MOTIVATION-BASED TYPOLOGY: AN EMPIRICAL STUDY OF GOLF TOURISTS

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This article contributes to knowledge of tourist motivation and typologies in the context of golf tourism. A research framework is presented to aid the classification of golf tourists into distinct typologies based on their travel motivation. The methodology comprised both qualitative research based on semistructured interviews and quantitative research based on 392 self-completed questionnaires. A principal component factor analysis was used to identify five golf travel motivations. A cluster analysis was then conducted to classify golfers into three different clusters, namely, Golf-intensive Golfers, Multimotivated Golfers, and Companion Golfers. The golf clusters were then profiled, and the results revealed that golf tourists were not homogeneous in their travel motivations. Their profiles are theoretically and statistically feasible, and the hypotheses tested indicated that each cluster had both similarities and differences. The practical implications for golf tourism marketers are suggested, and future research recommendations related to the application of tourist typologies for segmentation are provided.

KEYWORDS: *golf tourism; travel motivation; tourist typology; profiling*

INTRODUCTION

There is a current trend in the tourism market toward increased segmentation with specialization in new forms of travel markets such as bicycle tourism (Ritchie, 1998), cultural tourism (McKercher, 2002), wine tourism (Charters & Ali-Knight, 2002), adventure tourism (Sung, 2004), and golf tourism (Kim, Kim, & Ritchie, 2008). Golf tourism, as a subset of sport tourism, has received more recent attention within the tourism industry and, thus tourism researchers, because of its size and value (Hudson & Hudson, 2010). Golf tourism has been defined by Tourism Victoria (2003, p. 6) as "any activity or overnight trip" where golf is a "primary motivator for travel" and "major determining factor in choosing the destination." Alternatively, golf tourism has been identified by Kim et al. (2008, p. 200) as "travel for more than one night to destinations where golf is played as a major tourism activity (active golf holiday) to meet travel motivations."

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According to the Golf 20/20 (2008), reported by SRI International, the U. S. golf industry generated a direct economic impact of $76 billion in 2005. The significant economic contribution to the U.S. economy was associated with golf tourism market. For example, National Golf Foundation (NGF, n.d.) estimates that there were 28.6 million U.S. golfers in 2008 (although slightly decreased from 30.0 million in 2005), and about 11.4 million golf travelers played golf in 2007 while away on business trips or holiday. Like the United States, significant numbers of Koreans also played golf overseas in 2006, showing that an estimated 635,000 Koreans traveled to the Philippines, China, Thailand, and other parts of Asia, spending US$1.183 billion on their overseas golf holidays (Korea Leisure Consulting, n.d.).

According to NGF (2007, as cited in Hutchinson, Lai, & Wang, 2009), golf tourists distribute their travel expenditure to hotels, golf courses, attractions, entertainment, whereas business travelers who play golf during business trips have a greater economic impact on destinations than nongolfing business travelers. Tourism Victoria (2003) also reports that golf tourists travel frequently and stay longer periods at the destination. Golf, therefore, plays an important role in replacing declining tourist arrivals in some markets (Barros, Butler, & Correia, 2010), whereas it is important for destination marketers in attracting new golf tourists and retaining existing golf tourists (Hutchinson et al., 2009; Hudson & Hudson, 2010).

The terms *an active golf holiday* and *travel motivations* form the basis for guiding this article because golf tourists may have a range of travel motives in undertaking golf holidays. For example, a group of golf tourists who undertake golf holidays mainly for learning and challenge may have different travel behaviors when compared with a group of golf tourists who travel mainly for social interaction. In fact, empirical studies in the fields of tourism, special interest tourism, and sport tourism have indicated that research into travel motivation provides valuable insights: to explain tourist motivations, to segment heterogeneous tourists into homogeneous groups, to profile the homogeneous groups with other personal and travel behaviors, and to assist in developing marketing and managerial strategies (Andreu, Kozak, Avci, & Cifter, 2005; Bieger & Laesser, 2002; Cha, McCleary, & Uysal, 1995; Lee, Lee, Bernhard, & Yoon, 2006; McCleary, Weaver, & Meng, 2005; Oh, Uysal, & Weaver, 1995; Yuan, Cai, Morrison, & Linton, 2005).

However, there has been little research in the context of golf tourism that has subsegmented this market according to the main motivation for travel, although research has been conducted in other special interest markets, including sport tourism. For example, segmentation in the context of special interest tourism and sport tourism has been based on the concept of specialization (Kerstetter, Confer, & Graefe, 2001); interest in the product (Charters & Ali-Knight, 2002); destination choice (Dolnicar & Fluker, 2003); involvement of attitudes and perception (McGehee, Yoon, & Cardenas, 2003; Ritchie, Tkaczynski, & Faulks, 2010); sociodemographics, trip-related factors, and perception (Sung, 2004); and price sensitivity (Petrick, 2005). Previous golf tourism research also indicated a lack of integration

of tourist typology theory and concepts to examine the travel motivation of golf tourism markets. For example, researchers used experience use history (Petrick, Backman, Bixler, & Norman, 2001), attitudes (Kim, Clemenz, & Weaver, 2002), novelty factors (Petrick, 2002), degrees of seriousness (Siegenthaler & O'Dell, 2003), tourist role theory (Gibson & Pennington-Gray, 2005), destination preference (Kim, Chun, & Petrick, 2005), and specialization (Kim et al., 2008).

From a marketing perspective, segmentation is used to divide total markets into subgroups, whereas typology is used as a form of consumer classification (Swarbrooke & Horner, 1999). In other words, tourist typology can be used to examine the insights of specific market segments within the broader specialist market. For example, Dann (1977) classified anomie tourists and ego-enhancement tourists within the pleasure market, while Yuan et al. (2005) identified three distinct types of wine tourists (e.g., wine focusers, festivity seekers, hangers-on) within the wine tourism market (see Table 1). These studies imply that tourists are heterogeneous in terms of travel motivations and, therefore, should be classified into smaller homogeneous groups providing an opportunity for tourism marketers to target different types of tourists more effectively. Considering the breadth of products associated with golf tourism (Hudson & Hudson, 2010), a focus on specific subsegments based on motivational typologies appears justified.

However, little research has been undertaken to classify golf tourists according to travel motivations, although research into tourist typology using travel motivations is often conducted in tourism studies more generally. This article addresses this gap in the literature and contributes knowledge on tourist motivation and typology in the specific context of golf tourism. The article seeks to identify the travel motivation of golf tourists, to classify different golf tourist groups into homogeneous groups with similar travel motivations, and then to profile golf tourist groups by their travel and personal information. This article, therefore, contributes to the existing body of golf tourism, by classifying and better understanding the typologies in the important market segment of golf tourism. This extends the growing body of knowledge related to golf tourism, while the results can also assist destination marketers in developing marketing and managerial strategies for different types of golf tourists identified.

LITERATURE REVIEW

Reviewing Travel Motivations

Motivation is the driving force within individuals that impels them to action (Mayo & Jarvis, 1981). The driving force refers to the internal psychological motives generated by an uncomfortable level of tension within individuals' minds and bodies. This leads to actions to reduce a state of tension and satisfy needs (Fodness, 1994; Moutinho, 1987). In the field of tourism, individuals take a holiday to relieve an uncomfortable tension that stems from unsatisfied travel motives (Fodness, 1994).

A study of travel motivations can be found in Dann (1977), who attempted to establish the factors that determine "what makes tourists travel." He found that

Table 1
Review of Previous Studies: Tourist Typologies Based on Travel Motivation

Researcher(s)	Field Application	Tourist Types	Statistical Analyses
Dann (1977)	Pleasure market	Anomie, ego-enhancement	Scale approaches
Cha et al. (1995)	Pleasure market	Sport seekers, novelty seekers, family/relaxation seekers	Factor–cluster analysis, discriminant analysis
Oh et al. (1995)	Pleasure market	Safety/comfort seekers, culture/history seekers, novelty/adventure seekers, luxury seekers	Canonical correlation analysis
Galloway (2002)	Park market	Higher sensation seekers, lower sensation seekers, sensation seekers	PCA and cluster analysis
Bieger and Laesser (2002)	Mature travel market	Compulsory travel group, cultural hedonism group, family travel group, me(e/a)t marketing group	Cluster and discriminant analysis, and chi-square tests
Andreu et al. (2005)	Pleasure market	Fuzzy tourists, recreation seekers, active tourists, escape seekers, relax seekers	PCA, hierarchical and K-means nonhierarchical analysis
Yuan et al. (2005)	Wine tourism market	Wine focusers, festivity seekers, hangers-on	Factor analysis, hierarchical and K-means cluster analysis
McCleary et al. (2005)	Dance/event tourism market	Enthusiasts, dance focused, balanced	PCA, hierarchical analysis
Lee et al. (2006)	Casino/gambling market	Challenge and winning seekers, only winning seekers, light-gambling seekers, multipurpose seekers	PCA, K-means cluster analysis
Chi (2006)	Fishing market	Leisure anglers, sports anglers, competitive anglers	PCA, K-means cluster analysis

Note: PCA = principal component analysis.

travel motivations stem from the concepts of "anomie" (desires arising from the need for escape and social interaction) and "ego-enhancement" (derives from the need for recognition and status). Crompton (1979) identified seven pleasure travel motives including escape from a perceived mundane environment, exploration and evaluation of self, relaxation, prestige, regression, enhancement of kinship relationships, and facilitation of social interaction. A model of leisure travel motivation, presented by Iso-Ahola (1982), explains that seeking and escaping motivational forces are influential in motivating tourist travel to deal with personal and/or interpersonal dimensions. Krippendorf (1987) outlined several reasons why people travel, including the following: recuperation and regeneration, compensation and social integration, escape, communication, broadening the mind,

freedom and self-determination, self-realization, and happiness. Schmidhauser (1989) argues that people are inevitably motivated by a range of deficit factors to compensate social (need for human contacts and friendliness), climate (urge for sun and warmth), activity (need for sports participation), and experiences (need for new discovery), as well as deficits in enjoyment of scenery, luxury or prestige, and lack of freedom. Uysal and Jurowski (1994) suggest that people travel because they are pushed by intrinsic motivators, such as the desire for escape, rest and relaxation, prestige, social interaction, and fitness. In summarizing the literature in the mid-1990s, Manfredo, Driver, and Tarrant (1996) found several themes from their review of the literature, including achievement, autonomy, similar people, new people, learning, enjoyment of nature, introspection, social escape, physical escape, teaching, and risk reduction.

Ryan and Glendon (1998) also reported four types of travel motivators by testing the Leisure Motivation Scale model (intellectual, social, competence-mastery, stimulus-avoidance), which was originally developed by Beard and Ragheb (1983) based on the work of Maslow. The four types of travel dimensions were social (to have friendship and interpersonal relationship), relaxation (to escape and search), intellectual (to learn, explore, and discover), and competence-mastery (to achieve, challenge, master, and compete). These dimensions are also associated with explaining the travel motivations of wine tourists in special interest tourism (Brown & Getz, 2005) and cycle tourists (Ritchie, 1998; Ritchie et al., 2010). Travel motivations may also be related to the travel benefit factors including escape, self-development/self-esteem, family relationships, physical activities, safety, and security (Moscardo, Morrison, Pearce, Lang, & O'Leary, 1996). Frochot and Morrison (2000) noted that such benefits are related to the psychological travel motivations that have been portrayed as critical variables in undertaking holidays.

The concept of special interest tourism was described by Hall and Weiler (1992) as active or experiential travel to meet special interest tourists' primary motivations including self-actualization, social interaction and belongingness, and lasting physical products of the activity. Similarly, Derrett (2001, p. 11) suggests that special interest tourists travel "to satisfy their curiosity, learn more, appreciate beauty, collect things, improve themselves, express their personalities and receive approval from others." A variety of travel motivations of sports participants were also discussed by Weed and Bull (2004). These authors pointed out that sports participants have similar motives to other tourists where sports participants are motivated to travel for health and fitness, escape, social interaction, developing skills and achieving goals, or the challenge of learning. The primary motives of active sport tourists are health/fitness and challenge (Nogawa, Yamaguchi, & Hagi, 1996), and these types of tourists regard participation as a means of self expression—an outlet for the skills and knowledge of the participant (Hall, 1992). Holden (1999) discovered travel motivations of skiers including relaxation, thrills, relationships, self-esteem, and fulfillment. Several golfing motivations such as the following were identified: leisure, status, and competition factors (Petrick et al., 2001); novelty factors of thrill, change

from routine, boredom-alleviation, surprise (Petrick, 2002); and unique golf experience, natural attributes, prestige, culture and entertainment, and other benefits (Kim et al., 2008). Pomfret (2006) identified travel motivations of mountaineering as escape with additional five motivational needs encompassing relaxation, risk reduction, identity construction, prestige/challenge/risk, and goal completion/mastery/meaning.

Pearce and Caltabiano (1983) and Pearce (1993) argue that there is a "motivational career in travel" or a "travel career ladder" by means of which tourists at a certain stage of their travel career seek different travel experiences that result in varied travel needs. In this regard, a number of researchers pointed out that tourist motivations are multiple and dynamic (Crompton, 1979; Pyo, Mihalik, & Uysal, 1989) from one person to another and from one market segment to another or one destination to another (Kozak, 2002; Uysal & Hagan, 1993). In this respect, T. Robinson and Gammon (2004) suggested that sport tourists or golf tourists may have different reasons for travel. Weed and Bull (2004) noted that the reason for a sporting holiday is not only affected by sport participation itself but also influenced by other travel motives.

The motivation studies in the contexts of leisure and tourism imply that individuals may have different motivating factors to release tension and satisfy motives. In other words, destination marketers should develop differently targeted marketing strategies for golf tourists because tourists are not homogeneous but rather heterogeneous in that golf tourists with different motivations for traveling on overseas golf holidays may vary in sociodemographics, golf-related behavior and travel characteristics, and destination preference. Hinch and Higham (2004) claimed that the overall profile of active sport tourists fails to capture the diversity of the market segments that exist in active sport tourism. In other words, understanding of tourist behavior may be limited without considering heterogeneous tourist behavior in which tourists with different motivations may have different travel characteristics and behavior. Thus, understanding tourist typologies within the broader niche market of golf tourism is particularly valuable.

Reviewing Tourist Typologies Based on Travel Motivation

Tourist typologies have been increased by using travel motivations because motivation is an important determinant of travel (Iso-Ahola, 1982) and a critical variable as the driving force behind all behaviors (Crompton, 1979; Fodness, 1994). It also explains the reason why people travel (Mayo & Jarvis, 1981). Fodness (1994) noted that travel motivation can be used both to identify types of tourists and create a reliable profile of their travel patterns and to support tourism marketers in product development and positioning. Crompton (1979) and Plog (1987) pointed out that tourists can be segmented into groups of people with different sets of motives so that unique appeals can be developed for each of the separate groups. Dann (1981) noted that tourist typology is useful in providing a meaningful classification within the complex phenomenon of tourist motivations, while Galloway (2002) suggested that motivation-based segmentation

is useful to guide the design of advertising messages and the choice of activities, facilities, and information for different travel groups. T. Robinson and Gammon (2004) proposed the sport tourism framework and used this to categorize golf tourists based on travel motives, linked to competitiveness, recreation, activity, and passivity. This framework was also used to define and discuss the different types of golf tourism (Hudson & Hudson, 2010).

Using the concept of enduring involvement as a segmentation tool, Ritchie et al. (2010) found five initial clusters of cycle tourists. A number of significant differences were found on their travel motivations, travel behavior, and behavioral intentions, as well as their sociodemographics and cycling behavior. Havitz and Howard (1995) identified six market segments of downhill skiers, windsurfers, and golfers classed as "moderately engaged consumers," "intrinsic sophisticates," "ambivalent consumers," "casual pleasure seekers," "appearance involvement," and "conformist consumers." Kim et al. (2008) used the concept of specialization to segment and better understand Korean overseas golf holiday tourists' demographics, motivations, overseas golf tourism destination attributes, and preference for overseas golf tourism destination attributes. Their research found three distinct clusters that differed in their behavior, motivations, preferences, and destination choices and were named "beginner," "intermediate," and "advanced."

A number of tourism researchers have undertaken empirical research to classify tourists in their use of travel motivations in the fields of tourism, special interest tourism, and sport tourism (see Table 1); however, no known studies have used tourist typologies within golf tourism.

Major contributions to such fields include Dann (1977), who suggested that travel motivations can be used to understand tourist motivations and to segment different types of tourists, and Cha et al. (1995), who advised that travel motivations for the different clustered groups along with related demographic variables can be useful to marketers when planning marketing strategies, such as promotion and product development. Galloway (2002) asserted that knowledge of the psychological travel motivation enables identification of differences between clusters regarding travel behavior and is, therefore, useful in regard to the marketing and management implications. Bieger and Laesser (2002) claimed that tourists with different travel motivations have different sociodemographics and destination preferences. Such research can be useful for developing effective promotional and marketing products, strategies, and campaigns (Andreu et al., 2005; Lee et al., 2006; Yuan et al., 2005).

Previous studies have examined golf tourists as a heterogeneous group and profiled them with different sociodemographics and their golf-related behavior (Gibson & Pennington-Gray, 2005; Kim et al., 2002; Kim et al., 2005; Petrick, 2002; Siegenthaler & O'Dell, 2003). These studies found that different types of golf tourists who were classified according to novelty factors (Petrick, 2002), attitudes (Kim et al., 2002), degree of seriousness about golf (Siegenthaler & O'Dell, 2003), role theory (Gibson & Pennington-Gray, 2005), and destination preference (Kim et al., 2005) have similar and different sociodemographics and

golf-related behavior. This implies that the golf tourist typology based on travel motivations may have similar or different socio-demographics and golf-related behavior. Thus, travel motivation–based typology might provide distinct profiles of each golf tourist to tourism marketers creating implications for product development and marketing to different types of golf tourists within the generic market.

The aforementioned studies implied that golf tourism researchers should classify the heterogeneous golf tourist motivations into homogeneous groups and profile them with respect to sociodemographics, golf-related behavior and travel characteristics, and destination preferences. With the benefit of such classification and profiling, effective product development and marketing implications can be suggested for each golf cluster while extending general tourism and marketing theory to a developing and important specialist market (golf tourism).

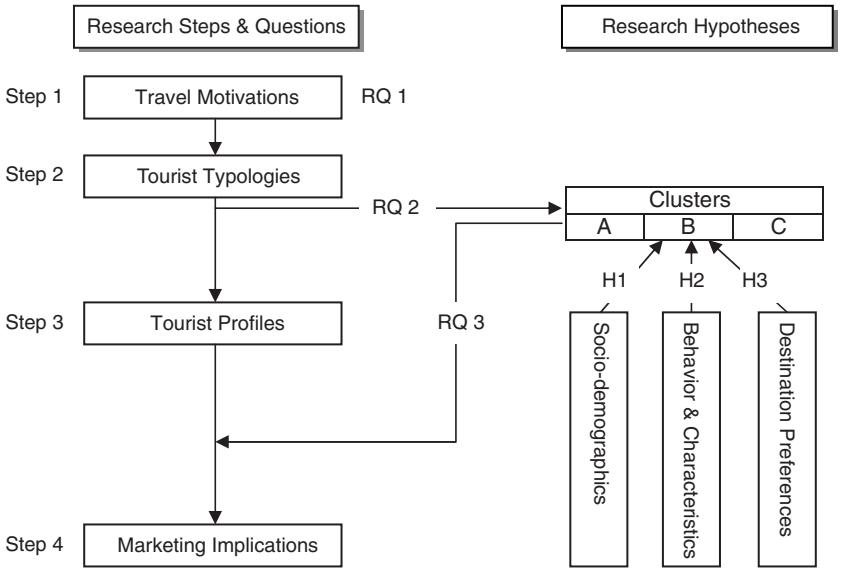
Building the Research Framework and Research Hypotheses

Gibson and Pennington-Gray (2005) suggested that to classify and understand different types of tourists it is necessary to develop a framework associated with theories and concepts from relevant disciplines including marketing, sociopsychology, and consumer behavior. In this regard, Weed (2005) argued that sport tourism needs to be clearly conceptualized not only to contribute to an understanding of the range of issues that are central to the development of the study area but also to ensure that, in regard to the methodological issues, appropriate methods are used to research relevant aspects of the phenomenon.

In this article, the research framework is depicted in Figure 1, with developing research steps, questions, and hypotheses based on the theoretical literature reviews. The concept of travel motivation in the context of tourism is the key in this framework in understanding and explaining why people travel. In particular, the identification of travel motivation assists the framework in clustering heterogeneous golf tourists into homogeneous groups, as well as profiling them with respect to sociodemographics, golf-related behavior and travel characteristics, and destination preferences. The determination of golf tourist typologies and their profiles are important in enabling tourism destination marketers to formulate and implement appropriate marketing and managerial strategies for each distinct golf tourist group. More discussions associated with the research framework (Figure 1) are detailed as follows.

The top left box under the research steps in Figure 1 represents the concept of travel motivation for understanding the perspective of a tourist from the generating region traveling to the destination region (Leiper, 1995; Ross, 1998). In other words, travel motivations such as escape, social interaction, learning, challenging, and benefit are useful factors to explain why people undertake a trip from the generating region (Crompton, 1979; Fluker & Turner, 2000; Uysal & Jurowski, 1994). Gibson (2004, p. 249) asserts that the concept of motivation plays an important role "in explaining the behavior of sport tourists and gaining insights on the why rather than just what." This implies that the concept can be

Figure 1
Research Framework



Note: RQ1, RQ2, and RQ3 refer to the research questions of the study. H1, H2, and H3 refer to the hypotheses of the study.

used to explain why golf tourists undertake golf holidays. This article notes that there is little research examining travel motivations in the fields of sport tourism, or golf tourism, although the concept is often used to explain travel motivations in the pleasure travel markets. This leads to the first research question.

Research Question 1: What are the important travel motivations for golf tourists?

However, since the previous empirical research using the travel motivations has indicated that tourists may have different travel motivations in undertaking holidays, this article postulates that tourists are not homogeneous but rather heterogeneous in their travel motivations. Tourism scholars have suggested that tourist typologies should be formed using travel motivations to create a better profile of tourists and suggest appropriate marketing implications (Andreu et al., 2005; Bieger & Laesser, 2002; Cha et al., 1995; Chi, 2006; Dann, 1977; Galloway, 2002; Lee et al., 2006; McCleary et al., 2005; Oh et al., 1995; Yuan et al., 2005). Therefore, the third box on the left-hand side in Figure 1 shows the need to classify heterogeneous golf tourists into homogeneous groups on the basis of travel motivations. As a consequence, the three component boxes (A, B, and C) in the first box under the research hypotheses box on the right-hand side in Figure 1

represent possible golf cluster groups, which may be classified by the travel motivations. Thus, the second research question is the following:

Research Question 2: Can golf tourists be clustered into homogeneous groups on the basis of travel motivations?

Previous empirical studies (see Table 1) have also indicated that sociodemographics, travel characteristics, and tourist destinations may have differences across cluster groups. Thus, it is important to determine differences in sociodemographics, tourist behavior and travel characteristics, and tourist destinations existing among the golf cluster groups. As a consequence, the three boxes on the right-hand side of Figure 1 and their links to the golf cluster groups represent the research hypotheses as follows:

Hypothesis 1 (H1): There are differences in the sociodemographic variables across golf cluster groups.
Hypothesis 2 (H2): There are differences in the golf-related behavior and travel characteristics across golf cluster groups.
Hypothesis 3 (H3): There are differences in the preference of golf destinations across golf cluster groups.

As a result of H1, H2, and H3, each golf cluster group can be profiled with respect to sociodemographics, golf-related behavior and travel characteristics, and golf holiday destination preferences. The profiles of each cluster are developed by the following Research Step 3.

Finally, based on the profiles of each golf cluster, the lower box in the left-hand side of Figure 1 suggests the need to consider the implications for appropriate marketing and managerial strategies for each cluster group. This is because alternative marketing and managerial strategies emerge from a better understanding of golf tourist profiles (Gibson & Pennington-Gray, 2005; Kim et al., 2002; Kim et al., 2005; Petrick, 2002; Siegenthaler & O'Dell, 2003). In this regard, tourism marketing researchers suggest that the marketing mix components can be applied to target different types of tourists according to their travel profiles (Harrison-Hill & Chalip, 2005; Moscardo et al., 1996). Hence, the third and final research question is addressed:

Research Question 3: How can marketing mix strategies be suggested for each golf cluster group?

RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHOD

Both positivist and interpretive paradigms have been applied in designing this golf tourism research, using two popular forms of research methodologies: quantitative research and qualitative research. The interpretive paradigm relates to the qualitative research involving semistructured personal interviews, whereas the positivist paradigm relates to the design of the quantitative research involving

a questionnaire self-completed by the respondents (Jennings, 2001; Tribe, 2001). In this regard, Gibson (2004) notes that multimethod approaches and methods rather than survey research alone lead to a better understanding of the "why" of sport tourism.

Qualitative Design: Semistructured Personal Interview

A semistructured personal interview was conducted to generate the survey questionnaire, or scale construction, which was used in the quantitative field survey for determining the important golf travel motivations of Korean overseas golf tourists. A total of 10 overseas golf travel managers from 10 different golf travel agencies across Seoul were selected by scrutinizing a number of business home pages from an Internet website. A number of managers working at various overseas golf travel agencies across Seoul were targeted to take part in semistructured interviews. Since contact details of golf travel managers were not readily available, a number of business home pages specifically related to outbound golf travel agencies in Seoul were scrutinized from an Internet website.

Twenty-four overseas golf travel agencies across Seoul were sourced from popular Korean Internet search engines such as Yahoo, Daum, Google, and Empas. Basic information, including business names and addresses, was obtained and business telephone numbers were listed for the purpose of initial contact. Telephone contact was made to each of the 24 golf travel agencies selected. As a result, 15 golf travel managers were identified as prospective interviewees who agreed to receive a formal invitation. The remaining nine golf travel agencies were not able to participate. Three of these golf travel agencies no longer existed, whereas six golf travel managers declined interviews because of time restrictions. A formal participation letter was designed to provide detailed information about the semistructured interviews and to obtain an agreement to participate. A formal letter was sent out electronically to the 15 golf travel managers who had expressed a willingness to participate. The researcher made follow-up calls and sent e-mails to maintain participant interest while awaiting responses. A total of 10 overseas golf travel managers (one female and nine males) from 10 different golf travel agencies agreed to participate in the interviews along with their preferred interview dates and times.

To conduct the semistructured interviews, an interview guide was designed by incorporating the concept of awareness and evoked choice set (Um & Crompton, 1990). For example, interviewees were asked to explain the motivation variables that influence Koreans to undertake an overseas golf holiday and to classify up to five motivation variables that Koreans would consider as important factors when undertaking an overseas golf holiday. During July 2005, the 10 golf travel managers were interviewed individually at the arranged meeting room of each travel agency, and each interview lasted approximately 30 minutes. A note-taking method was used to collect information from the interviews. The awareness and consideration questions helped record information in cases where the researcher had missed important data during the note-taking. Finally, interviewees were asked to review the outcomes of their interviews to confirm

whether their opinions were transcribed comprehensively and accurately from the note-taking.

As suggested by Miles and Huberman (1994), data reduction was carried out by manually through sharpening, sorting, and organizing the data that appeared in written field notes. In particular, interviews with core opinions were openly coded and organized into similar themes. Themes were related to coherent categories and linked to theory (such as the choice set questions). Themes were also related to the study of Kim et al. (2008), which noted that Korean golfers had undertaken overseas golf holidays for avoiding booking difficulties, spending affordable expenditure, playing at a suitable climate, building social kinship, enhancing business affairs, and improving golfing skills, demonstrating the validity of the findings.

This research also attempted to increase the reliability of the findings and reduce bias through the following: specifying the status of the researcher so that the golf travel managers were aware of the perspectives that drove the data collection, explaining how and why the golf travel managers were selected and interviewed so that they were able to provide comprehensive knowledge and experience in regard to important golf travel motives, describing the interview process so that interviews were consistently carried out to obtain the most relevant and manageable information. and describing the data collection and interpretation.

Quantitative Design: Self-Completed Questionnaire Survey

Following the qualitative research, a questionnaire was designed to collect data about Korean golf tourists relating to sociodemographics, golf-related behavior and travel characteristics, travel motivations, and destination preferences. The survey instrument comprised three sections, but a prequestion was designed to extract those who had not undertaken a golf holiday in any country within the Asia Pacific region. Only people who had undertaken golf holidays in the region were qualified to participate in the following three sections. The first section was designed to obtain data on Koreans' golf-related behavior (e.g., age commenced playing golf, golf handicap) and golf travel characteristics (e.g., golf destination, golf travel length, golf travel expenditure). Question variables were based on the golf tourism research conducted by Kim et al. (2005). The second section was designed to identify travel motivations of Korean golf tourists in undertaking overseas golf holidays. Important variables were considered based on the literature reviews related to the concept of travel motivation, as well as golf tourism studies including those of Richard and Faircloth (1994), where prices, tee times, and other golfers were noted; Petrick (2002), where thrill, change from routine, boredom alleviation, and surprise were noted; and Petrick and Backman (2002), where resort facilities/services and golf course quality were identified as important aspects. Additional questions were derived from Kim et al. (2002), Siegenthaler and O'Dell (2003), Geissler (2005), and Kim et al. (2005) to include food and beverage services, training, skills and knowledge development, durable benefits, social group, weather, reasonable price, and time constraints.

In particular, the findings resulting from the semistructured personal interviews were considered in designing this section of the research. The final section was designed to measure sociodemographics associated with the questionnaire provided by Kim et al. (2005).

Because golf practice ranges were chosen for the data collection, a pilot study was conducted at practice ranges concerning the same environment/atmosphere and to test the survey instrument. However, one difficulty encountered was that managers of golf practice ranges would not allow interviewers to approach golfers, because managers believed that golfers would be disturbed while using their facilities and services and the researcher experienced the power of gatekeepers. As an alternative, the researcher asked professional golf instructors, employed at the practice ranges to teach golfing skills and theory to their golf members, to collect the data, thereby solving the difficulty of approaching golfers at golf practice ranges. Apart from the difficulty encountered in relation to the choice of location, very positive feedback (e.g., only minor errors in terms of question sequence and layout were detected) was obtained from 12 golf members who practiced golf at selected indoor golf facilities in Seoul.

A convenience sampling method was used to recruit a sample of Korean golfers who practiced golf at the selected golf ranges (excluding golf courses) across Seoul and who had undertaken an overseas golf holiday in the Asia Pacific region. The 17 golf practice facilities included 6 from the eastern area of the Han River, 1 from the western area of the Han River, 4 from the northern area of the Han River, and 6 from the southern area of the Han River. The separation between the four geographical areas was chosen bearing in mind the sample distribution and the extent to which it was affected by factors such as household income.

The survey process was conducted by 17 golf instructors who were trained by the researcher to clarify the survey instructions for the respondents. The instructions covered the purpose of the survey, the confidentiality of the survey, and the fact that completion of the questionnaire by the respondents was voluntary. Golf instructors were also directed to closely supervise respondents to ensure that the questionnaire was fully completed with all questions answered. Finally, the golf instructors were asked to notify the researcher immediately after all questionnaires were collected from the respondents. A total of 500 questionnaires were distributed ranging between 20 and 40 at each of the 17 golf practice ranges.

Data were collected by the 17 golf instructors during their working hours at practice ranges between December 2005 and January 2006. The specific survey months was chosen based on the researcher's assumptions that this period would be the best time to collect data because many golfers, who ordinarily play on golf courses, use indoor and outdoor practice ranges as many golf courses are closed due to the weather during the winter season.

ANALYSIS AND FINDINGS

A total of 500 questionnaires were given to golf instructors to distribute at practice ranges. A total of 425 questionnaires were collected back from golf

instructors with 392 included in the data analysis. This was because 33 questionnaires were excluded during the data entry stage since some values or variables were missing and, therefore, not available for data analysis.

Delineation of Golf Travel Motivations: A Principal Component Factor Analysis

A principal component factor analysis was first applied to delineate the underlying dimensions of travel motivation of overseas golf holidays. As a step to begin with a principal component factor analysis, 20 motivation variables were initially factor analyzed by testing intercorrelations among the variables. Bartlett's test of sphericity was statistically significant ($p < .001$) and Measure of Sampling Adequacy was .77, which exceeded the recommended value of .50 (Hair, Black, Babin, Anderson, & Tatham, 2006), indicating that all variables are acceptable for conducting factor analysis. Table 2 presents the results of varimax rotation with reduced set of 19 motivation variables. Five factors were obtained that were identical, with almost the same values for the loadings (above .40), eigenvalues (greater than 2.0), and the variance explained (ranged between 11.0 and 14.0), to the factors obtained after factor rotation with 20 variables. The variance retained was 62.4% of the total. It is important to note that the set of 19 variables were factor analyzed again because of the variable "I could build networks with clients/associates," which cross-loaded on factors between 1 (.496) and 2 (.647) and got deleted. However, this article suggests that other researchers should consider the use of this variable in future research.

As shown in Table 2, five factors were labeled based on consideration of travel motivations in the context of leisure, tourism, special interest tourism, and sport tourism (Brown & Getz, 2005; Crompton, 1979; Holden, 1999; Krippendorf, 1987; Moscardo et al., 1996; Pomfret, 2006; Ryan, 2003; Ryan & Glendon, 1998; Weed & Bull, 2004). Factor 1, "Business Opportunity," was based on travel motives for business purposes. This factor accounted for 13.67% variance out of a total variance, with factor loadings greater than .799 on three variables: "I like talking about business," "I could achieve business goals," and "I like golf entertainment for business clients/associates." The reliability α to check internal consistency between these variables and the factor was .90, indicating satisfaction of criterion (above .60), which was recommended by J. P. Robinson, Shaver, and Wrightsman (1991). Factor 2, "Benefits," was related to travel motives for cost and other benefits. This factor explained 13.22% of variance with a reliability α value of .69 and incorporated five variables: "I can play more rounds with inexpensive green fees," "I can play easily without an expensive golf membership," "I can travel with lower golfing expenses than domestic golfing trips," "I can avoid undesirable golfing weather/climate," and "I can undertake multipurpose trips during golf holidays." Factor 3, "Learning and Challenging," was related to travel motives for learning and self-achievement. Significant factor loadings greater than .536 of four variables were encompassed in the factor: "I want to play at highly rated/reputed golf courses," "I want to play at previously opened golf championship courses," "I could improve golfing skills and knowledge," and

Table 2
Results of Factor Analysis of Golf Travel Motivations

Golf Travel Motivations With Variables	Factor Loadings[a]	Eigenvalue	Variance Explained	α[b]	Mean Scores[c]
Factor 1: Business Opportunity		2.59	13.67	.909	
I like talking about business	.895				2.62
I could achieve business goals	.890				2.55
I like golf entertainment for business clients/associates	.799				2.57
Factor 2: Benefits		2.51	13.22	.691	
I can play more rounds with inexpensive green fees	.850				4.07
I can play easily without an expensive golf membership	.817				4.00
I can travel with lower golfing expenses than domestic golfing trips	.564				3.39
I can avoid undesirable golfing weather/climate	.420				4.00
I can undertake multipurpose trips during golf holidays	.415				3.63
Factor 3: Learning and Challenging		2.38	12.52	.742	
I want to play at highly rated/ reputed golf courses	.812				2.99
I want to play at previously opened golf championship courses	.752				2.91
I could improve golfing skills and knowledge	.705				3.45
I like participating in physical activities	.536				3.37
Factor 4: Escape/Relax		2.20	11.60	.694	
I want to escape from domestic golf-booking difficulties	.831				3.32
I want to escape from crowded home-based golf courses	.736				3.58
I want to escape from the negative public view of luxury sport	.591				2.70
I want to escape from routine life to see international golf championship events	.522				2.50
Factor 5: Social Interaction/Kinship		2.17	11.42	.741	
I could improve relationships with friends	.877				3.57
I could build relationships with social club members	.865				3.61
I like being together with family or relatives	.597				3.61
Total variance explained (%)			62.4		

a. Factor loadings above .40.
b. Reliability coefficient.
c. Measured by 5-point Likert-type scale (1 = *strongly disagree*, 3 = *neutral*, 5 = *strongly agree*).

"I like participating in physical activities." This factor explained 12.52% of the variance with a reliability α value of .74.

Factor 4, "Escape/Relax," was related to travel motives for escapism and relaxation, with 11.60% of variance explained. The label was assigned from four variables with significant factor loadings greater than .522: "I want to escape from domestic golf-booking difficulties," "I want to escape from crowded home-based golf courses," "I want to escape from the negative public view of luxury sport," and "I want to escape from routine life to watch international golf championship events." The reliability α for the factor was .69. Factor 5, "Social Interaction/Kinship," was related to travel motives for social contacts with travel members. Three variables with significant factor loadings greater than .597 were encompassed in the factor: "I could improve relationships with friends," "I could build relationships with social club members," and "I like being together with family or relatives." This factor explained 11.42% of variance with a reliability α value of .741.

Classification of Golf Tourists: A Cluster Analysis

Five identified travel motivations that resulted from the factor analysis were used as variables in the cluster analysis or as the set of classification variables. This set of variables was reasonable to use in clustering analysis because all five factors were weighted approximately equally (Weaver & Lawton, 2005) in which the variance explained ranged from 11.42% for Factor 5 to 13.67% for Factor 1 (see Table 2). In addition, the basic variables were all measured on the same 5-point scale, ranging from 1 = *strongly disagree* to 5 = *strongly agree*.

A combination approach using both hierarchical and nonhierarchical partitioning procedures was used for clustering cases because individuals can be more accurately clustered by a nonhierarchical method using the seed points generated from the hierarchical method (Hair et al., 2006). Thus, a hierarchical analysis was employed first using Ward's method in combination with the squared Euclidean distance, and the three-cluster solutions were preliminary determined based on an agglomeration coefficients and stopping rule. For example, the three-cluster solution was chosen because this solution was more closely identified with a large increase in heterogeneity (from 9.17% to 14.50%) than the seven-cluster solution (from 5.71% to 7.79%). Hair et al. (2006) recommended that a stopping rule can be applied when large increases are observed in the agglomeration coefficient. This is because small coefficients between clusters indicate fairly homogeneous clusters, whereas heterogeneous clusters result when there is a large agglomeration coefficient. As shown in Table 3, the three clusters were relatively distinct in their magnitude on the five factors, which resulted from the cluster coefficients used as initial seed points for the nonhierarchical analysis.

Following the determination of three clusters and the generation of initial seed points (centroids) from the hierarchical analysis, a K-means nonhierarchical cluster analysis was employed using the centroids of the three clusters as the starting values to obtain the final cluster solution. As a result (see Table 4), a

Table 3
Initial Seed Points From the Hierarchical Analysis

	Initial Seed Points From Hierarchical Analysis (Ward's Method)		
Factors	Cluster 1 (n = 97, percentage = 26.4)	Cluster 2 (n = 186, percentage = 50.5)	Cluster 3 (n = 85, percentage = 23.1)
Factor 1	–0.230	0.483	–0.843
Factor 2	0.591	–0.270	–0.053
Factor 3	0.101	0.364	–0.891
Factor 4	–0.384	0.102	0.091
Factor 5	–1.049	0.266	0.658

Table 4
Final Cluster Centers From the Nonhierarchical Analysis

	Cluster Centroids for the Three Clusters		
Factors	Cluster 1, n = 98 (26.6%)	Cluster 2, n = 162 (44.0%)	Cluster 3, n = 108 (29.4%)
F1: Business Opportunity	–0.384	0.780	–0.860
F2: Benefits	0.587	–0.220	–0.179
F3: Learning and Challenging	0.297	0.259	–0.642
F4: Escape/Relax	–0.355	0.200	–0.075
F5: Social Interaction/ Kinship	–1.032	0.231	0.623

total of 368 respondents were classified into three clusters, with Cluster 1 accounting for 98 respondents (26.6%), Cluster 2 consisting of 162 respondents (44.0%), and Cluster 3 being composed of 108 respondents (29.4%). The result of the nonhierarchical analysis can be compared with the result following the hierarchical analysis (see Table 3). It can be seen that the similarity of the results from both the hierarchical and nonhierarchical cluster analyses confirms that the choice of three clusters was appropriate.

Interpretation of Golf Clusters: Analyses of Variance

As shown in Table 5, the three clusters were labeled by assessing the mean values of the five factors for each cluster. The mean values were measured on a Likert-type scale, which is frequently used when interpreting and assigning a label to clusters (Cha et al., 1995; McCleary et al., 2005; Yuan et al., 2005). The first cluster was labeled "Golf-Intensive Golfers" since this group had relatively higher mean scores on the factors of Benefits and Learning and Challenging than mean values of the other groups and the total. However, this group had lower mean scores for other factors including Business Opportunity, Escape/Relax, and Social Interaction/Kinship. This cluster is similar to the tourist types of previous research

Table 5
Assessment and Interpretation of the Three Clusters

Factors	Golf Clusters: Golf-Intensive Golfers (1) (n = 98, 26.6%)	Golf Clusters: Multimotivated Golfers (2) (n = 162, 44.0%)	Golf Clusters: Companion Golfers (3) (n = 108, 29.4%)	F Value	Significance	Eta Squared
F1: Business Opportunity	1.95[a] (2) (3)	3.60[b] (1) (3)	1.55 (1) (2)	266.75	.000[c]	.594[d]
F2: Benefits	4.08 (2) (3)	3.70 (1)	3.74 (1)	9.43	.000	.049
F3: Learning and Challenging	3.34 (3)	3.54 (3)	2.50 (1) (2)	65.10	.000	.263
F4: Escape/Relax	2.69 (2)	3.36 (1) (3)	2.77 (2)	28.40	.000	.135
F5: Social Interaction/Kinship	2.76 (2) (3)	3.87 (1)	3.97 (1)	103.92	.000	.363

Note: (1) (2) (3) The mean of the cluster is significantly different from the mean of other clusters on each factor based on post hoc Tukey's honestly significant difference (HSD) test. The number in parentheses represents the corresponding significance.
a. Mean values measured by 5-point Likert-type scale (1 = *strongly disagree*, 3 = *neutral*, 5 = *strongly agree*).
b. Highlighted mean values indicate higher values than mean values of the other groups and the total.
c. The mean difference is significant ($p < .05$).
d. Eta squared value is classified (.01 = *a small effect*, .06 = *a medium effect*, .14 = *a large effect*).

on sports seekers and novelty seekers (Cha et al., 1995), higher sensation seekers (Galloway, 2002), core devotees and moderate devotees (Siegenthaler & O'Dell, 2003), sport tourists (Gibson & Pennington-Gray, 2005), wine focusers (Yuan et al., 2005), and competitive anglers (Chi, 2006). The second cluster was labeled "Multimotivated Golfers" because this cluster had higher mean scores for almost every factor—Business Opportunity, Learning and Challenging, Escape/Relax, and Social Interaction/Kinship—than mean scores of the other groups and the total. This cluster is also related to the tourist types of previous research including compulsory travel group (Bieger & Laesser, 2002), fuzzy tourists (Andreu et al., 2005), balanced group (McCleary et al., 2005), and multipurpose seekers (Lee et al., 2006). The last cluster was named "Companion Golfers" since this group had higher mean scores on the factor of Social Interaction/Kinship than mean scores of the other groups and the total. However, this group displayed lower mean scores on the factors of Business Opportunity, Benefits, Learning and Challenging, and Escape/Relax than mean values of the other groups and the total. This cluster is related to the tourist types of previous research including anomie tourists (Dann, 1977), family travel group (Bieger & Laesser, 2002), and leisure anglers (Chi, 2006).

Validation of Clusters: Multiple Discriminant Analysis

Multiple discriminant analysis was performed to discriminate between the three golf clusters using the five factors. As shown in Table 6, the two functions were statistically significant when measured by the chi-square (χ^2) test ($p < .001$).

Table 6
Summary of Multiple Discriminant Analysis

Testing Significance of Three Clusters						
Discriminant Function	Eigenvalue	Percentage of Variance	Canonical Correlation	Wilks's Λ	Chi-Square (χ^2)	χ^2 Significance
1	1.921[a]	54.7	0.811	0.132	734.589	0.000
2	1.590[a]	45.3	0.783	0.386	345.418	0.000

Discriminating Between Clusters and Factors		
	Function 1	Function 2
Functions at group centroids		
Golf clusters		
C1: Golf-intensive Golfers	–0.607	–2.010
C2: Multimotivated Golfers	1.489[b]	0.412
C3: Companion Golfers	–1.683	1.205[b]
Standardized canonical discriminant function coefficients		
Factors		
F1: Business Opportunity	1.046[c]	0.038
F2: Benefits	–0.204[c]	–0.600[c]
F3: Learning and Challenging	0.611	–0.497
F4: Escape/Relax	0.325	–0.325
F5: Social Interaction/Kinship	0.005	1.003[c]

Validating the Results						
			Predicted Group Membership			
Cluster Number of Case (Actual Cluster)			1	2	3	Total
Original	Count	1: Golf-intensive Golfers	96	2	0	98
		2: Multimotivated Golfers	1	159	2	162
		3: Companion Golfers	0	0	108	108
	Percentage	1: Golf-intensive Golfers	98.0	2.0	0.0	100.0
		2: Multimotivated Golfers	0.6	98.1	1.2	100.0
		3: Companion Golfers	0.0	0.0	100.0	100.0

Note: 98.6% of original grouped cases correctly classified.
a. First 2 canonical discriminant functions were used in the analysis.
b. Clusters were discriminated by the discriminant functions.
c. Factors mostly contributed to discriminate the three clusters in each function.

The significance was associated with a measure of canonical correlation, which indicated a relatively high degree of association (both values .81 and .73 close to 1.0) between the discriminant scores and the groups. Table 6 also indicated that the Multimotivated Golfers tend to have high values on Function 1, highly motivated by the Business factor and other factors, whereas the Companion Golfers tend to have high values on Function 2, strongly motivated by the Social Interaction/Kinship factor. The results were consistent with the findings indicated in Table 5. Thus, these results enhance the validity of the three golf clusters. In

Table 7
Differences of Sociodemographics Across Golf Clusters
(Hypothesis 1 Testing and Result)

Categories	Golf Clusters: Golf-Intensive Golfers (n = 98)	Golf Clusters: Multimotivated Golfers (n = 162)	Golf Clusters: Companion Golfers (n = 108)	Total	Significance*
Gender					
Male	72[a] (73.5[b])	124 (76.5)	53 (49.1)	249 (67.7)	.000
Female	26 (26.5)	38 (23.5)	55 (50.9)	119 (32.3)	
Total	98 (100.0)	162 (100.0)	108 (100.0)	368 (100.0)	
Age group					
18-24 years	6 (6.1)	1 (0.6)	0 (0.0)	7 (1.9)	.001
25-34 years	25 (25.5)	21 (13.0)	10 (9.3)	56 (15.3)	
35-44 years	26 (26.5)	67 (41.6)	32 (29.6)	125 (34.1)	
45-54 years	32 (32.7)	58 (36.0)	53 (49.1)	143 (39.0)	
55 years and older	9 (9.2)	14 (8.7)	13 (12.0)	36 (9.8)	
Total	98 (100.0)	161 (100.0)	108 (100.0)	367 (100.0)	
Occupation					
General official	6 (6.1)	24 (14.8)	7 (6.5)	37 (10.1)	.000
Self-employment	28 (28.6)	58 (35.8)	20 (18.7)	106 (28.9)	
Public official	0 (0.0)	4 (2.5)	6 (5.6)	10 (2.7)	
Professional	23 (23.5)	27 (16.7)	18 (16.8)	68 (18.5)	
Sales/service	5 (5.1)	10 (6.2)	2 (1.9)	17 (4.6)	
Skilled trade	1 (1.0)	6 (3.7)	3 (2.8)	10 (2.7)	
Student	7 (7.1)	3 (1.9)	1 (0.9)	11 (3.0)	
Housewife	18 (18.4)	21 (13.0)	39 (36.4)	78 (21.3)	
Transportation	0 (0.0)	2 (1.2)	0 (0.0)	2 (0.5)	
Retired	1 (1.0)	1 (0.6)	5 (4.7)	7 (1.9)	
Temporarily unemployed	3 (3.1)	1 (0.6)	2 (1.9)	6 (1.6)	
Other	6 (6.1)	5 (3.1)	4 (3.7)	15 (4.1)	
Total	98 (100.0)	162 (100.0)	107 (100.0)	367 (100.0)	

Note: The highlighted values indicate relatively higher percentages than the percentages of the other groups and the total.
a. Frequency.
b. Percentage within cluster. The numbers and percentages may not add up to 100% because of rounding or missing data.
*Chi-square for significance at $p < .05$.

addition, 98.6% of the respondents were correctly classified when all respondents were used to construct the discriminant functions (see the lower part of Table 6). This indicated that the high degree of classification accuracy for the three golf clusters was acceptable for further analysis.

Hypotheses Testing: Chi-Square Test

The chi-square test was conducted to test whether the sociodemographic variables, golf-related behavior and travel characteristics, and destination preference were statistically significant across the three golf clusters. The results of this analysis show that Hypothesis 1 was supported in terms of gender, age, and occupation (Table 7), while Hypothesis 2 was supported in terms of the age commenced

playing golf, golf handicap, length of stay, number of golf courses played, travel party, and travel expenditure (Table 8). In addition, Hypothesis 3 was supported by the explanation of the differences in the choice of preferred golf holiday destination across the golf clusters (Table 9).

Profiles of Golf Clusters

Golf-intensive golfers. This type of golf tourist is more likely to be male, in the younger age group, and a professional or a student. Golfers in this group are more likely to have commenced playing golf in the younger age group, have lower golf handicap levels, tend to travel for longer periods, play at a greater variety of golf courses, spend large amounts for golf trips, and prefer to travel with social club members. In addition, these golfers prefer to visit Thailand and Vietnam as a golf holiday destination in the next 2 years.

Multimotivated golfers. Golfers in this group are more likely to be males, in the middle-age group, and self-employed or general officials. They are more likely to start playing golf in middle age, have moderate golf handicap levels, tend to travel for a moderate number of travel nights, play at fewer different golf courses, have a more moderate amount of golf travel expenditure, and tend to travel with business associates. This group prefers Australia and the Philippines to visit for their next golf holiday destination.

Companion golfers. Companion Golfers are more likely to be females, in the older age group, and housewives or public officials. They seem to have commenced playing golf in the older age group, have higher golf handicap levels, tend to travel for shorter periods, play at moderate number of different golf courses, spend small amounts on golf travel expenses, and prefer to travel with family and relatives. China, Hawaii, Japan, and Malaysia are preferred golf holiday destinations for visits by this golf group.

Apart from the distinct characteristics of each golf cluster described above, a similar profile was observed among all golf tourist groups in regard to their sociodemographics, golf-related behavior, and travel characteristics. For example, Korean golf tourists traveling in the Asia Pacific region are highly educated people with a university degree (75.1%), high-income earners making more than US$50,001 (62.9%), seem to undertake 1 to 3 golf trips within a 3-year period (70.7%), travel mostly in November, December, and January (68.2%), travel with all and partially inclusive golf holiday packages (73.6%), stay at hotels and golf resorts (90.8%), and obtained golf travel information from family, friends, and colleagues (65.2%). These findings were similar to those of the previous studies, which noted that Korean golf tourists were likely to be in the following categories: generally well educated with a university degree, high-income earners, preferred package tours, obtained golf travel information from friends, and had undertaken overseas golf holidays 1 to 3 times in the Asia Pacific region (Kim et al., 2005; Kim et al., 2008).

Table 8
Differences of Golf-Related Behavior and Travel Characteristics (Hypothesis 2 Testing and Result)

Categories	Golf Clusters: Golf-Intensive Golfers (n = 98)	Golf Clusters: Multimotivated Golfers (n = 162)	Golf Clusters: Companion Golfers (n = 108)	Total	Significance*
Age commenced playing golf					
20 years and younger	20[a] (20.4[b])	13 (8.0)	4 (3.7)	37 (10.1)	.001
20-29 years old	22 (22.4)	29 (17.9)	13 (12.0)	64 (17.4)	
30-39 years old	23 (23.5)	51 (31.5)	34 (31.5)	108 (29.3)	
40-49 years old	31 (31.6)	59 (36.4)	49 (45.4)	139 (37.8)	
50 years and older	2 (2.0)	10 (6.2)	8 (7.4)	20 (5.4)	
Total	98 (100.0)	162 (100.0)	108 (100.0)	368 (100.0)	
Golf handicap					
9 or lower handicap	29 (29.9)	21 (13.3)	10 (9.6)	60 (16.7)	.001
10-18	39 (40.2)	61 (38.6)	39 (37.5)	139 (38.7)	
19-27	22 (22.7)	58 (36.7)	34 (32.7)	114 (31.8)	
28 or above	7 (7.2)	18 (11.4)	21 (20.2)	46 (12.8)	
Total	97 (100.0)	158 (100.0)	104 (100.0)	359 (100.0)	
Golf travel length					
Less than 5 nights	27 (27.6)	46 (28.6)	45 (41.7)	118 (32.2)	.000
5-7 nights	32 (32.7)	84 (52.2)	45 (41.7)	161 (43.9)	
8-10 nights	6 (6.1)	8 (5.0)	10 (9.3)	24 (6.5)	
11-14 nights	2 (2.0)	7 (4.3)	4 (3.7)	13 (3.5)	
15 nights and more	31 (31.6)	16 (9.9)	4 (3.7)	51 (13.9)	
Total	98 (100.0)	161 (100.0)	108 (100.0)	367 (100.0)	
Number of different golf courses played					
1-2 golf courses	32 (34.4)	83 (52.9)	44 (40.7)	159 (44.4)	.006
3-4 golf courses	35 (37.6)	50 (31.8)	52 (48.1)	137 (38.3)	
5-6 golf courses	15 (16.1)	16 (10.2)	7 (6.5)	38 (10.6)	
7 golf courses and more	11 (11.8)	8 (5.1)	5 (4.6)	24 (6.7)	
Total	93 (100.0)	157 (100.0)	108 (100.0)	358 (100.0)	

(continued)

Table 8 (continued)

Categories	Golf Clusters: Golf-Intensive Golfers ($n = 98$)	Golf Clusters: Multimotivated Golfers ($n = 162$)	Golf Clusters: Companion Golfers ($n = 108$)	Total	Significance*
Golf travel expenditure (US$1 = ₩1,000)					
Less than ₩1,000,000	22 (23.4)	41 (26.1)	21 (21.9)	84 (24.2)	.000
₩1,000,001-₩2,000,000	40 (42.6)	70 (44.6)	65 (67.7)	175 (50.4)	
₩2,000,001-₩3,000,000	9 (9.6)	27 (17.2)	7 (7.3)	43 (12.4)	
₩3,000,001-₩4,000,000	3 (3.2)	7 (4.5)	2 (2.1)	12 (3.5)	
₩4,000,001-₩5,000,000	8 (8.5)	6 (3.8)	0 (0.0)	14 (4.0)	
₩5,000,001 and more	12 (12.8)	6 (3.8)	1 (1.0)	19 (5.5)	
Total	94 (100.0)	157 (100.0)	96 (100.0)	347 (100.0)	
Golf travel party					
Alone	2 (2.0)	0 (0.0)	2 (1.9)	4 (1.1)	.000
Partner	5 (5.1)	9 (5.6)	2 (1.9)	16 (4.3)	
Family/relatives	19 (19.4)	24 (14.8)	36 (33.3)	79 (21.5)	
Friends	38 (38.8)	64 (39.5)	39 (36.1)	141 (38.3)	
Business associates	8 (8.2)	34 (21.0)	6 (5.6)	48 (13.0)	
Social club members	21 (21.4)	30 (18.5)	23 (21.3)	74 (20.1)	
Other	5 (5.1)	1 (0.6)	0 (0.0)	6 (1.6)	
Total	98 (100.0)	162 (100.0)	108 (100.0)	368 (100.0)	

Note: The highlighted values indicate relatively higher percentages than the percentages of the other groups and the total.
a. Frequency.
b. Percentage within cluster. The numbers and percentages may not add up to 100% because of rounding or missing data.
*Chi-square for significance at $p < .05$.

Table 9
Differences of Destination Preference Across Golf Clusters
(Hypothesis 3 Testing and Result)

	Golf Clusters				
Destination Preference	Golf-Intensive Golfers (n = 98)	Multimotivated Golfers (n = 162)	Companion Golfers (n = 108)	Total	Significance*
Australia	9 (10.3)	26 (19.4)	4 (4.5)	39 (12.6)	.002
China	12 (13.8)	19 (14.2)	24 (27.3)	55 (17.8)	
Hawaii	4 (4.6)	2 (1.5)	5 (5.7)	11 (3.6)	
Japan	3 (3.4)	11 (8.2)	9 (10.2)	23 (7.4)	
Malaysia	3 (3.4)	4 (3.0)	7 (8.0)	14 (4.5)	
Philippines	9 (10.3)	18 (13.4)	3 (3.4)	30 (9.7)	
Thailand	36 (41.4)	40 (29.9)	25 (28.4)	101 (32.7)	
Vietnam	5 (5.7)	4 (3.0)	2 (2.3)	11 (3.6)	
Other[c]	6 (6.9)	10 (7.5)	9 (10.2)	25 (8.1)	
Total	87 (100.0)	134 (100.0)	88 (100.0)	309 (100.0)	

Note: The highlighted values indicate relatively higher percentages than the percentages of the other groups and the total.
a. Frequency.
b. Percentage within cluster. The numbers and percentages may not add up to 100% because of rounding or missing data.
c. The majority countries in the "other" category of golf holiday destinations were New Zealand (3.0%), Indonesia (1.4%), Guam (0.5%), Brunei (0.5%), and Singapore (0.5%).
*Chi-square $p < .05$.

CONCLUSIONS AND IMPLICATIONS

This article has outlined the growing importance of golf tourism and the lack of research focusing on the demand-side of this sector (Hudson & Hudson, 2010). Despite previous studies indicating the importance of tourist typologies in explaining motivations, helping to segment tourists and better understanding their behavior in the broader pleasure travel market, such an approach has not been applied to the emerging activity of golf tourism in the Asia Pacific region. This article has postulated that golf tourists are not homogenous but rather heterogeneous in their travel motives. Hence, tourist typologies should be formed using travel motivations as a basis to profile golf tourists and better understand their motives, behavior, and destination preferences. A research framework was developed and presented in this article along with research questions and hypotheses to assist such research.

Five motivational push factors were identified from this research. These were Business Opportunity, Benefits, Learning and Challenging, Escape/Relax, and Social Interaction/Kinship factors. Seven pull factors were also identified. These were the natural environment, golfing-related availability and accessibility, golf resort/course facilities and services, tourism attractions, tourism facilities and services, nightlife and entertainment, and price and ease of access. The findings

of golf travel motivations are similar to other travel motivations where golf tourists who are motivated to travel for Escape/Relax and Social Interaction are similar to the "anomie" tourists in pleasure travel market (Dann, 1977). Furthermore, travel for learning and challenging motivations of golf tourists are similar to the motivations of leisure and tourism in general (Beard & Ragheb, 1983; Ryan & Glendon, 1998) and special interest tourism (Brown & Getz, 2005), whereas travel for benefits are similar to the psychological travel motivations of pleasure tourists (Frochot & Morrison, 2000).

Based on the sociopsychological push motivations, the research classified golfers into three distinct golf tourist subgroups: Golf-intensive Golfers, Multimotivated Golfers, and Companion Golfers. The main reason for clustering golf tourist groups was that tourists are not homogeneous in their travel motivations, especially when limited research has focused on using sociopsychological push motivations to classify niche markets into submarkets through the concept of tourist typologies.

The results of this article suggest practical implications for golf tourism marketing (including product development, target promotion, and positioning). The overall findings suggest that destination marketers should develop cost-effective golf holiday packages around golf resorts and hotels, which include the promotion of good facilities and services, as well as promotion of the close proximity of the destinations for ease of travel plans. Specific seasonal-based golf holidays should be considered to overcome the seasonality of golf tourism. Golf tourism marketers from Thailand and Vietnam should focus on the Golf-intensive Golfers and target younger males, who are professionals and/or students, and organize golf training programs and academies at challenging golf courses. Marketers from Australia and the Philippines should target Multimotivated Golfers from the middle-age group and self-employed people and should package business, convention, and exhibition activities. Golf holiday packages should also emphasize tourism-related attractions, for example, cultural tours, shopping tours, and national parks tours; golf championship events; and other activities for nightlife and entertainment. Finally, marketers in China, Hawaii, Japan, and Malaysia should target Companion Golfers and focus on the natural environment for older age groups and housewives, in particular.

Despite the practical findings and implications, possible limitations should be noted. This study may not be representative of a large population because of the convenience (nonrandom) sampling procedure and the sample size. Future research should be large enough and samples must be more randomly collected to explore possible differences among golf clusters, as random sampling is more likely to help generalize the findings of the research. The geographic setting of the region means that while the findings can be used as region-specific information for destination marketers in the region, the usefulness of the findings in other golf tourism markets such as the European and American markets may be limited. Future research focusing on other regions is necessary to determine possible geographical differences in golf tourist behavior.

The findings regarding destination preferences in this study may only be valid for the sociopsychological travel motivations of golf tourists. In this regard, it

may be suggested that destination preferences may be better explored if future research uses destination attributes as a cluster variate, since this study acknowledges that destination choice is more likely to be affected by the particular features of a destination. The use of destination choice modeling, for example, the discrete choice model, may be a useful tool to predict a specific destination choice and to discover more meaningful relationships between destination choice and destination attributes related to golf tourism. Despite these limitations, this article has contributed important knowledge on the pull motivations related to golf tourism.

Further research is also required using theories and concepts from consumer behavior and leisure to classify and better understand niche markets and their respective submarkets and typologies. For instance, the concept of enduring involvement and associated concepts, such as serious leisure and specialization, could be applied to golf tourism and other pleasure travel markets to better understand the motivations, preferences, and "travel career" of participants. Previous studies in tourism have used the concept of enduring involvement and found it valuable as a tool for examining participants' motives in a variety of leisure and adventure tourism activities (Ritchie et al., 2010), but it is yet to be applied in golf tourism. Concepts such as identify, self-expression, enjoyment, and the role of social worlds in influencing tourist behavior are also not well understood and could be applied to better understand golf tourism.

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