographic, travel-related and psychographic variables on travel expenditures. They found length of stay to have a significant impact on expenses relating to lodging, meals and restaurants, transportation, attraction and festivals, and shopping. Fourth, with respect to accommodations on respondents' most recent golf trip/vacation; resort hotels were the most visited with traditional hotels a close second. This supports Gibson (1998a) data that suggested active sport tourists who are golfers are attracted to resorts more so than other types of golfing facilities.

Fifth, according to the results, the respondents traveled frequently to play golf, 34% traveled three to four times in the past two years to play golf and 20% took five or more trips in the past two years. This data is interesting for a couple of reasons. First, based on this information the respondents cannot be classified into one of the three generic golfer categories suggested by Golf 20/20 (2009) because those categories are based on rounds played per year and not trips taken. This study did not ask respondents to include total rounds played. Second, frequency of travel to play golf can be related to the motivational literature, similar to the multiple regression data. The motivation to travel and participate in an activity is a basic intrinsic motivation as described by Deci and Ryan (2008). In addition, it is an intentional choice because the motivation is influenced by sport involvement. Also, the frequency to travel and play golf supports Weed and Bull's (2004) sport motivation concept because there is an internal motivation to travel to play because there is a strong sense of connection to a group.

Sixth, with respect to travel expenditures on respondents' most recent golf trip/vacation, lodging expenditures were the highest with an average expenditure of \$380.25, including a maximum spent of \$4,000. This data supports recent research from

Thrane (2002) and Wang et al. (2006) that lodging was the most significant expenditure for tourists. Meals was second highest expenditure with an average of \$279.48, the maximum spent for meals was \$2,500. Attractions and festivals had the lowest expenditure average of \$29.33. Interestingly enough, golf expenditures was the third highest with an average expenditure of \$267.81 with a maximum of \$5,000. Golf expenditures included paying to play golf, buying equipment while on the trip and other ancillary items needed to play golf.

Seventh, respondents were asked to identify non-golfing activities, if any, they considered important when planning a golf trip/vacation. Nine activities were provided to choose from, and “visiting a beach or water front area” had the highest mean at 3.58; second highest was “gambling,” with a mean of 3.29. Third on the list was “participating in an outdoor activity (hunting, fishing, etc.)” with 3.04. The lowest mean was “attending a festival” with 2.49. This is another interesting piece of data because the multiple regression analysis suggested that intrinsic motivations are more prevalent. However, “visiting a beach or water front area” and “gambling” are specific types of destination, which supports Crompton’s pull motive that suggests the individual is stimulated by the destination itself, which is an extrinsic motivation.

### **General Discussion**

An appropriate beginning for this discussion is a review of the research purpose. The central focus of the study investigated how motivations for travel predict travel expenditures for active sport tourists. Previous literature had not attempted to bridge the gap between motivations for tourism travel and travel expenditures. However, the

appropriate conclusion was that the data provided a moderate relationship between motivations and travel expenditures.

### **Potential Results**

Based on the purpose of the study and the current tourism motivation and travel expenditure literature, two basic assumptions were made. First, although the research question was narrow in focus, on the basis of the tourism motivation literature as well as common knowledge, it was expected that motivations to travel and play golf would be supported by both intrinsic and extrinsic motivations. As already stated earlier in this section, the prevailing motivational themes within travel motivational literature encompass variations of both intrinsic and extrinsic motivations. The second assumption was that travel expenditure data from the study would support current literature in that those individuals traveling to play golf would spend money on the traditional travel expenditure categories that included lodging, meals and restaurants, attractions and festivals, entertainment, shopping, and transportation.

### **Current Literature**

The current literature provides important information regarding travel motives. A thorough review of the travel motivational literature was presented in Chapter II; that review produced some important information, specifically that all travel/sport motivations are based on both intrinsic and extrinsic motivations. Within the travel/sport motivational literature there are three prevailing motivations.

First, the push and pull motives described by Crompton (1979). Crompton suggested that push motives for choosing a vacation are socio-psychological, and the pull motives are stimulated by the destination itself. The second prevailing motivations are

the pseudo and intentional choice described by Kurtzman and Zauhar (2005a). Kurtzman and Zauhar wrote the pseudo choice motivation for sports travel is directly influenced and dependent upon others. The intentional choice motivation differs in that the person traveling makes his or her decision to travel based sport involvement as a participant or spectator. The third prevailing motivations are basic intrinsic and extrinsic described by Deci and Ryan (2008). Deci and Ryan noted that intrinsic motivation involves doing a behavior because the activity itself is interesting and spontaneously satisfying. When intrinsically motivated, people perform activities because of the positive feelings resulting from the activities themselves. Extrinsic motivation involves engaging in an activity because it leads to some separate consequence.

An additional motivational theme presented in the literature review that is more specific to sport motivation was presented by Weed and Bull (2004). Weed & Bull stated that there are motives which are more specifically identified with sport (rather than tourism) such as competitiveness, a desire to win, the testing of one's abilities and the development of skills and competencies, especially among more elite athletes. More specifically, there is a strong internal motive for playing sport; it provides a sense of connection, involving the need to belong to a team, group, club or society in general (Weed & Bull, 2004).

### **Additional Regression Analysis**

While multiple regression analysis did provide some interesting and important results as it relates to motivations to travel and expenditures for active sport tourists, some additional and note-worthy results also appeared. Based on the prevailing motivational themes mentioned, and in conjunction with the results from the multiple

regression analysis, it is important to go beyond the surface and provide a more in depth analysis.

First, stepwise analysis stated that overall, personal seeking (ps) motives were the most influential in explaining tourism expenditures. Also, stepwise analysis indicated that within the personal seeking (ps) motives, “to experience new things by myself” were the best contributor to the prediction of travel expenditures. In addition, the last stepwise analysis found that total expenditures were also statistically significant with interpersonal seeking (is) motives, specifically “to meet new people.” Multiple regression analysis showed that only seeking motives (personal and interpersonal) were statistically significant with travel expenditures.

It is interesting to note that half of Iso-Ahola’s motivational categories are derived specifically from intrinsic motivations. Personal seeking and interpersonal seeking motivations are intrinsically motivated according to Iso-Ahola. Iso-Ahola (1982) stated that the approach or seeking motivations provides certain intrinsic rewards, such as feelings of mastery and competence. The research findings show that personal seeking and interpersonal seeking motives are the only statistically significant motives within the study, suggesting that only intrinsic rewards such as feelings of mastery and competence are important to these respondents.

Also, if analysis shows that only intrinsic motivations are significant, we could then surmise that other specific intrinsic motivations from the prevailing motivational themes are also present. Thus suggesting for this population, that in addition to Iso-Ahola’s seeking motivations, Crompton’s push motive, Kurtzman & Zauhar’s intentional



choice motive, and Deci and Ryan's basic intrinsic motivation are the only motivating factors related to traveling to play golf and expenditures.

In addition, the statistically significant intrinsic motivation findings support the Weed & Bull (2004) sport motivational theory which stated sport (rather than tourism) is a particularly strong internal motive because it provides a sense of connection, and the need to belong to a team, group, club or society. Although this was a specific golfing population that was surveyed, the results support the notion of intrinsic motivations, not extrinsic motivations, as being most important in overall decision making.

Second, the multiple regression analysis showed there are no external motivations statistically significant within this population. According to Iso-Ahola (1982), the extrinsic motivation of avoidance or escape (personal escape and interpersonal escape) is described as leaving the routine environment behind. According to the data, none of the respondents within the study felt the need to escape or leave their daily routines behind. Again, this was a specific golfing population being studied, but neither personal nor interpersonal escape motivations were statistically significant. Also, the lack of statistically significant extrinsic motivations suggests that Crompton's pull motivation, Kurtzman & Zauhar's pseudo choice motivation, and Deci and Ryan's basic extrinsic motivation are not prevalent within this population.

The fact that none of the extrinsic motives were statistically significant within the multiple regression analysis is surprising and difficult to explain. As been stated in previous chapters, the prevailing motivational themes within the travel motivational literature (Crompton, 1979; Kurtzman & Zauhar, 2005a; Deci & Ryan, 2008) suggest that there are varying forms of intrinsic and extrinsic motivations that determine reasons for

travel. It is possible that the absence of extrinsic motivations could be attributed to the fact that a specific golfing population was chosen for this study, and that a more general golfing population could have provided more diverse results.

After synthesizing the statistical results with the literature, and because extrinsic motivations were not statistically significant within the study, several key decisions in the research process were reviewed to see if these had an impact on the multiple regression findings. That review included the use of PGA alumni as the sample and not a more general golfing population. The time of year the study was given was also reviewed. It is possible that winter months have a different effect on individuals travel motives than other times of the year. The survey itself was reviewed. The important research questions were located at the end of the survey and after completion of the study it was noted that the most important questions should be at the start of the survey. So it is possible that placement of the travel motivation questions near the end of survey could have had a negative effect. While it is likely some of these decisions had an effect on the overall results, future research will need to be completed using different research techniques to make realistic comparisons.

### **Significance of Personal Seeking Motives**

The data supported the relationship between travel expenditures and personal seeking (ps) motives. Personal seeking motivation is indeed dynamic in character. What is significant about personal seeking motives and their relation to PGA alumni could be found within the research conducted by Weed and Bull. Weed and Bull's (2004) sport motivational theory stated that sport (rather than tourism) is a particularly strong internal motive because it provides a sense of connection, and the need to belong to a team,

group, club or society. Also, being in the company of like-minded people is a further enhancement to the experience, highlighting again the importance of the interaction of activity, people, and place (Weed & Bull, 2004). The respondents to this study were PGA alumni, those individuals attended college with like-minded individuals who specifically wanted to be trained in the business side of golf and to play golf as a career. PGA alumni are a very select group that has a sense of connection and feels an association with all golfers, similar to Weed and Bull's sport motivational theory.

### **Travel Expenditures**

The second basic assumption on the potential results stated that travel expenditure data from the study would support current literature, suggesting that those individuals traveling to play golf would spend money on the traditional travel expenditure categories, which the data supported. Although total expenditures for all survey respondents was calculated into a new variable for multiple regression purposes, every survey respondent provided approximate expenditures on their most recent golf trip for all seven expenditures categories. According to the data, the second assumption was met.

The total averages for travel expenditures are presented in Table 9 in Chapter IV. Lodging accounted for the largest overall average expenditure for every golf trip, and meals/restaurants and golfing related costs also accounted for a large portion of the overall expenditures from the sample group. The lodging results fit well with the results of Jang, Bai, Hong, and O'Leary (2004). However, the meals/restaurant expenditures do not support previous research. According to Wellner (2000), the single largest category that consumers spend on when they are traveling in the United States is food.

The smallest expenditure category from respondents was attractions/festivals, which could be interpreted to mean that survey respondents were more focused on playing golf during their trip rather than tangential opportunities such as visiting a zoo or natural history museum. These findings along with the golf travel data are in line with those of Wang et al. (2006). Wang et al. found that length of stay had a significant impact on expenses relating to lodging, meals and restaurants, transportation, attraction and festivals, and shopping. Fifty percent of respondents vacationed three to four days and 27% vacationed for more than five days, which supports the data from this study and findings from Wang et al. that length of stay had a positive effect on overall expenditures.

### **General Discussion Conclusion**

The relationship between expenditures and travel motives within this study is symbiotic. Both variables were used to explain the phenomena of that relationship and to support or develop theory. The theoretical relationship between travel expenditures and travel motives within this study is that those individuals motivated by personal seeking (ps) to travel to play golf will travel more often than those who are less interested, and, in theory, they will spend more money on travel expenditures, including lodging, meals and restaurants, attractions and festivals, entertainment, shopping, and transportation, suggesting that their overall travel expenditures during their specific golf travel will be greater.

If travel motivations and travel expenditures are the basis for explaining and developing theory, two phenomena are emerging. On the one hand, the golf traveler is an observant person who visits golf facilities in order to appreciate intrinsic rewards and to appreciate the beauty of nature and its surroundings. On the other hand, that same golf

traveler is an active tourist who takes full advantage of his/her financial ability to travel and participate in a sporting activity. Therefore, the phenomena between travel motivations and travel expenditures are more and more connected with the ability to explain expenditures based on the intrinsic desire to travel to achieve feelings of mastery and competence.

### **Implications of Findings**

The results of the study offer both theoretical and practical contributions of motivations for travel on sport tourism expenditures. Due to its universal appeal, sport and tourism are now among the developed nations of the world most sought after leisure experiences (Ritchie & Adair, 2002). As Higham and Hinch (2003) observed, a considerable amount of sporting activity is featured by travel while a considerable amount of tourism is featured by sport.

This study's results illustrated that motivations for travel and travel expenditures are moderately connected and could be useful for understanding active sport tourists' travel expenditures, as well as having practical implications for sport marketers, sport organizations, and sport facilities. The results provide the tourism industry with useful information to develop marketing and promotion strategies. Due to the recent phenomena of sport tourism as a subject worthy of academic attention, few studies have focused on the motivations that influence sport tourists' travel motivations and how they impact sport tourists' expenditures. The absence of studies combining tourism motives and expenditure patterns has resulted in limited theoretical frameworks from which to derive sport tourism marketing practices. The present study was, therefore, intended to fill this need by researching the most influential motivational variables among Iso-

Ahola's motivations for tourism travel affecting tourism expenditures for active sport tourists.

The potential implication of this study can be described in terms of its role in better understanding the motivational factors that contribute to travel expenditure patterns within active sport tourism. The data from this study could potentially contribute to both theory and practice, and create an introductory analysis of motivation and expenditure patterns. The importance of tourism expenditures has been recognized not only by the tourism industry itself, but also by local, state, and national governments. Consequently, understanding tourism expenditure patterns has attracted a great deal of attention both from academic researchers and tourism practitioners. Understanding the expenditure patterns and activities of tourists during their visit to a particular destination is a key issue in the strategic planning of facilities and amenities (Mok & Iverson, 2000).

From a practical standpoint, this study may help sport tourism destination marketers to better segment their target market, allocate their marketing dollars more effectively and tailor their products to compete for the tourists' dollar. The information gathered from this study can also assist golf and tourism marketers with information that can be used to create market strategies, branding strategies for specific golfing destinations, and establish systems of customer relations marketing, all based on golfing frequency.

It provides information that destination marketers can apply to aid in their understanding of the tourist consumer. Studies on these expenditure patterns help describe the size of each travel market, and it also leads to the identification of attributes influencing travel expenditure characteristics among market segments (Jang et al. 2004).

Since consumer dollars and tourism organizations' marketing budgets are limited, this study may provide guidelines for tourism marketers to develop better strategic marketing tools to satisfy and fulfill those tourist needs and understand certain reasons behind their spending patterns. Sport tourism researchers and marketers now have reliable data for assessing and understanding the important motives for active sport tourist's travel decisions.

### **Limitations of the Study**

As with most studies, there are limitations to this study that must be discussed. One of the most difficult tasks involved the selection of the travel motives to be used as predictors of expenditures. Although measures were taken to ensure that the travel motives chosen for this study were all encompassing, other travel motives could have been chosen. Limitations also arose from the fact that the data for this dissertation was collected using an on-line survey method. Although the data collection procedure allowed for cost effective implementation, rapid deployment, flexibility, and instant monitoring, the Internet survey is subject to its own inherent issues (Zikmund, 2003). As a result, the sample was somewhat biased.

Social desirability bias also presents a potential limitation. Even though anonymity was ensured during the survey process, there was a lack of control of participants' desire to respond the way they think they should as opposed to responding with their true beliefs. The propensity to achieve social desirability may be a strong influence on the results of a self-report questionnaire (Ones, Viswesvaran, & Reiss, 1996).

The data in this research study were obtained from a specific golfing population, making generalizations inappropriate to any other golfing population other than the sample itself. The specific golfing sample was deemed necessary because of the difficulty in capturing the general golfing public and with the intention of enhancing the potential respondents' positive opinions of golf and therefore the response rate to the survey. Representativeness of the sample is questioned because it was limited to those who were alumni of PGA Golf Management programs. In addition, even though PGA alumni were chosen in part because of their ability to comprehend the survey, there is a possibility for misunderstanding the survey questions. Some responses conflicted with one another and suggested ambiguity or issues of interpretation. However, even with the narrow focus, the sample revealed evidence of a statistical relationship between specific motivations and travel expenditures.

While there were limitations within this study, those limitations were able to provide guidance for future research.

### **Suggestions for Future Research**

There are aspects of this dissertation that are somewhat exploratory in nature because there is no previous sport tourism research that is similar. As a result, there are many implications for future research. One is to gain a better understanding of the general golfing public. This study analyzes a specific golfing population, PGA alumni, but does not include the general golfing public and to what extent their motivations explain expenditures. As in this dissertation, an attempt can be made to understand the motivations and expenditures of the general golfing public.



Additional research should be conducted on other forms of active sport tourism as well, including activities such as mountain biking, scuba diving, sailing, snow skiing, etc. In addition, future research should focus on the issue of collecting expenditure data and its validity. The accuracy of travelers' recollection of their expenditures on any given trip is sometimes sporadic, finding a method that makes travelers' recollection less sporadic and more specific would be advantages.

Future research on tourism expenditures could also focus on socio-demographic variables such as income and travel related variables such as length of stay and number of adults traveling for sport or pleasure tourism. Resulting from the demographic, economic, and technological changes in society, De Knop (2004) expects special interest travel to become increasingly sophisticated. Given the expansion of sport tourism, sport tourists will likely increase in number and there will be increasing diversity in their profile and participation.

Another recommendation for future research pertains to other travel motivations. The multiple regression analysis showed that only intrinsic motivations helped explain travel expenditures, not extrinsic motivations. Future research could focus on extrinsic motivations specifically and their relationships with travel expenditures for active sport tourists. Or, future research could expand on intrinsic motivations and see if any additional intrinsic motivations help explain travel motivations.

In addition, future research could review the data collection protocol used in this study. The initial response rate for this study was very low, even though there was incentive to complete the survey from the subjects' former PGA Program directors. A plausible explanation for the very low initial response rate has to do with the email and

the issues of blocking junk mail. Unfortunately, due to certain junk mail filters potential respondents can customize on many email accounts (e.g., Hotmail, Gmail, and Yahoo), these filters could have limited who received the emails and lowered the response rates. This is out of the researchers' and, respective PGA Directors' immediate control. Future researchers may also employ alternative data collection protocols, such as direct mail, on-site interviews, or even mixed protocols, which could improve the overall response rate, and ultimately enhance the representativeness of the sample and the generalizability of the results. Future research linking travel motivations, expenditure patterns, and active sport tourists (specifically golfers), could be used to create a model for predicting travel expenditures based on motivations for active sport tourists.

In closing, this study marks the beginning of a long research stream intended to understand motivations for travel/tourism and travel expenditures for active sport tourists. Hair, Anderson, Tatham, and Black (1998) so appropriately depicted this reality in their diagram of the research process that ends with a feedback loop to the first step in the process.

### **Chapter Summary**

This chapter discusses results of the study and the professional and academic importance and implications of the findings with respect to sport tourism. In addition, a substantial amount of the discussion and information presented in Chapter V were as a result of my meeting with Committee Member Dr. Mario Martinez. The results of this study also provided some explanations for active sport tourists and their subsequent expenditures. All in all, one intrinsic motivational category (personal seeking) was found

to be the most significant factor to explain tourism expenditure patterns for active sport tourists.

APPENDIX A  
INSTITUTIONAL REVIEW BOARD APPROVAL



**Social/Behavioral IRB – Exempt Review  
Deemed Exempt**

**DATE:** October 22, 2010

**TO:** **Dr. Robert Ackerman**, Educational Leadership

**FROM:** Office of Research Integrity – Human Subjects

**RE:** Notification of review by Ms. Josi dos Santos, CIP *JDS*  
Protocol Title: Sport Tourism: Predicting Expenditure Patterns Based on Motivation to Travel for Active Sport Tourist  
Protocol # 1009-3575M

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This memorandum is notification that the project referenced above has been reviewed as indicated in Federal regulatory statutes 45CFR46.

**PLEASE NOTE:**

Attached to this approval notice is the **official Informed Consent/Assent (IC/IA) Form** for this study. The IC/IA contains an official approval stamp. Only copies of this official IC/IA form may be used when obtaining consent. Please keep the original for your records.

The protocol has been reviewed and deemed exempt from IRB review. It is not in need of further review or approval by the IRB.

*Any* changes to the exempt protocol may cause this project to require a different level of IRB review. Should any changes need to be made, please submit a **Modification Form**.

If you have questions or require any assistance, please contact the Office of Research Integrity - Human Subjects at [IRB@unlv.edu](mailto:IRB@unlv.edu) or call 895-2794.

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OCT 13 2010

APPENDIX B  
VOLUNTEER RECRUITMENT LETTER



Dear PGM Alumni,

I hope you have been enjoying this golfing season. I am a doctoral student at the University of Nevada, Las Vegas and for my dissertation I am studying what motivates' golfers to travel to play golf and their subsequent expenditures while on the trip. The official title of my study is "Sport Tourism: Predicting expenditure patterns based on motivation to travel for active sport tourist." The purpose of this study is to extend the literature by examining, if and how tourism expenditures for golf are related to tourist's motives. To be eligible to complete this survey, I am seeking golfers who have traveled to play golf in the United States or abroad within the past two years or will be traveling within the next 6 months. Also, according to the 2005 Golf 20/20 report, a golfer is defined as a person age 18 or above who has played at least one regulation round of golf in the past 12 months. If you fit into both the travel and golfer categories, would you please take 20 to 25 minutes to complete the brief questionnaire.

While participation is voluntary, without your help this research simply would not be possible. Your responses will assist me in the completion of my dissertation but will also shed light on predicting motives for travel and the expenditures associated with that travel. All responses are completely confidential and the questionnaire has been designed so you can move through it quickly.

My doctoral committee chair is Professor Robert Ackerman, department of educational leadership at the University of Nevada, Las Vegas. We would be happy to answer any questions you may have about this research and can be reached at the numbers and emails listed below. If you have any questions regarding the rights of research subjects or any complaints or comments regarding the manner in which the study is being conducted you may contact the UNLV Office of Research Integrity – Human Subjects at 702-895-2794. By continuing with the survey you understand the description of the study and agree to participate. To continue with the survey, please cut and paste this link into your browser.

Survey Link: [https://unlvhospitality.qualtrics.com//SE/?SID=SV\\_5zKzUJCMrIN952](https://unlvhospitality.qualtrics.com//SE/?SID=SV_5zKzUJCMrIN952)

Again, thank you for your help and participation.

Sincerely,

Chris Brown, M.Ed  
Assistant Director / Internship Coordinator  
Harrah College of Hotel Administration  
University of Nevada, Las Vegas  
Department of Tourism and Convention  
PGA Golf Management  
(702) 895-4837 / [chris.brown@unlv.edu](mailto:chris.brown@unlv.edu)

Dr. Robert Ackerman  
Professor  
UNLV College of Education  
University of Nevada, Las Vegas  
Department of Educational Leadership  
(702) 895-2740 / [bob.ackerman@unlv.edu](mailto:bob.ackerman@unlv.edu)

APPENDIX C  
QUALTRICS SURVEY

Qualtrics Survey Software

What is your gender?

- ☐ Male
- ☐ Female

What is your age?

- ☐ Under 21
- ☐ 21 - 35
- ☐ 36 - 45
- ☐ 46 - 55
- ☐ 56 - 65
- ☐ Over 65

What is your marital status?

- ☐ Single / never been married
- ☐ Married
- ☐ Separated
- ☐ Divorced
- ☐ Living with domestic partner or significant other

What is the highest level of education you have completed?

- ☐ High School or GED
- ☐ Vocational or Technical School
- ☐ Some College
- ☐ College Degree
- ☐ Some Graduate School or Graduate Degree

Which best describes your total annual income (from all sources) before taxes?

- ☐ Less than \$25,000
- ☐ \$25,000 - \$39,000
- ☐ \$40,000 - \$49,000
- ☐ \$50,000 - \$74,000

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- ☐ \$75,000 - \$99,000
- ☐ \$100,000 - \$149,000
- ☐ \$150,000 and over

Do you have children under the age of 18 living at home?

- ☐ Yes
- ☐ No

Which category most closely describes your ethnic background?

- ☐ White
- ☐ African American
- ☐ Asian American
- ☐ Hispanic American
- ☐ Other (please specify)

My introduction to the game of golf came from:

- ☐ A parent
- ☐ A friend
- ☐ As a caddy
- ☐ A school activity
- ☐ A neighborhood activity
- ☐ Other (please specify)

I became passionate about playing golf during which age group:

- ☐ Childhood
- ☐ Adolescent years
- ☐ Early adult
- ☐ Adult
- ☐ Senior Citizen

My initial passion for golf was mainly because:

- ☐ It was fun
- ☐ It was challenging
- ☐ I could spend time with family
- ☐ I could spend time with friends
- ☐ It provided business opportunities
- ☐ Other (please specify)

When traveling on a golf trip /vacation, which category is the most important factor with planning your trip?  
Please click the most important category.

- ☐ Lodging
- ☐ Meals and restaurants
- ☐ Attractions / festivals
- ☐ Entertainment
- ☐ Shopping
- ☐ Golf course (Pebble Beach, St. Andrews, etc.)
- ☐ Location of facility (beach, mountain, desert, etc.)

On your most recent golf trip / vacation, how many total individuals (including yourself) traveled to play golf?

- ☐ 1
- ☐ 2
- ☐ 3
- ☐ 4
- ☐ More than 5

On your most recent golf trip / vacation, where did you travel?

- ☐ United States
- ☐ Outside the United States

On that trip, if you traveled in the United States, which region of the country did you visit?

- ☐ Northeast
- ☐ Southeast
- ☐ Mid West
- ☐ Southwest

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- ☐ West (including Hawaii and Alaska)

On that trip, what state did you visit?

On that trip, if you traveled outside of the United States, where did you visit?

On your most recent golf trip / vacation, which type of facility did you visit?

- ☐ Resort
- ☐ Private
- ☐ Public
- ☐ Military
- ☐ Golf School
- ☐ Other (please specify)

On your most recent golf trip / vacation, how long did you stay?

- ☐ 1 to 2 days
- ☐ 3 to 4 days
- ☐ More than 5 days

On your most recent golf trip / vacation, which type of overnight accommodation do you stay in?

- ☐ Hotel
- ☐ Motel
- ☐ Bed & Breakfast
- ☐ Resort
- ☐ Family & Friends

In the past two years, how many golf trips / vacations (including short overnight trips and long overnight vacations) have you taken within the United States?

- ☐ 1 to 2
- ☐ 3 to 4

☒ More than 5 trips

In total, how much did you spend, including cash and credit cards, on your most recent golf trip / vacation for the following items? Please estimate.

Lodging	<input type="text" value="0"/>
Meals and restaurants	<input type="text" value="0"/>
Attractions / Festivals	<input type="text" value="0"/>
Entertainment	<input type="text" value="0"/>
Shopping (other than food)	<input type="text" value="0"/>
Transportation (including gas)	<input type="text" value="0"/>
Golf (tee times, equipment, etc.)	<input type="text" value="0"/>
Other (please specify) <input type="text"/>	<input type="text" value="0"/>
<b>Total</b>	<input type="text" value="0"/>

We are interested in any non-golfing activities you considered important in deciding where to go on your golf trip / vacation. Please indicate your level of agreement or disagreement with the following statements about the importance of non-golfing activities in your destination choice. Please click a response for each type of statement.

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Agree	Strongly Agree
a) hike, bike, etc.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
b) attend a cultural site/event	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
c) attend a festival, etc.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
d) participate in an outdoor activity (hunting, fishing, etc.)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
e) boating (power or sail)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
f) visit a beach/water from area	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
g) gamble	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
h) visit a historic site	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
i) go shopping	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
j) other (please specify) <input type="text"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

How important are the following motives for you when you go on a golf trip / vacation. Please click a response for each type of statement.

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	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Agree	Strongly Agree
a) To have a change in pace from my everyday life	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
b) To overcome a bad mood	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
c) To experience new things by myself	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
d) To avoid people who annoy me	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
e) To get away from a stressful social environment	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
f) To bring friends / family closer	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
g) To avoid interactions with others	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
h) To tell others about my experiences	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
i) To get away from my normal environment	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
j) To feel good about myself	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
k) To be with people of similar interests	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
l) To meet new people	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
m) Other (please specify)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
<input type="text"/>					

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