

THE IMPACT OF TRAVEL RELATED VARIABLES ON TRAVEL EXPENDITURES FOR SPORT TOURISTS

Chris Brown*, Kurt A. Stahura**

Abstract *The focus of this study was to identify the travel motivations that best predict expenditures on travel related variables for active sport tourists traveling to play golf. The targeted sample for this study was golfers from the United States who had traveled to play golf within the last two years. Regression analysis was used in the study to investigate the relationships between social psychological motives for tourism travel variables on the different categories of travel expenditures. Regression analysis revealed that overall, personal seeking (ps) motives were the most influential in explaining tourism expenditures with regards to travel related variables. 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*

Keywords: Tourism, Travel Motives, Golf, Sport, Expenditures

INTRODUCTION

The term sport tourism has become increasingly common in the tourism industry over the past few years among scholars and practitioners alike. It is in fact, becoming a lucrative segment of the tourism business. Because of the demand, the number of vacation destinations offering sporting facilities has grown tremendously. The wealth of golfers and new golf courses is a perfect example of the interest in sport oriented travel. Cruise ships, Disney World, resort hotels, and communities all use sports as a marketing tool in the battle for the tourism dollar (Gibson, 1998a, 1998b).

Previous travel and tourism research has indicated that travel-related variables impact consumer behavioral and motivational differences among different segments of the tourism market. Because of the discretionary nature of expenditures on vacation, it is becoming more important to understand factors affecting such behavior. The growing influence of tourism to the economy has been accompanied by an increased interest in understanding the factors which influence tourist expenditures (Seiler, Hsieh, Seiler, & Hsieh, 2002).

Given the magnitude of the economic impact of travel spending, emphasis has been placed on gathering travel expenditure data. Wang, Rompf, Severt, and Peerapatdit (2006) stated that "the long-term trend in tourism growth globally is paced with an abundance of opportunities and ever-evolving 'options' for today's traveler, particularly in terms of expenditures on recreation and entertainment" (p. 333). Studies pertaining to these expenditure patterns help illustrate the size of each travel market, as well as identify the attributes influencing travel expenditure characteristics among market segments (Jang, Bai, Hong, & O'Leary, 2004). With the significant growth in sport tourism, expenditures on recreational activities have also increased and expanded into non-traditional areas. Although very limited some tourism studies have attempted to relate spending behaviors to travel related variables.

The central purpose of this study was to identify the most influential travel motives utilizing Iso-Ahola's Motivations for Pleasure Travel. More specifically, we are incorporating the same template, tourism expenditures on travel related variables (lodging, meals and restaurants, festivals and attractions, entertainment, shopping, transportation, and golf expenditures) but applying it to active sport tourists who

* Assistant Professor, Department of Exercise Science and Sport Management Kennesaw State University, United States.
Email: cbrow307@kennesaw.edu

** Assistant Dean for Singapore, University of Nevada, Las Vegas (Singapore Campus) William F. Harrah College of Hotel Administration, Singapore. Email: kurt.stahura@unlv.edu.sg

travel and participate in golf. This study can provide the tourism industry with valuable information that can be used to create specific market and sales strategies. In addition, understanding the impact of various expenditure patterns can be beneficial to consumers and destinations.

LITERATURE REVIEW

The purpose of this study was two-fold; first, identify the most influential travel motives utilizing Iso-Ahola's Motivations for Pleasure Travel. Second, taking Iso-Ahola's travel motives and attempting to determine the most influential motivations affecting expenditures among active sport tourists. Though the connection between sport and tourism seems fundamental, it is not until recently that the concept of sport tourism has been embraced and empirically examined within the academy. 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). According to Gibson (1998a), sport tourism is merely a new adaptation on an old theme. 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 natural relationship between sport and tourism (Gibson, 2003). 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).

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). According to the U.S. Travel Association (2013a), in 2012 direct spending on leisure travel by domestic and international travelers totaled \$597 billion. In addition, direct spending by resident and international travelers in the U.S. averaged \$2.3 billion a day, \$97.7 million an hour, \$1.6 million a minute, and \$27,125 a second (U.S. Travel Association, 2013a). The importance of tourism expenditures has been recognized not only by the tourism industry itself but also by local governments. Consequently, understanding tourism expenditure patterns has attracted a great deal of attention from academic researchers and tourism practitioners.

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). The very definition of the term sport tourism has been debated and scholars have interpreted it

in a variety of different ways. 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. This study concentrated specifically on active sport tourism, where participants travel to participate in a sport.

TRAVEL-RELATED 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, and type of travel activities participated in, and socio demographic characteristics all appear to correlate with tourism expenditures (Spots & Mahoney, 1991; Thrane, 2002). Understanding these 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). According to the U.S. Travel Association (2013a), all U.S. travel generated \$855 billion in direct spending and another \$1.1 trillion in indirect and induced spending. In addition, \$200 billion in wages were shared by American workers directly employed by the travel industry (U.S. Travel Association, 2013a).

Jang et al. (2004) determined that socio-demographic and trip-related variables including age, occupation and travel companion contributed significantly to explaining travel expenditures. Wang et al. (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.

Seiler et al. (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 was also found to be 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.

A number of tourism studies have documented that household income has a positive influence on tourism expenditures in general (Cai, 1998; Fish & Waggle, 1996). Consumer spending has increased considerably 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 surge in tourism spending on leisure related products and travel has become important for the lodging, foodservice, transportation, and entertainment businesses (Cai et al., 1995).

Socio-demographic variables have been widely used to predict the level of travel or recreational expenditure (Dardis, Derrick, Lehfeld, & Wolfe, 1981; Cai 1998). Dardis et al. (1981) suggested that among the items to which households have allocated increasing amounts of their discretionary dollars are recreation and travel related goods and services. These scholars 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. (1981) found that recreation expenditures were positively related to income.

Golf Expenditures

According to the National Golf Foundation, in 2011, the national golf economy generated \$68.8 billion (Miller & Washington, 2013a). In addition golfers spent on average \$177 per person per stay, which generated approximately \$20.6 billion in travel expenditures in 2011 (Miller & Washington, 2013a). 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.

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. 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. It was also determined 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 were found to seek more economical golfing trips based on the best prices.

Sport Tourism Motivation

Iso-Ahola (1982) wrote that the need for a break is one of the principle factors motivating tourists. Expectations of tourists 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 these tourists are looking for excitement and new experiences that will provide good and/or new feelings, stimulating the senses. Traditionally, motivation to travel or engage in some form of tourism is defined as that set of needs and desires which influence a person to act in a specific goal directed way (Kurtzman & Zauhar, 2005a). However, consumers do evaluate the incentives in terms of value for money and experiences to be gained or re-lived. In fact, both short and long term motivations usually guide a travelers' behavior (Kurtzman & Zauhar, 2005a).

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.

Status and prestige motives are equally important for both sport and tourist activities (Weed & Bull, 2004). In addition, goal achievement is frequently regarded as a key motive for sport participation, especially in relation to elite performances. Just as athletes can achieve status through winning, tourists can acquire status through conspicuous consumption in the form of ever more exotic and expensive vacations (Weed & Bull, 2004).

Iso-Ahola stated that those who have high level of stimulation in their working lives will seek to escape stimulation on vacation. By contrast, those with low levels of stimulation at work have a tendency to seek greater novelty and stimulation on vacation (Weed & Bull, 2004). 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

Figure 1. 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.

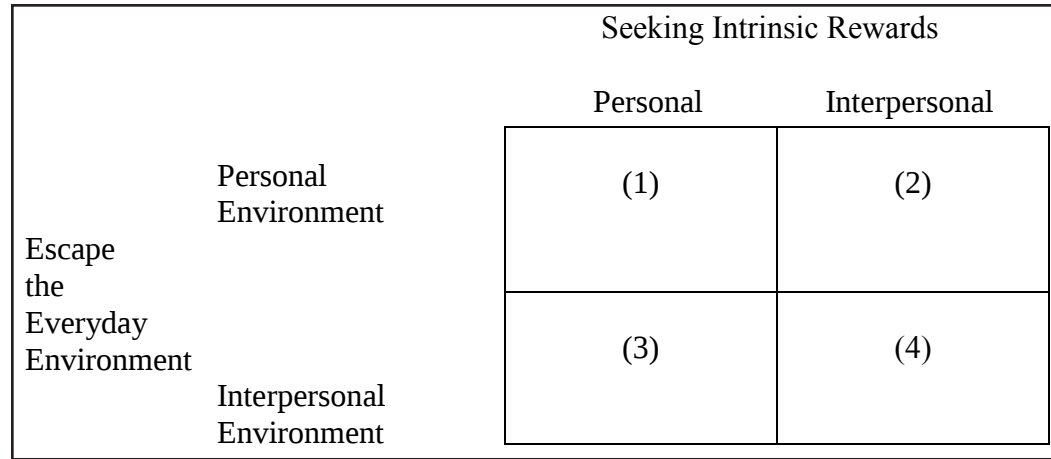


Table 1. 12 Motivational Statements That Characterize Iso-Ahola's Four Motivational Categories

Motivational Categories	Statements
Personal escape	To get away
(seeking personal rewards)	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

Sources : Snepenger et al. (2006)

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).

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 (Figure 1). 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.

Figure 1. Iso-Ahola's (1982) Social psychological model of tourism motivation

As stated, Iso-Ahola's theory emphasizes that personal escape, personal seeking, interpersonal escape, and interpersonal seeking are motivations for tourism. Snepenger, King, Marshall, and Uysal (2006) completed a study that specifically operationalize within a tourism and recreation context, Iso-Ahola's theory by scaling each of the four motivational categories (Table 1). 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.

METHOD

The focus of this study was two-fold, first, the research focused on identifying the most influential travel motives affecting tourism expenditures on travel related variables (lodging, meals and restaurants, festivals and attractions, entertainment, shopping, transportation, and golf expenditures). Second, determining which of those travel motives were the most influential in affecting active sport tourism expenditures. 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.

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 golf management programs within the United States were selected based on the fact that these programs educate, train, and graduate individuals who are required to play golf as part of their golf management career. Third, after selecting golf management 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.

All alumni from the golf management programs received an email with an introductory letter explaining the purpose of the study. The email also contained a link to *Qualtrics* for survey completion. 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).

The survey effort resulted in 288 usable surveys. 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) whereby a regression analysis was utilized to derive meaningful information from the data.

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. A similar technique was utilized by Peerapatdit (2004).

The independent variables consisted of Iso-Ahola's (1982) Social Psychological Model of Tourism Motivation, which include twelve motivational statements categorized into four categories (Table 2).

Table 2. 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

Results

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).

Socio-Demographic Information

The initial step of the survey was to examine socio-demographic variables of the respondents. 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.

Golf Travel

Survey respondents were asked to identifying the most important factor in planning a golf trip. 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.

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. 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.

Within this study, visiting attractions/festivals 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 et al. (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 3. 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

Regression Analysis

Simple regression was used in the study to investigate the relationships between Iso-Ahola's social psychological motives for tourism travel variables on the different categories of travel expenditures.

The dependent variables for the simple regression analysis were different categories of tourism expenditures on subject's most recent golf trip/vacation in US dollars. Those expenditures include lodging, meals and restaurants, attractions/festivals, entertainment, shopping, transportation, and golf, the independent variables where Iso-Ahola's social psychological motives for tourism travel could be applied.

Simple regression analyses were completed for each travel expenditure (lodging, meals and restaurants, attractions/festivals, entertainment, shopping, transportation, and golf) and for each of Iso-Ahola's tourism motivation constructs. Simple regression analysis supported relationships between travel expenditures and Iso-Ahola's tourism motivation constructs. However, the one constant in each of the simple regression analysis is that personal seeking (ps) are the most statistically significant motives, which supports the analysis that personal seeking motives are the best predictor of expenditure patterns for active sport tourists traveling to play golf.

Regression Results Lodging

Personal seeking (ps) was the only motivation that was statistically significant with lodging expenditures, $F = (1,285) = 4.501$, $p < .0005$. About 2% of the variance in lodging expenditures was accounted for by personal seeking (ps) motivations, $R^2 = .016$, adjusted $R^2 = .012$.

Meals and Restaurants

Personal seeking (ps) was the only motivation that was statistically significant with meals and restaurant expenditures, $F = (1,285) = 1.793$, $p < .0005$. .006% of the variance in meals and restaurant expenditures was accounted for by personal seeking (ps) motivations,

$R^2 = .006$, adjusted $R^2 = .003$.

Attractions / Festivals

Personal seeking (ps) was statistically significant with attractions / festival expenditures. In addition, interpersonal seeking (is) was also statistically significant. Personal seeking, $F = (1,285) = 2.077$, $p < .0005$. .007% of the variance in attractions / festivals expenditures was accounted for by personal seeking (ps) motives, $R^2 = .007$, adjusted $R^2 = .004$. Interpersonal escape, $F = (1,285) = 1.091$, $p < .0005$. .004% of the variance in attractions / festivals expenditures was accounted for by interpersonal seeking (is) motives, $R^2 = .004$, adjusted $R^2 = .000$.

Entertainment

All four motivational categories were statistically significant with entertainment expenditures. Personal escape, $F = (1,282) = 9.084$, $p < .0005$. 3% of the variance in entertainment expenditures was accounted for by personal escape (pe) motivations, $R^2 = .031$, adjusted $R^2 = .028$. Interpersonal escape, $F = (1,286) = 15.682$, $p < .0005$. 5% of the variance in entertainment expenditures was accounted for by interpersonal escape (ie). Personal seeking, $F = (1,285) = 4.391$, $p < .005$. 2% of the variance in entertainment expenditures was accounted for by personal seeking (ps) motives, $R^2 = .015$, adjusted $R^2 = .012$. Interpersonal seeking, $F = (1,285) = 4.228$, $p < .005$. 2% of the variance in entertainment expenditures was accounted for by interpersonal seeking (is) motives, $R^2 = .015$, adjusted $R^2 = .011$.

Shopping

Interpersonal escape (ie) and personal seeking (ps) were the only two motives statistically significant with shopping

expenditures. Interpersonal escape, $F = (1,286) = 1.210$, $p < .0005$. .004% of the variance in shopping expenditures was accounted for by interpersonal escape (ie) motives, $R^2 = .004$, adjusted $R^2 = .001$. Personal seeking, $F = (1,285) = 5.994$, $p < .0005$. 2% of the variance in shopping expenditures was accounted for by personal seeking (ps) motives, $R^2 = .021$, adjusted $R^2 = .017$.

Transportation

Three motives for tourism travel were statistically significant with transportation expenditures, interpersonal escape (ie), personal seeking (ps), and interpersonal seeking (is). Interpersonal escape, $F = (1,286) = 1.228$, $p < .003$. .004% of the variance in transportation expenditures was accounted for by interpersonal escape (ie) motives,

$R^2 = .004$, adjusted $R^2 = .001$. Personal seeking, $F = (1,285) = 3.188$, $p < .005$. 1% of the variance in transportation expenditures was accounted for by personal seeking (ps) motives, $R^2 = .011$, adjusted $R^2 = .008$. Interpersonal seeking, $F = (1,285) = 5.263$, $p < .003$. 2% of the variance in transportation expenditures was accounted for by interpersonal seeking (is) motives, $R^2 = .018$, adjusted $R^2 = .015$.

Golf

Similar to transportation expenditures, golf expenditures had three motives for tourism travel that are statistically significant, personal escape (pe), interpersonal escape (ie), and personal seeking (ps). Personal escape, $F = (1,282) = 1.820$, $p < .0005$. .006% of the variance in golf expenditures was accounted for by personal escape (pe) motives, $R^2 = .006$, adjusted $R^2 = .003$. Interpersonal escape, $F = (1,286) = 7.947$, $p < .0005$. 3% of the variance in golf expenditures was accounted for by interpersonal escape motives, $R^2 = .027$, adjusted $R^2 = .024$. Personal seeking, $F = (1,285) = 1.423$, $p < .0005$. .005% of the variance in golf expenditures was accounted for by personal seeing motives,

$R^2 = .005$, adjusted $R^2 = .001$.

Discussion

The focus of this study was two-fold, first, the research focused on identifying the most influential travel motives affecting tourism expenditures on travel related variables (lodging, meals and restaurants, festivals and attractions, entertainment, shopping, transportation, and golf expenditures). Second, determining which of those travel motives where the most influential in affecting active sport tourism expenditures. In short, this study identified the travel

motivations that best predict expenditures on travel related variables for active sport tourists traveling to play golf. The targeted sample for this study was alumni of golf management programs within the United States who had traveled to play golf within the last two years. The appropriate conclusion was that the data provided a moderate relationship between motivations and travel expenditures.

Regression Analysis

First, regression analysis revealed that overall, personal seeking (ps) motives were the most influential in explaining tourism expenditures with regards to travel related variables. 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 motives are the most statistically significant motives within the study, suggesting that only intrinsic rewards such as feelings of mastery and competence are important to these respondents. 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 (1979) push motive, Kurtzman and Zauhar's (2005a) intentional choice motive, and Deci and Ryan's (2008) basic intrinsic motivation are the only motivating factors related to traveling to play golf and expenditures.

Significance of Personal Seeking Motives

The data supported the notion personal seeking (ps) motives are the best predictors of travel expenditures with regards to travel related variables. Thus, suggesting that the relationship between travel expenditures and personal seeking motivation is indeed dynamic in character. What is significant about personal seeking motives and their relation to golf management programs 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 golf management program 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. Golf management 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

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 et al. (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.

Implications of Findings

The results of the study offer both theoretical and practical contributions of motivations for travel on sport tourism expenditures.

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 could 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.

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 could 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.

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 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.

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.

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 study 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, golf management program alumni, but does not include the general golfing public and to what extent their motivations explain expenditures. As in this study, another attempt could be made to understand the motivations and expenditures of the general golfing public.

Additional research should also be conducted on other types 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.

REFERENCES

- Babbie, E. (2007). *The practice of social research* (11th ed.) Belmont, CA: Thomas Higher Education.
- Baig, A., Shadigian, E., & Heisler, M. (2006). Hidden from plain sight: Residents' domestic violence screening attitudes and reported practices. *Journal of General Internal Medicine*, 21(9), 949-954.
- Bonometti, R. J., & Tang, J. (2006). A dynamic technique for conducting online survey based research. *Competitiveness Review*, 16(2), 97-105.
- Bouchet, P., Lebrun, A. M., & Auvergne, S. (2004). Sport Tourism Consumer Experiences: A Comprehensive Model. *Journal of Sport Tourism*, 9(2), 127-140.
- Cai, L. A. (1998). Analyzing household food expenditure patterns on trips and vacations: A tobit model. *Journal of Hospitality & Tourism Research*, 22(4), 338-358.
- Cai, L. A., Hong, G., & Morrison, A. M. (1995). Household expenditure patterns for tourism products and services. *Journal of Travel & Tourism Marketing*, 4(4), 15-40.
- Dardis, R., Derrick, F., Lehfeld, A., & Wolfe, K. E. (1981). Cross-section studies of recreation expenditures in the United States. *Journal of Leisure Research*, 13(3), 181-194.
- Deery, M., Jago, L., & Fredline, L. (2004). Sport tourism or event tourism: are they one and the same? *Journal of Sport Tourism*, 9(3), 235-245.
- Economic Research: Economic Impact of Travel in the U.S., 2008 (2009, June 8). *Travel Industry Association of America*. Retrieved from http://www.ustravel.org/researchpubs/economic_research_impact_tourism.html
- Fish, M., & Waggle, D. (1996). Current Income versus Total Expenditure Measures in Regression Models of Vacation and Pleasure Travel. *Journal of Travel Research*, 35, 70-74.
- Gammon, S., & Robinson, T. (2004). A Question of Primary and Secondary Motives: Revisiting and Applying the Sport Tourism Framework. *Journal of Sport Tourism*, 9(3), 1-11.
- Gibson, H. J. (1998a). The wide world of sport tourism. *Journal of Parks & Recreation*, 33(9), 108-114.
- Gibson, H. J. (1998b). Active sport tourism: Who participates? *Leisure Studies*, 17, 155-170.
- Gibson, H. J. (2003). Sport Tourism: An Introduction to the Special Issue. *Journal of Sport Management*, 17, 205-213.
- Golf 20/20: Vision for the Future. (2009, October 24). *The 2005 Golf Economy Report*. Retrieved from <http://www.golf2020.com/economicresearch.aspx>. http://www.golf2020.com/CurrentNews/EconomicImpact_2005GolfEconomyReport_3.pdf
- Gunn, T. (2003). Tour de France has come a long way in 100 years. *Seattle Post-Intelligencer*. Retrieved from http://seattlepi.nwsourc.com/othersports/129132_tour02.html
- Hennessey, S. M., MacDonald, R., & MacEachern, M. (2008). A Framework for Understanding Golfing Visitors to a Destination. *Journal of Sport & Tourism*, 13(1), 5-35.
- Hicks, L. (2011). University of Nevada, Las Vegas CITI Course in the Protection of Human Research Subjects [Electronic Version]. Internet Research. Retrieved from <https://www.citiprogram.org/members/learnersII/moduletext.asp?strKeyID=5A81046F-655D-497E-9749-2417B954D6ED-8646505&module=510>
- Iso-Ahola, S. E. (1980). *The social psychology of leisure and recreation*. Dubuque, IA: Wm. C. Brown Company Publisher.
- Iso-Ahola, S. E. (1982). Toward a social psychological theory of tourism motivation: A rejoinder. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 9(2), 256-261.
- Jang, S., Bai, B., Hong, G., & O'Leary, J. T. (2004). Understanding travel expenditure patterns: a study of Japanese pleasure travelers to the United States by income level. *Tourism Management*, 25, 331-341.
- Kurtzman, J., & Zauhar, J. (2005a). Sports tourism consumer motivation. *Journal of Sport Tourism*, 10(1), 21-31.
- Miller, R.K., & Washington, K. (2013a). Golf Tourism. In R.K., Miller & K. Washington. (Eds.), *Travel & tourism market research Handbook* (14th ed.; pp. 300-303). Atlanta, GA: Richard K. Miller & Associates.
- Miller, R.K., & Washington, K. (2011b). Leisure Travel. In R.K., Miller & K. Washington. (Eds.), *Travel & tourism market research handbook* (12th ed.; pp. 317-320). Atlanta, GA: Richard K. Miller & Associates.
- Mok, C., & Iverson, T.J. (2000). Expenditure-based segmentation: Taiwanese tourists to guam, *Tourism Management*, 21, 299-305.

- Pedhazur, E. J. (1997). *Multiple regression in behavioral research: Explanation and prediction* (3rd ed.). United States: Wadsworth.
- Robinson, T., & Gammon, S. (2004). A question of primary and secondary motives: revising and applying the sport tourism framework. *Journal of Sport Tourism*, 9(3), 221-233.
- Seiler, V. L., Hsieh, S., Seiler, M. J., & Hsieh, C. (2002). Modeling travel expenditures for Taiwanese tourism. *Journal of Travel and Tourism Marketing*, 13(4), 47-60.
- Snepenger, D., King, J., Marshall, E., & Uysal, M. (2006). Modeling Iso-Ahola's motivation theory in the tourism context. *Journal of Travel Research*, 45, 140-149.
- Spots, D. M., & Mahoney, E. M. (1991). Segmenting visitors to a destination region based on the volume of their expenditure. *Journal of Travel Research*, 29(4), 24-31.
- Standeven, J., & De Knop, P. (1999). *Sport tourism* (1st ed.). Champaign, IL: Human Kinetics.
- Tassiopoulos, D., & Haydam, N. (2008). Golf tourists in South Africa: A demand side study of a niche market in sport tourism. *Tourism Management*, 29, 870-882.
- Thrane, C. (2002). Jazz festival visitors and their expenditures: linking spending patterns to musical interest. *Journal of Travel Research*, 40, 281-286.
- U.S. Travel Association. (2013a, August 26). *U.S. Travel Answer Sheet*. Retrieved from http://www.ustravel.org/sites/default/files/page/2009/11/US_Travel_Answer_Sheet_March_2013.pdf
- U.S. Travel Association. (2011b, November 19). *Economic Impact of Travel And Tourism*. Retrieved from <http://www.ustravel.org/government-affairs/travel-industry-economic-impact>
- Wang, Y., Rompf, P., Severt, D., & Peerapatdit, N. (2006). Examining and Identifying the Determinants of Travel Expenditure Patterns. *International Journal of Tourism Research*, 8, 333-346.
- Weed, M., & Bull, C. (2004). *Sport Tourism: participants, policy, and providers*. Burlington, MA: Elsevier Butterworth-Heinemann.
- Zikmund, W. G. (2003). *Business research methods*. Mason, OH: Thompson South-Western.