

**CELEBRITY FANDOM AND ITS RELATIONSHIP TO TOURISM
AND LEISURE BEHAVIORS: THE CASE OF KOREAN WAVE**

A Dissertation

by

SOO JIN LEE

Submitted to the Office of Graduate Studies of
Texas A&M University
in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of

DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY

May 2007

Major Subject: Recreation, Park and Tourism Sciences

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Approved by:

Chair of Committee,
Committee Members,

David Scott
Gerard Kyle
Ulrike Gretzel
Jane A. Sell

Head of Department,

Joseph T. O'Leary

May 2007

Major Subject: Recreation, Park and Tourism Sciences

ABSTRACT

Celebrity Fandom and Its Relationship to Tourism and Leisure Behaviors:

The Case of Korean Wave. (May 2007)

Soo Jin Lee, B.A., Kyonggi University;

M.B.A., Sejong University

Chair of Advisory Committee: Dr. David Scott

This dissertation research was conducted to help understand this under-researched area particularly in the field of leisure and tourism. It is argued in this study that the celebrity fandom is a novel form of leisure/tourism activity, which should be understood in relation to other leisure and tourism constructs. Two separate models were proposed: one model was concerned with the impacts of celebrity involvement on various tourism perceptions, and the other model investigated the efficacy of celebrity involvement within the constraints-effects-mitigation model.

The results corroborated several hypothesized relationships within the first proposed model. The level of celebrity involvement positively affected destination familiarity and visitation intention. Destination images and familiarity were also positively related to visitation intentions. The positive association between affective images and cognitive images was empirically supported as well. However, contrary to the expectation, the posited relationship between celebrity involvement and destination images was not empirically supported.

The results supported all the hypothesized relationships within the second model. The level of celebrity involvement positively affects constraints negotiation and frequency of participation in celebrity fandom activities. The study also found that the level of leisure constraints positively influence constraints negotiation and frequency of participation. The positive relationship between constraints negotiation and frequency of participation was empirically supported as well.

This dissertation study makes several significant contributions to existing literature in the field of tourism and leisure studies. First of all, it introduces a concept of celebrity fandom to the field of tourism studies. Second, although leisure involvement has received widespread attention over the last two decades, its application to celebrity fandom has gone virtually ignored. Third, in spite of conceptual and operational parallels between leisure involvement and motivation, the possible interchangeability between the two concepts has never been empirically examined. Lastly, this research helps clarify the effects of leisure involvement on the leisure negotiation processes, which eventually contributes to making this mitigation model more comprehensive.

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

The mass media (e.g., television, radio, magazine, and newspaper) is an indispensable part of modern society that plays a central role in shaping people's attitudes and behaviors. Particularly, audiovisual media has become powerful in constructing and regulating contemporary individuals' mind sets due to their significant command in disseminating information and constantly creating images and ideologies. Since Adorno and Horkheimer's (1944) claim about the role of culture industry in modern society, the impacts of mass media have become an important research topic in diverse social science disciplines.

Existing tourism and leisure literature also suggests that portrayals in mass media serve as a powerful stimulating factor for creating tourism/leisure demand by having the viewers form certain images and anticipation for what they have watched in the films or television (Connell 2005; Kim and Richardson 2003; Riley and Van Doren 1992; Riley, Baker and Van Doren 1998; Tooke and Baker 1996). Bartram (2001), for example, contended that increased exposure to high-risk leisure activities through films and television programs may indeed stimulate viewers to engage an activity such as mountaineering. While these studies contributed to a partial understanding of the impact of mass media on tourism/leisure phenomena, the detailed linkage between the diverse components of mass media and tourism/leisure perceptions and behaviors has yet to be

explored. The role of celebrities may be one of those under-researched issues in this field.

Celebrities are cultural icons in a mass media driven society. A number of cultural commentators attempt to understand the emergence and popularity of celebrities in light of the cultural characteristics of modernity such as narcissism and other-directedness (Lasch 1979; Riesman 1950; Rojek 1995). Lasch (1979), for instance, maintained that “the prevailing social conditions tend to bring out narcissistic traits that are present, in varying degrees, in everyone” (p. 101). That is, the culture of narcissism is viewed as a determining quality of modern individuals. Narcissists, he argues, constantly seek for hero or outstanding person and see them as an extension of themselves. They bask the glory and fame of the celebrities through a close identification with them. The narcissistic culture makes the celebrities become an iconic symbol with which people attempt to identify. Riesman’s (1950) contention of other-directed society also points toward the emergence of mass media driven celebrities in response to prevailing social conditions (e.g., mass media, urbanization, and bureaucracy). He argued that individuals in other-directed society look to the mass media (e.g., radio, movies, television, comics) as a guide for behavior. Traditional authorities, such as parents, served as a primary source for life decisions in an inner-directed society. These authority figures have been replaced by mass mediated celebrities in an other-directed society. The underlying thesis of both narcissism and other-directed society is that the mass media in a contemporary society constantly create celebrities whose glory and fame are utilized by the public as a source of self-

satisfaction and/or life direction. It is evident that the celebrities are a central component of modernity. Since the attachment to celebrities became an ordinary social practice, its impacts on tourism and leisure practices also becomes an imperative issue to research. This dissertation aims to understand the under-researched power of celebrities in shaping people's tourism/leisure related perceptions and behaviors. The following section further describes the possible influence of the celebrities on creating tourism/leisure demand in a modern society.

Background of the Study

In recent years, “Hallyu (韓流) – Korean Wave”, which means a boom of Korean popular culture, becomes a transnational socio-cultural phenomenon in countries such as Japan, China, Taiwan, Hong Kong, and Southeast Asian nations. The trend indicates that Korean popular culture is gaining a fast-growing popularity in many Asian countries particularly via mass-entertainment products such as movies, soap operas and songs. Even though people's interest in Korean popular culture used to be limited to passive consumption of some mass-entertainment products in the early stage of Hallyu, they have now become more active in pursuing Korean popular culture (e.g. visiting Korea, learning Korean languages, tasting Korean foods, and experiencing Korean way of life). Hallyu comes to represent a subculture of Asians who are deeply into Korean popular culture, follow Korean stars and attempt to study Korean traditions or customs (e.g., food, fashion, and hairstyle). It is Hallyu that provides a rich ground for this study to

understand various tourism and leisure attitudes and behaviors particularly stemming from the attachment to the chosen Korean celebrities.

Although some criticize it as a merely trendy phenomenon, that is not expected to be enduring for the long-term period, it is now apparent that Hallyu has made extremely powerful social impacts on Korea as well as other Asian countries. It is suggested that the Hallyu has enhanced cultural understanding of Korea and alleviated the negative sentiment toward Korea in several Asian countries. For instance, ever since Korea was colonized by Japan from 1910 to 1945, anti-Japanese emotions have been pervasive in Korea. Japanese have also had similar negative sentiments toward Koreans. Korean descendents residing in Japan often confront discrimination and are treated as second-class citizens although they constitute the largest minority group in Japan. Owing to the recent boom of Korean popular culture in Japan, such hostility between two countries seems to be diminishing to a great extent (Korea National Tourism Organization, www.knto.or.kr, 2004)

The Hallyu has also brought great tourism impacts to Korea. Since the booming of Korean cultures in Asian countries, the number of tourists visiting Korea has increased considerably. The Korea National Tourism Organization (KNTO) reported that approximately 3 million Hallyu fans visited Korea as of November 2004. The figure was 37 percent higher than the previous year. As a result, it is often claimed that the Hallyu in many Asian countries has positively affected the image of Korea particularly among the avid fans of Hallyu.

It is important to note that Korean celebrities (e.g., actors, actresses, and singers) constitute a central component of this Hallyu phenomenon. Numerous anecdotes illustrate that a large number of Hallyu fans develop a high degree of attachment to Korean celebrities shown in various TV programs, movies, or concerts. Their attachment to the Korean celebrities seems to create an actual demand for tourism in Korea. The increased number of international visitors to Korea can be attributed to the heightened interest and affection to the Korean celebrities, which points toward the possible linkage between celebrity fandom and tourism. As Morgan and Pritchard (1998) commented, celebrities not only operate as supporters of tourism, but become icons of tourism themselves. The sites of celebrities' homes and birthplaces serve as an important tourism attraction in a number of countries. Filmed locations may also become a popular tourism attraction via the connection with the actors/actresses. One example can be found from the case of Asian fan-meeting 2004 for Ji-woo Choi, a main actress of *Winter Sonata* (Korean soap opera that recorded a mega hit in Japan, Taiwan, China, and Hong Kong just to name a few). This event involved about 1,200 fans from Japan, Hong Kong, China, Taiwan and Singapore at Yong-pyong Resort, the main filming location of *Winter Sonata* (Korea National Tourism Organization, www.knto.or.kr, 2005). Thus, it is possible to infer that mass media celebrities distributed in other countries act as a tourism endorser or image maker for the featured sites at both local and national levels.

Although many cultural commentators and officials claim that Hallyu has created a positive image of Korea and actual tourism demand in several Asian countries, the

driving force behind this possible image change and tourism demand has not been examined systematically. As briefly stated, one's attachment to the celebrity may play an important role in constructing various destination perceptions associated with the celebrity (the first study in Chapter II). For this reason, the concept of celebrity fandom is introduced and examined in this study in relation to various destination perceptions.

Hallyu not only influences tourism perceptions but also affects leisure attitudes and behaviors that take place within the domain of everyday life. The concept of leisure involvement is proposed here to understand the role of one's attachment to a chosen celebrity in constructing other leisure attitudes. The concept of leisure involvement has been widely used in leisure research because it plays a pivotal role in understanding diverse leisure behaviors (Havitz and Dimanche 1997). Leisure involvement studies have centered on the impacts of involvement with the given leisure activity on participants' attitudes and behaviors (Havitz and Howard 1995; Park 1996; Schuett 1993; 1995; Siegenthaler and Lam 1992; Venkatraman 1988; Watkins 1986). Although the majority of leisure involvement research has examined a wide variety of leisure activities (e.g., climbing, hiking, bird watching) as an object of involvement, a celebrity as a source of leisure activity has rarely been investigated. This study proposes that a celebrity can become an object of leisure involvement for some fans. A celebrity fandom refers to a state of profound attention and adulation toward a celebrity that is expressed in multi-dimensions such as feelings, attitudes, and behaviors. Even if the concept of involvement has received a significant theoretical and empirical attention over the past 20 years, its application to celebrity fandom has gone virtually ignored.

Literature that examines the phenomenon of sport fandom provides clues about the association between leisure involvement and celebrity fandom (Kerstetter and Kovich 1997). The concept of sports fandom refers to individuals' involvement with iconic figures (e.g., sports team and athlete). The results from this sports fandom study generally show that people's involvement with iconic figures directly influences their leisure attitudes and behaviors. Likewise, individuals who are deeply attracted to mass media celebrities, such as the fans of Hallyu stars, can be better understood via the concept of celebrity fandom, which is viewed as a type of leisure involvement in this study. The underlying psychological process of Hallyu fans' engagement in a celebrity related leisure activity has not yet been investigated. A modified leisure negotiation model, which is discussed more fully in the second study (Chapter III), is proposed as a framework to understand how people's leisure involvement with a chosen celebrity is related to leisure constraints, negotiation strategies, and actual participation.

As briefly discussed, the concept of celebrity fandom is central to understanding the phenomenon under study. Therefore, a meaning of fandom is further explored in a following section.

Fandom

A notion of fandom is derived from the word "fanaticism". Dating back to early Roman and Latin texts, a fanaticism has been studied in various disciplines such as religious studies, the study of politics, and the social sciences (Smith 2004). The word fanatic is a derivative of the word *fanum*, which means "temple or sacred place" (The

American Heritage Dictionary 1985: 489). In Rome, a term *fanatici* was used to refer to mystics and priests who interpret omens and visions (Haynal, Molnar and De Puymege 1983). The term *fanaticus* shown in Latin literature also means to be put into raging enthusiasm by a deity. The notion of fanaticism stems from these religious connotations. Despite its religious origin, the meaning of fanaticism has been expanded to include political and social forms of extremist or radical behavior. For example, the label of fanaticism is also used to describe the commitment to a movie star or sports team.

Fan is an abbreviation of *Fanatic*. The word fan first appeared in journalistic accounts to denote the followers of various professional and amateur sports teams (Jenkins 1992). The word fan soon evolved into a universal term that indicates any sports or commercial entertainment devotee. The earliest non-sport, commercial entertainment use was to denote female theater-goers, often referred to as “matinee girls,” known for their admiration for particular actors rather than the films. Over the years, media fans and sports fans (they are generally defined as fervent devotees or admirers) have become a popular subject of scholarly investigation because these special social groups are typically highly visible and familiar to many individuals (Gibson 2000; Smith 2004).

A sport fan can be defined as “one who is enthusiastic about a particular sport or athlete” (Wann 1995: 377). According to Spinrad (1981), the sports fan “thinks, talks about and is oriented towards sports even when [the fan] is not actually observing, or reading, or listening to an account of a specific sports event” (p. 354). It is important to notice that sports fans are not equivalent to spectators (Wann and Branscombe 1995).

Pooley (1978) contended that the conceptual difference between a fan and a spectator lies in a degree of engrossment and passion. Jones (1997) supported this contention by suggesting that spectators are the ones who observe a sport and then forget about it while fans are the ones who are more devoted to the team or the sport itself in their everyday life with more intensity. More recently, Wann, Melnick, Russell and Page (2001: 2) defined a sport fan as “individuals who are interested in and follow a sport, team, and/or athlete. Sport spectators are those individuals who actively witness a sporting event in person or through some form of media (e.g., radio and television)”. As shown across these conceptions, the use of term *sports fan* presupposes a high level of commitment to the given sports or players, whereas spectators do not necessarily carry such connotation.

Sports fans not only devote their time and money to a sport, but also become emotionally attached to a team and/or a player (Weiller and Higgs 1997). For them, fandom becomes a part of everyday life to the point at which it is included as a major part of their self-identity. Madrigal (1995) suggests that highly committed fans tend to perceive their chosen team as part of their extended self. Other empirical studies also support the close linkage between fandom and self-identity creation (Gibson, Willming, and Holdnak 2002; Jones 1999). Thus, it can be inferred that the level of involvement significantly influences fans' behavior and attitudes particularly in relation to the supporting team. Also, they tend to accumulate significant amounts of knowledge about their chosen sport or players.

The development of sports fandom for individuals is attributable to various personal benefits that may be conduit to the high level of commitment to a selected

team. First of all, the intimate association that one may perceive about the certain team helps one to develop or maintain a desired identity. As Sloan (1989: 193) maintained, “people need a sufficient sense of identity and uniqueness and that if they could not obtain it individually through their own creative efforts, that they might seek and obtain some aspect of distinction by associating themselves with a positive other or group of others”. Second, it provides them a relief from boredom and tension as they constantly experience thrills and joy involving with teams winning and losing (Sloan 1989; Smith, Patterson, Williams, and Hogg 1981; Zuckerman 1979). Thirdly, as individuals become avid fans, they tend to develop comradeship or feelings of solidarity with friends and family who support the same team by rejoicing in the thrill of victory and agonizing over a defeat (Branscombe and Wann 1991). Also, sports fandom offers them a chance to learn about fairness and justice (Bandura 1969; 1971). Individuals may also learn about how to cope with their emotions through the repeated experience of disappointment (Zillman, Bryant and Sapolsky 1989). Lastly, being a fan provides individuals with risk-free topics of conversation that can help establish social interaction and cohesion (Smith et al. 1981).

Like sports fandom, individuals who are highly committed to mass media programs and/or celebrities have drawn some scholarly interests over the years (Harrington and Bielby 1995; Rubin and Perse 1987). Abercrombie and Longhurst (1998) define mass media fans as “those people who become particularly attached to certain programmers or stars within the context of relatively heavy mass media use” (p.138). According to this definition, one may try to define a person who sets time aside

on a regular basis to watch a favored television series as a fan. However, media fandom is more than just watching TV series on a regular basis and setting a VCR everyday to tape a favorite soap opera. It is a complex, multidimensional phenomenon that typically involves diverse forms of participation and levels of engagement (Jenkins 1992), as often demonstrated in sports fandom. For the “avid fan” (Reeves, Rodgers, and Epstein 1996), a specific television show is not only a special event but also a major source of self-definition. They often tape each episode to later review and/or archive them and also join interpretive communities (e.g., fan clubs and on-line discussion groups). Further, they become an active consumer by purchasing supplementary materials related to the program such as books, magazines, and various other paraphernalia.

Although numerous anecdotes demonstrate the influence of celebrity on diverse aspects of society, few empirical studies have been conducted to explore the mass media celebrity fan experiences particularly as a part of leisure activity. Some exceptions include the research on the sports fan (Leets, de Becker and Giles 1995). The existing literature has focused only on pathological and sensationalist aspects of mass media (or celebrity) fandom; this tendency is demonstrated in the cases of deviant celebrity fans (Jenkins 1992; Leerhsen 1986) and riots among the avid sports fans (Eichberg 1992; Guttman 1986) while neglecting upon other aspects of sports fan culture. Similarly, Harrington and Bielby (1995) argued that previous research on soap opera fans tended to focus too much on the deviant aspects of fanship. Jenson (1992) also argues that the over-representation of pathological perspective (view fans as lacking and vulnerable) in this line of research has hindered any realistic understanding of how regular people

manage their lives in today's mass media driven society. Hence, there is need for more scholarly endeavor to explore the concept of fandom as a normal, everyday cultural or social phenomenon.

Purpose of the Study

This dissertation examines two issues related to leisure involvement and celebrity fandom. These issues are developed in the next two chapters and are written as self-contained papers with their own introductions, literature reviews, conceptual frameworks, and research methods. The final chapter summarizes the results of the two papers and concludes the dissertation.

The first paper (Chapter II) will examine the relationships between the role of leisure involvement with celebrities, destination perceptions (i.e., destination images and familiarity) and propensity to travel to a destination associated with the star/celebrity. A concept of celebrity fandom is introduced in this study as a conceptual framework to understand the nature of one's leisure involvement with a mass media celebrity. Specifically, this study aims to advance our understanding of the way one's involvement with a celebrity/star influences other destination perceptions that may eventually lead to the intention to visit a destination closely associated with the celebrity/star.

The second paper (Chapter III) investigates the process of celebrity fan's leisure constraints negotiation that consists of leisure involvement, leisure constraints, leisure negotiation strategies, and frequency of participation. The second paper aims to bridge the concept of leisure involvement and leisure motivation. Both concepts share multiple

similarities and act as a driving force for various leisure behaviors even if this conceptual parallel has not been empirically examined previously. Therefore, the second part of this study attempts to apply the concept of leisure involvement in place of leisure motivation to examining the constraint-effects-mitigation model (by Hubbard and Mannell 2001).

Significance of the Study

This dissertation study makes several significant contributions to existing literature in the field of tourism and leisure studies. First of all, it introduces a concept of celebrity fandom to the field of tourism studies. It, thus, expands our understanding of how people's participation in mass media influence tourism attitudes and behaviors. Second, although leisure involvement has received widespread attention over the last two decades, its application to celebrity fandom has gone virtually ignored. This study helps expand the applicability of leisure involvement concept by investigating it within the context of media celebrity fandom. Third, in spite of conceptual and operational parallels between leisure involvement and motivation, the possible interchangeability between the two concepts has never been empirically examined. This study helps investigate the conceptual parallel and the interchangeability between leisure motivation and leisure involvement by applying the concept of leisure involvement to the constraint-mitigation model as a substitute for a leisure motivation. Lastly, this research helps clarify the effects of leisure involvement on the leisure negotiation processes, which eventually contributes to making this mitigation model more comprehensive.

Definition of Terms

Operational definitions of variables used in this study are as follows:

A celebrity. An individual who is well known and recognized by people as a result of significant public exposure mostly through mass media (e.g., the national press, magazines, radio, and television).

Celebrity fandom. A state of profound attention and adulation toward a celebrity that is expressed in multi-dimensions such as feelings, attitudes, and behaviors.

Leisure involvement. Unobservable state of motivation, arousal or interest toward a recreational activity or associated product. It is evoked by a particular stimulus or situation and has drive properties (Havitz and Dimanche 1997; Rothschild 1984).

Destination image. A totality of impressions, beliefs, ideas, expectations, and feelings accumulated over time towards a place (Crompton 1979; Hunt 1975). It consists of cognitive image and affective image. *Cognitive* image refers to a set of beliefs an individual has of both tangible and intangible objects. It is considered to be a composite of various attractions and attributes woven into a total impression. *Affective* image refers to emotional evaluation an individual verbally attribute to a place.

Familiarity. Subjective evaluation of respondents' degree of information, experience, and knowledge about a place (Baloglu 2001; Prentice 2003).

Intention to visit. Respondents' expressed desire to travel to the destination assuming there are no realistic constraints.

Leisure constraint. A factor that makes leisure participation difficult (Jackson, Crawford and Godbey 1993).

Constraint negotiation. A strategy people use to avoid or reduce the impact of the constraints and barriers to leisure participation and enjoyment (Mannell and Kleiber 1997).

CHAPTER II

CELEBRITY FAN'S LEISURE INVOLVEMENT AND DESTINATION PERCEPTIONS

Introduction

In recent years, Korean popular culture has gained much recognition across many Asian countries via the movies, songs, soap operas, and other forms of mass media entertainment. The trend is known as “Hallyu (韓流)” which means “Korean Wave” in English. In the middle of 1999, the word Hallyu was introduced by the Chinese mass media for the first time and has been used to indicate the increasing interest in Korean popular cultures in several Asian countries. Initiated in mainland China through soap operas, Hallyu became a transnational sociocultural phenomenon in many countries, including Taiwan, Hong Kong, and Japan. Although passive consumption of some mass-entertainment products (e.g. soap operas, movies, and music) characterized the early stage of Hallyu, it soon developed into a more serious or active stage as demonstrated by people collecting related Korean cultural items, learning Korean languages, tasting Korean foods, and actually visiting Korea.

Hallyu has spurred travel to Korea. The Korea National Tourism Organization (KNTO) reported approximately 3 million Hallyu induced tourists visited Korea as of November 2004. The figure was 37 percent higher than the previous year (Korea National Tourism Organization (KNTO) www.knto.or.kr, 2004). Many cultural commentators in Korea attribute such a sudden influx of East Asian tourists to the

dramatic success of TV dramas (e.g., *Winter Sonata* and *Great Jang-Geum*) and an avid interest in Hallyu actors and actresses. The primary catalyst for this phenomenon is seen to be audiences' heightened interest and attachment to Korean entertainers as well as mass media programs (e.g., films, TV dramas, and songs). Numerous anecdotes and observations reported in mass media collectively support the view that people's strong involvement with a star, in many cases, initiate their interest in Korea, enhances their image of the country, and eventually leads them to visit Korea. For instance, Yong-joon Bae (known as Yongsama in Japan, literally Lord Yong), who is at the center of the Korean Wave, is said to be one of the major impetuses of recent increase in Japanese tourists to Korea. Many of his fans have engaged in pilgrimages to not only film locations in Korea but also to general Korean attractions. The Korean Ministry of Culture and Tourism appointed "Korean wave" stars (Lee Byung-hun and Choi Ji-woo) as cultural ambassadors in countries that have had a strained political relationship with Korea (i.e., Japan, China, and Vietnam) in the hope of alleviating negative attitudes toward Korea (KNTTO, www.knto.or.kr, 2004).

Although the relationship between mass media and tourism has become an important topic of tourism research (Kim and Richardson 2003; Riley and Van Doren 1992; Riley, Van Doren, and Baker 1998; Tooke and Baker 1996), the role that celebrities play in shaping tourism demand has been studied rarely. It remains an under-researched area filled with conjectures and assertions without a solid theoretical grounding or empirical examination. Indeed, little is known about the psychological processes underlying people's attachment to celebrities. In recognition of this research

gap, this study introduces a concept of *celebrity fandom* to the field of tourism studies, and attempts to examine the way one's involvement with a celebrity influences other psychological constructs that may eventually lead to the propensity to travel to a destination associated with the celebrity. Specifically, this study aims to advance our understanding of the interrelationships between the role of fan involvement, destination perceptions (i.e., destination images and familiarity), and travel intentions.

This study contributes significantly to understanding this newly emerged form of tourism whose creation is based on the powerful impacts of mass media and popular culture in post-industrial society. The following section provides a brief review of film-induced tourism to which this study rightly belongs.

Literature Review

Film-induced Tourism

Film-induced tourism is a social phenomenon that is receiving increasing attention from the academics as well as destination marketers (Beeton 2005). Generally, it is defined as a form of tourism that involves "tourist visits to a destination or attraction as a result of the destination being featured on television, video or the cinema screen" (Evan 1997: 35). Major topics of interest include exploration of the film-induced tourists (Beeton 2001a; Busby and Klug 2001); examination of the impacts of film tourism on host communities (Beeton 2001b; Busby, Brunt and Lund 2003; Connell 2005); impacts of films/TV programs on tourism images (Beeton 2004; Frost 2004; Kim and Richardson 2003; Mercille 2005; Mordue 2001; Torchin 2002) and tourism demand

(Riley and Van Doren 1992; Riley, Baker and Van Doren 1998; Tooke and Baker 1996). Among these topics, the relationship between the popular media and destination image appears to be one of the most important topics for its relevance to other areas of tourism studies.

The powerful force of popular media on inducing tourism on a filmed location has been repeatedly confirmed by the growth in visitor numbers at several filmed locations as shown in Table 1 and/or figure 1 (Riley and Van Doren 1992; Riley, Baker and Van Doren 1998; Tooke and Baker 1996). Kim and Richardson (2003) identified the underlying conceptual linkage between film and tourism by showing a popular film can act as an autonomous image formation agent and a catalyst for propensity to visit the place as previously suggested by Gartner (1993).

Table 1. The growth in visitor numbers at TV and film locations

Film/TV dramas	Locations	Impact on tourism
Braveheart	Wallace Mounment, Scotland	300% increase in visitors year after release
Bull Durham	Durham, North Carolina	25% increase year after release
Captain Corelli's Mandolin	Cephalonia, Greece	50% increase over 3 years
Close Encounters of the Third Kind	Devils Tower, Wyoming, U.S.	75% increase in 1975 20% visit now because of the film
Crocodile Dundee	Australia	21% increase every year 1991-1998 from U.S.
Dances with Wolves	Fort Hayes, Kansas, U.S.	25% increase compared with 7% for previous 4 years
Dallas	Southfork Ranch, Dallas	500,000 visitor per year
Deliverance	Rayburn Country, U.S.	20,000 film tourist a year
Field of Dreams	Iowa, U.S.	35,000 visits in 1991 Steady increase every year
Forrest Gump	Savannah, Georgia, U.S.	7% increase in tourism

Table 1. Continued

Film/TV dramas	Locations	Impact on tourism
Four Weddings and a Funeral	The Crown Hotel, Amersham, England	Fully booked for at least 3 years
Gorillas in the Mist	Rwanda	20% increase in 1998
Harry Potter	Various locations in U.K.	50% or more increase
Heartbeat	Goathland, North Yorkshire, England	3 times the number of normal visitors in 1991
Steel Magnolias	Louisiana	48% increase year after release
Last of the Mohicans	Chimney Rock Park, North Carolina	25% increase year after release
Little Women	Orchard House, Concord, Massachusetts	65% increase year after release
Mission Impossible 2	National Parks in Sydney, Australia	200% increase in 2000
Miami Vice	Miami, U.S.	150% increase 1985-1988 from German
Middlemarch	Stamford, Lincolnshire, England	27% increase in 1994
Mrs. Brown	Osborne House, U.K.	25% increase
Notting Hill	Kenwood House, England	10% increase in one month
Pride and Prejudice	Lyme Park in Cheshire, U.K.	150% increase
Saving Private Ryan	Normandy, France	40% increase form U.S.
Sense & Sensibility	Saltram House, England	39% increase
The Beach	Thailand	22% increase in youth market in 2000
The Fugitive	Dillsboro, North Carolina	11% increase year after release
The Lord of the Rings	New Zealand	10% increase every year 1998-2003 from U.K.
Thelma and Louise	Arches National Monument in Moab, Utah, U.S.	19.1% increase in 1991
To the Manor Born	Cricket St Thomas Leisure Park, England	37% increase between 1978-1980
Troy	Canakkale, Turkey	73% increase in tourism
Winter Sonata	Nami Island, Korea	2,600% increase in 2004 from Japan

Sources: Busby, Brunt and Lund (2003); Croy and Walker (2003); Riley, Baker, and Van Doren (1998); Riely and van Doren (1992); Tooke and Baker (1996); author's own research



(a) Main actor and actress



(b) Visitors

Figure 1. Film location in Nami Island, Korea

Although a growing interest has been given to the role of popular media on forming destination images, a wide variety of elements embedded in popular culture have not been incorporated in the preceding research endeavors. Many researchers who try to identify destination image formation processes have overlooked the role of popular media (Baloglu and McCleary 1999; Gunn 1972; Fakeye and Crompton 1991). However, Gartner (1993) specified eight different image formation agents (induced I, overt induced II, covert induced I, covert induced II, autonomous, unsolicited organic, solicited organic, and organic) and highlighted the role of popular media in his definition of an autonomous agent that encompasses news, films and TV dramas. According to Gartner (1993), the popular media can create or change destination image in a short period of time because of its deep penetration into everyday life and dramatic portrayal of a place. Although it is not identified in his list of autonomous agents, a celebrity can be another powerful source that dramatically changes people's perception of destination image. There are numerous anecdotes that support the role of impact that celebrities have in the formation of destination images. Kotler, Haider, and Rein (1993), for instance, regarded the celebrity as an important tool for marketing places and refer to the active utilization of celebrities for a promotional strategy as "icon marketing". Kotler et al (1993) noted that the personal characteristics of politicians, like Mikhail Gorbachev, shown in mass media could help reshape the images of the Soviet Union in a positive manner. They further argued that this "icon marketing" strategy could work best only when audiences are not troubled by fundamental issues such as political and economic conflicts. This suggests that popular culture icons, like actors/actresses and singers, who

are relatively free from various political and religious concerns may be effective agents for destination image formation. However, the role of actors/actresses featured in films or TV dramas has received little attention from tourism researchers despite the great impacts they may have on audience members' attitudes and behaviors. The following section introduces the role of celebrities shown in mass media and its possible relevance for tourism phenomena.

Star/Celebrities in Mass Media

Watching film or television is considered a major leisure activity with the television and video (or DVD) being an indispensable household item in contemporary societies. For example, Martin (1991) reported that North Americans, on average, spend approximately 25% of their waking hours watching films or television. More than anything else, diverse social segments of the population share in the consumption of mass media (Grossberg, Wartella and Whitney 1998). With the considerable amount of time people spend on mass media, mass media stars and celebrities have become a powerful force that shapes people's conscious and subconscious attitudes and behaviors. People's attitudes about certain aspects of the world are often developed through what they learn from watching stars/celebrities. People decide to take up a sport or cut their hair as a result of emulating their favorite stars. As such, the impacts of projected images of stars/celebrities on people's attitudes and behaviors appear to be immense (McCracken 1989). In particular, celebrities may convey meanings to audiences about an object/place with which they are believed to be associated. For some involved

audiences, the celebrities may become an important medium that transfer the meaning and image of a place they represent. The relationship between image construction and involvement with celebrities warrants empirical research.

The Elaboration Likelihood Model (ELM), which posits a linkage between message provider, medium, and recipients of the message, provides a plausible framework to understand the image formation process via the popular culture (Petty and Cacioppo 1986; Petty and Wegener 1998). Much advertising literature that adopts ELM approach shows that the image of a product could be enhanced through an endorsement of a credible, trustworthy, and attractive person. Credible speakers persuade people more than unbelievable speakers do, and attractive speakers persuade people more than speakers lacking in attractiveness. Following the ELM approach, celebrities in mass media are more likely to appeal to an audience via peripheral routes rather than central routes. That is, audiences tend to accept the information distributed by the celebrity without much critical appraisal as they are less concerned with message content. Accordingly, many advertisers tend to use celebrities (e.g., movie/television, sport, politics, business, and art stars), who are believed to possess a high level of attractiveness to the general public, in the hope of enhancing the images of products they wish to sell.

The power of celebrities in advertising is huge (McCracken 1986; 1988; 1989). Celebrities have various symbolic properties (e.g., they are smart, cool, gentle, and generous). Based on the “meaning transfer” perspective, these properties move from celebrity to consumer products as audiences watch the advertisement and identify with

the advertising celebrity. The images of celebrities associated with the roles they assume in TV dramas and movies may serve as a *signifier* of the product images that they endorse (McCracken 1989). That is, positive images that audiences have of celebrities may be transferred to the products being endorsed by the celebrities. The advertising endorsement can succeed when the properties of the endorser become the properties of the product.

In a similar vein, it is possible to infer that celebrities in mass media programs that have been distributed in other countries act as an endorser or image maker for the featured sites at both local and national levels. This inference is specifically outlined in the following section.

Conceptual Framework

A Proposed Research Model

This study proposes that one's involvement with a celebrity influences his/her perceptions of the destination that the celebrity represents. The destination perceptions proposed in this study are familiarity, image (composed of affective and cognitive dimensions), and likelihood to visit a filmed location. The interrelationships of these constructs are shown in the model below. Proposed hypotheses among the construct are fleshed out below (see figure 2).

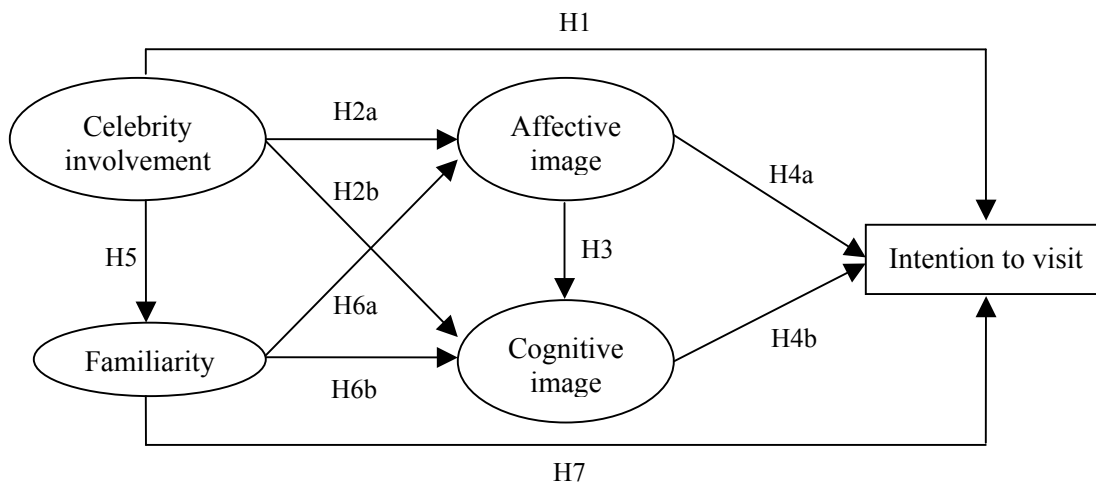


Figure 2. Hypothetical model of the relationship between celebrity involvement and destination perceptions

A celebrity can become an object of leisure involvement for some fans. Abercrombie and Longhurst (1998) defined mass media fans as “those people who become particularly attached to certain programs or stars within the context of relatively heavy mass media use” (p. 138). Although one may want to define a person who sets time aside on a regular basis to watch a favored television series as a fan, media fandom is more than just watching a TV series on a regular basis and setting a VCR everyday to tape a favorite soap opera. It is a complex, multidimensional phenomenon that typically involves diverse forms of participation and levels of engagement (Jenkins 1992). For the “avid fan” (Reeves, Rodgers and Epstein 1996), a specific television show is not only a special event but also a major source of self-definition. Fans often tape each episode to later review, archive shows, and join interpretive communities (e.g., fan clubs and on-line discussion groups). They also may become active consumers by purchasing

supplementary program related materials such as books, magazines, and various other paraphernalia.

For avid fans, media celebrities may become an important leisure activity. The term *celebrity involvement* is used here to describe the tendency to develop a heightened affection and attachment to a celebrity. Hence, the concept of *leisure involvement* may be useful conceptual framework to understand celebrity fandom, particularly in terms of fans' psychological states.

According to Havitz and Dimanche (1997: 256), the concept of involvement refers to an “unobservable state of motivation, arousal or interest toward a recreational activity or associated product.” They further argued that it is evoked by particular stimulus or situation and has drive properties. In this study, a celebrity is conceived as a product or leisure activity. That is, a celebrity can become an object of leisure involvement for people. Often treated as a psychological antecedent of diverse leisure attitudes and behaviors, involvement is known to influence the length and frequency of activity participation (Park 1996; Schuett 1995; Venkatraman 1988), expenditures associated with a chosen leisure activity (Bloch 1993; Siegenthaler and Lam 1992), and a future intention to participate in a chosen leisure activity (McCarville, Crompton and Sell 1993; Norman 1991).

There are two frequently used involvement scales. One was developed by Zaichkowsky (1985) and the other one was developed by Laurent and Kapferer (1985). These two scales have evoked a long-lasting debate regarding the dimensionality of the concept. Zaichkowsky (1985) proposed Personal Involvement Index (PII), which is

unidimensional in nature. She conceptualized involvement as an individual's perceived relevance of an object based on inherent needs, values, and interests. It focuses on perceived importance and interest toward the product or activity. On the other hand, Laurent and Kapferer (1985) proposed Involvement Profile (IP) scale that consists of five dimensions, which opened the door for conceptualizing involvement on a multifaceted concept: 1) perceived product importance; 2) the hedonistic or pleasure value of the product; 3) the symbolic or sign value; 4) perceived risk associated with a product's purchase; and 5) perceived risk consequences. They argued that involvement is best viewed as a multidimensional concept. Since the mid-1980s there has been a general consensus that involvement is indeed multidimensional (Havitz and Dimanche 1990; 1997; 1999; Kyle, Graefe, Manning and Bacon 2003; McIntyre 1989; McIntyre and Pigram 1992; Selin and Howard 1988).

McIntyre and Pigram (1992) extended Laurent and Kepferer's (1985) involvement profile (IP) to develop three dimensions of leisure involvement: attraction (importance and pleasure), centrality to lifestyle and self-expression. These three dimensions have consistently been shown to be applicable and reliably measured within leisure and tourism settings (Bricker and Kerstetter 2000; Gahwiler and Havitz 1998; Kyle, Graefe, Manning and Bacon 2003; McIntyre and Pigram 1992). *Attraction* refers to the perceived importance or interest in an activity or a product, and the pleasure or hedonic value derived from participation or use. *Centrality* encompasses the social contexts, such as friends and families who participate in the activity, and the central role of the activity in the context of an individual's life. *Self-expression* implies if the leisure

activity offers them an opportunity to express their desired images. This research utilizes these three dimensions of leisure involvement proposed by McIntyre and Pigram (1992).

Most involvement studies have focused only on activities or products as an object of involvement. However, given the amount of time people devote to celebrity activities, it is reasonable to extend the involvement construct to these activities. The level of involvement with the chosen celebrity can influence the perceptions of a place the celebrity may signify. That is, level of celebrity involvement may be positively associated with one's image of the chosen celebrity. As shown in the Elaboration Likelihood Model (ELM), positive images that audiences have of celebrities may be transferred to the products that celebrities represent. Within the context of movies and TV dramas, it may be the filmed locations that celebrities signify. For example, Korean celebrities in diverse TV dramas and films that have been distributed in other East Asian countries may act as an endorser or image-maker for the featured sites at both local and national levels. It should be noted that the efficiency of “meaning transfer” from a celebrity to a filmed location may depend on the characteristics of the audiences (recipients). A degree of receptiveness may be higher when the program is made to appear to be personally relevant to audiences or the audiences become an avid fan of the actors/actresses featured in the media (Aronson, Wilson and Akert 1999). Hence, one can reasonably infer the close linkage between celebrity involvement and the destination images that the selected celebrity may signify. The following section explains the two

components of destination images and presents hypotheses related to the concept of celebrity involvement.

As evidenced by the influx of celebrity-induced visits to movie destinations, celebrity involvement may serve as a catalyst for the propensity to visit destinations associated with the celebrity. As celebrity involvement may be translated into the level of worship, visiting the destination associated with the adoring celebrity can be perceived as a sort of pilgrimage. In a sense, visiting the celebrity related destination is an act of consuming the desired qualities that the celebrity may signify. Hence, the following hypothesis is put forward:

Hypothesis 1: The level of celebrity involvement will have a positive effect on intentions to visit destinations that celebrities signify.

Destination Image Components

Destination image refers to a sum of impressions, beliefs, thoughts, perceptions, and feelings built up over time towards a place (Assael 1984; Crompton 1979; Hunt 1975). It is one of the most accepted concepts in destination marketing and development as it plays a critical role in various decision-making processes and actual destination experience (Baloglu and McCleary 1999; Chon 1991; Fakeye and Crompton 1991; Gartner 1993; Gunn 1972; Hunt 1975; Lee, Lee and Lee 2005; Mayo 1973; Pearce 1982). Previous studies on destination image collectively identified two conceptually different, but highly correlated, components of destination image: cognitions and affect (Baloglu and McCleary 1999; Gartner 1993; Kim and Richardson 2003). According to

Gartner (1993), the cognitive component indicates the sum of beliefs and attitudes about the object (destination) leading to some internally accepted picture of its attributes. This cognitive image is more or less derived from factual information. On the other hand, the affective component of destination image can be viewed as one's diffusive feelings about a specific tourism destination. The affective component becomes important when a decision to travel is actually considered as people are often swayed by such negative or positive feeling states upon making a leisure choice (Russel 1980). As noted, celebrity involvement is likely to positively affect the image (both cognitive and affective dimensions) of destination associated with the celebrity. Hence, the following two hypotheses can be stated:

Hypothesis 2a: The level of celebrity involvement will have a positive effect on the cognitive image of destinations that celebrities signify.

Hypothesis 2b: The level of celebrity involvement will have a positive effect on the affective image of destinations that celebrities signify.

Gartner (1993) argued that the interrelationship of the cognitive and affective components eventually determines the predisposition for visiting a destination. Although there is debate regarding the causal relationship between the two components (Bigné, Andreu and Gnoth 2005), the close correlation between them is widely accepted via several empirical studies (Baloglu and McCleary 1999; Kim and Richardson 2003). Hence, this study proposes the following hypothesis:

Hypothesis 3: Cognitive and affective images of a destination are positively related.

Previous destination image studies collectively suggest that destination images play a critical role in actual travel decision-making processes (Bigné, Sanchez and Sanchez 2001; Lee, Lee and Lee 2005). In particular, the positive relationship between the destination image of a place and intention to visit to the destinations has been confirmed repeatedly (Court and Lupton 1997; Lee, Lee and Lee 2005). The positive image of a destination serves as an endorser of positive future experience with the chosen destination, which leads to increasing the intention to visit the destination. Therefore, the next hypotheses are as follows:

Hypothesis 4a: The more favorable the cognitive image of a destination, the higher the probability of the intention to visit that destination,

Hypothesis 4b: The more favorable the affective image of a destination, the higher the probability of the intention to visit that destination.

Familiarity

Like the linkage between celebrity involvement and destination image, one's level of involvement to celebrities may be positively related to the level of familiarity with the destination that celebrities signify. In addition, the level of familiarity is said to influence destination image and the decision making process. Despite its potential importance to destination marketing via the close relationship with other destination related perceptions, the destination familiarity has not received much attention, until recently, from tourism researchers.

Despite its increasing importance in understanding tourism behaviors, there is little agreement about how to define destination familiarity. Milman and Pizam (1995) equated familiarity with previous visitation, viewing the concept of familiarity as a simple dichotomous variable (either familiar or unfamiliar). This simplistic approach has been criticized because it ignores the multidimensional facets of human experience (Kim and Richardson 2003). Prentice and Andersen (2000) also disputed this simplistic behavioral construct of familiarity and suggested that non-visitors may have complicated images of destinations, created by indirect experiences such as education, mass media, and personal contacts with other people. Accordingly, recent studies tend to treat the concept of familiarity as multidimensional (Baloglu 2001; Kerstetter and Cho 2004; Kim and Richardson 2003; Prentice 2004). Baloglu, for example, divided familiarity into two dimensions: informational and experiential. The informational dimension refers to the sources of information used to visit the destination, while the experiential dimension refers to the extent of past experience (previous visitation) with the destination. Prentice (2004) expanded on Baloglu's work and put forth five intercorrelated dimensions of familiarity: informational, experiential, proximate, self-described, and educational. Similar to Baloglu, he conceptualized the informational dimension as the amount of information used, and viewed the experiential as previous visitation. The proximate dimension refers to a cultural distance that can be measured by one's nationality. It is based on the conjecture that tourists with different nationalities may perceive the same destination differently. The self-described dimension refers to a kind of familiarity that can be constructed through direct family links or ethnic heritage with the destination.

Lastly, the educational dimension indicates one's level of exposure to various popular media (e.g., novels and poems) that are produced by the writers of the destination.

These diverse constructs of destination familiarity are shown in Table 2.

Table 2. Destination familiarity constructs

Authors	Familiarity components	Variables of interests	Destination
Milman and Pizam (1995)	- Experiential	- Destination image - Interest in visiting - Likelihood to visit	Central Florida
Baloglu (2001)	- Informational - Experiential	- Destination Image	Turkey
MacKay and Fesenmaier (1997)	- Self-rated	- Destination image	Riding Mountain National Park (RMNP), Manitoba
Prentice and Andersen (2000)	- Experiential - Self-described	- Destination image - Visiting propensity	Ireland
Prentice (2003)	- Informational - Experiential - Self-described - Educational	- Destination image	Australia
Prentice (2004)	- Informational - Experiential - Proximate - Self-described - Educational	- Destination image	Scotland and England
Kim and Richardson (2003)	- Self-rated	- Destination image - Interest in visiting	Vienna

The most recent work on destination familiarity conceptualization (Prentice 2004) appears to have some weakness in application. The concept of proximate familiarity should be appropriate only in European context where various ethnic groups are intermingled. Whereas, the context of this research (Korea and Japan) does not seem to represent such a diverse ethnic background that is necessary to effectively measure

that type of familiarity. Thus, the proximate familiarity is excluded in this study. Also, the self-described dimension and educational dimension were not adopted in this study because the measurement constructs do not rightly reflect the context of this study. Instead, self-rated familiarity proposed by Kim and Richardson (2003) is employed along with informational and experiential dimensions. The self-rated familiarity is evaluative in nature as the construct aims to measure respondents' subjective familiarity with the destination. Informational and experiential familiarity is both behavioral in nature and reflects actions that lead to enhanced familiarity with a destination.

As noted, many fans may become familiar with a destination by participating in various activities related to the celebrity. As they are more exposed to mass media that portray their favorite celebrities, they may develop a certain level of attachment to the celebrities. More interestingly, as they are increasingly involved with the celebrities, they may want to collect more information about the destination that the celebrities signify as well as the celebrities. This is because fans tend to identify the celebrities and the surroundings (or belongings) of the celebrities as their involvement with the celebrities increases. That is, there is a possible linkage between celebrity involvement and information search behavior. Indeed, much literature supports for the positive relationship between the leisure involvement and information search behavior (Bloch, Sherrell and Ridgway 1986; Celsi and Olson 1988; Jamrozy, Backman and Backman 1996; Kerstetter and Kovich 1997; Perdue 1993; Richins and Bloch 1986; Slama and Tashchian 1985; Venkatraman 1988). It is plausible that the increased information search behavior eventually leads to increased familiarity. Viewed from the celebrity

involvement context, it is a common scene that some avid fans are eager to learn the foreign language, history, and cultural lifestyle in order to better communicate with their favorite celebrities. As a result, they may feel close to the destination as well as the celebrity. This brief sketch of celebrity fans immediately suggests a close association between the celebrity involvement and the level of familiarity with the destination.

Hence, the following hypothesis is put forward:

Hypothesis 5: Level of celebrity involvement with actors/actresses is positively related to familiarity with destinations that celebrities signify.

Previous literature suggests that the high level of familiarity with a destination positively affects the images and propensity to travel to the destination (Baloglu 2001; Prentice and Andersen 2000). This relationship probably exists because “the rewards of security outweigh any possible rewards brought by the high costs of uncertainty” (Burch 1969: 132). From the cognitive perspective, tourists are likely to accumulate specific knowledge about a place as they become familiar with it. This enhanced knowledge can provide them a feeling of security and comfort, which leads to increased confidence in their destination choice. For instance, familiarity with the scenery and landmarks of a destination could provide a less threatening and more comfortable vacation experience to visitors (Olsen, McAlexander and Roberts 1986). Mackay and Fesenmaier (1997), however, contended that the familiarity is not necessarily linearly associated with the destination image as tourists tend to seek an optimal level of familiarity that highlights the balance between novelty and familiarity. Nonetheless, most empirical studies still support the role of familiarity as a positive determinant of destination images and

propensity to travel (Baloglu 2001; Hu and Ritchie 1993; Olsen, et al 1986; Prentice 2004; Prentice and Andersen 2000). This may be due to the fact that tourism destination is inherently a novel place for the tourists that is not likely to be over-familiarized. The next hypotheses, therefore, state,

Hypothesis 6a: The level of familiarity with a tourism destination is positively related to affective image of the destination.

Hypothesis 6b: The level of familiarity with a tourism destination is positively related to cognitive image of the destination.

Hypothesis 7: The level of familiarity with a tourism destination is positively related to intention to visit the destination.

Research Methods

Study Context

This study aims to understand the relationship between the celebrity involvement and destination perceptions. The recently increased popularity of Korean celebrities among Japanese provides an appropriate context to examine such hypothesized relationships. This study specifically examines the extent to which Japanese who are involved with Korean celebrities influence their perceptions of Korea as a tourism destination. It is, therefore, necessary to briefly sketch the relationship between Korea and Japan that provide a context for this study.

Korea and Japan have maintained a strained relationship over thousands of years owing to the approximate geographical location. As commonly found in many

neighboring countries, the two nations have undergone a number of political, social, and economic conflicts throughout the history. Ever since Korea was colonized by Japan from 1910 to 1945 the people in the two countries have maintained negative sentiments toward each other. However, owing to the recent boom of Korean popular culture in Japan, such hostility between the two countries has started to diminish (Korea National Tourism Organization (KNTO) www.knto.or.kr, 2004) particularly via the enhanced or modified images of Korean culture.

The interest in Korean stars has grown among certain segments of Japanese recently. In turn, the enhanced interest in the Korean celebrities resulted in the rapid increase of Japanese tourists visiting Korea to attend the events related to their favorite Korean stars (Korea National Tourism Organization (KNTO) www.knto.or.kr, 2004). For example, forty-five buses carrying Japanese tourists were lined up at an army checkpoint on November 15, 2006 when famous Korean actor Song Seung-heon was discharged from the military, as approximately 700 Japanese fans visited Korea to see him. On November 18-19, 2006, about 5000 Japanese fans attended his fan meetings in Seoul, Korea. It is evident that the Japanese who are emotionally attached to Korean celebrities have impacted the Korean tourism industry. This study, as suggested, attempts to understand the underlying logic behind this interesting sociocultural phenomenon particularly via the notion of celebrity fandom. The sample selection and data collection were carried out in a way that corresponds to the study objective.

Study Population and Sample Selection Process

The population of this research is Japanese who are older than 18 years and reside in Japan. The sample of this study was collected at Haneda International Airport in Tokyo, the capital city of Japan. Although representative sample of Japanese population was preferred in an ideal situation, it was not realistic to attain such representative sample given the time and money available. The Haneda International Airport at Tokyo provides an alternative context to contact a reasonably diverse range of people in terms of socio-demographic characteristics. Airport can be a good place to collect travel data because people in airports are predisposed to travel. However, choosing an international airport as a main data collection site has some limitations. As an on-site survey was conducted at the airport, the findings of this study should not be generalized to all the Japanese population. In other words, this study does not necessarily represent the opinions of the entire Japanese population.

An on-site survey was conducted at the Haneda airport on both weekdays and weekends (June 2 - 8, 2006). The first week of June is the beginning of summer vacation season in Japan, during which people start to take up an international travel. It was hoped that the diverse range of people could be contacted for this short period of time. It should be acknowledged that a wider time frame for the survey would have been more helpful in generalizing the results from this study as it could more systematically represent airport visitors. During survey periods, one of the popular Hallyu stars, Ryu Si Won, held his solo concert at all over Japan. He entered and left Japan through Haneda International airport. Therefore, the researcher had a chance to come into contact with

many fan-club members at one time at the airport.

Three trained interviewers, all fluent in both Korean and Japanese, approached potential respondents at three different points at the airport. Interviewers were instructed to contact every 10th person passing by the point in order to maintain the objectivity of the sample selection. A group was treated as one individual and only one person per group was interviewed. Individuals within groups self-selected to be part of the study. That is, within groups, the interviewers asked if there was a person in the group who would like to participate in the study. Two major screening criteria were used to select subjects for this study: 1) they had to be Japanese and 2) had to be over 18 years old. Once potential respondents were identified as fitting these selection criteria, they were asked to participate in this study. When individuals consented to participate in the study, they were provided self-administrated questionnaires, that took about 8-10 minutes to complete, and collected upon completion. Korean traditional souvenirs/gifts (compensation) were distributed to the subjects in order to enhance the response rate.

During the survey period, 618 of individuals who met the criteria were contacted for the interview; 131 turned down the request to participate in the survey. The 487 individuals consented to participate in this survey. Among the 487 subjects, 450 subjects returned the questionnaire to the interviewers. A thorough inspection of collected survey resulted in dropping 47 questionnaires from the analysis because of incomplete responses or/and what appeared to be insincere responses. Consequently, 403 usable questionnaires were coded for the analysis.

A Questionnaire Design

The questionnaire in this study consists of five subsections, excluding a cover page: 1) leisure involvement; 2) destination image; 3) familiarity; 4) intention to visit, and 5) demographic characteristics of respondents. A copy of the questionnaire can be found in Appendix I.

The questionnaire was initially written in English, and then translated into Japanese by native Japanese speakers who are proficient in both Japanese and English. After the completion of translation from English to Japanese, it was translated back to English by other translators in order to confirm the correctness of the translation. Based on a comparison between the initial English version (1st) and the translated-back version (2nd), modifications were made to questions that were less accurately translated. This process ensures the accuracy of a multilingual survey instrument (Soriano and Foxall 2002).

Before the data collection, the questionnaire was checked for the face validity, which is “evaluated by a group of judges, sometimes experts, who read or look at a measuring technique and decide whether in their opinion it measures what its name suggests.” (Judd, Smith and Kidder 1991: 54). Four faculty members reviewed the scales, and the questionnaire was modified (e.g., reworded, added, or deleted) based on their feedback. A pretest of revised questionnaire was conducted on 50 Japanese travelers (who just arrive in Korea) at the main airport of Korea (Incheon International Airport) to evaluate the appropriateness of the questionnaire. After the pre-test, poorly understood questions were again reworded for the clarity.

Measurement of Variables

Leisure involvement

Leisure involvement with Korea stars/celebrities was acted as an independent variable in this study. The level of involvement with stars/celebrities was measured using a three dimensional model (i.e., attraction, centrality, and self-expression) supported by numerous studies (Dimanche, Havitz and Howard 1991; Havitz and Dimanche 1997; Kyle and Mowen 2005; McIntyre and Pigram 1992; Wiely, Shaw and Havitz 2000). These items of leisure involvement with stars/celebrities include attraction (4 items), centrality to lifestyle (4 items), and self-expression (4 items). The attraction dimension involves four items that measure the level of perceived importance or interest in celebrity activities, and the pleasure or hedonic value derived from activity participation: “Korean stars are very important to me”, “activities that involve Korean stars offer me relaxation when pressures build up”, “participating in activities that involve Korean stars is one of the most satisfying things I do”, and “I really enjoy participating in activities which involve Korean stars”. The centrality dimension encompassed both social contexts (friends and families who participated in the activities) and the central role of the activity in respondents’ lives. Four items were used to measure the centrality dimension. These were: “I find a lot of my life is organized around activities that involve Korean stars”, “activities that involve Korean stars have a central role in my life”, “I enjoy discussing Korean stars with my friends”, and “most of friends are in some ways connected in activities related to Korean stars”. Finally, four items were used to measure the self-expression dimension of celebrity involvement. The

items were, “participating in activities that involve Korean stars says a lot about who I am”, “you can tell a lot about people by seeing them participating in activities that involve Korean stars”, “when I participate in activities that involve Korean stars I can really be myself”, and “when I participate in activities that involve Korean stars others see me the way I want them to see me”. These items were measured along a five-point Likert-type scale (1= “strongly disagree” to 5 “strongly agree”). These involvement items have been repeatedly tested in various settings and showed a satisfactory level of validity and reliability (Kyle, Graefe, Manning and Bacon 2003; Kyle and Mowen 2005; McIntyre and Pigram 1992; Wiely, Shaw and Havitz 2000).

Familiarity

The concept of destination familiarity was measured using six-teen items that were proposed by Prentice (2004). The specific wordings of each item were modified in a way that successfully reflects the study context. The modified version of scale consisted of three dimensions: 1) informational - the extent of sources of information used, 2) experiential - the extent of past experiences, and 3) self-rated - how familiar respondent thought themselves to be with a place. Informational familiarity (nine items) reflects the degree of materials or services through which the respondents have seen or heard about the destination. The items of informational familiarity included travel agency brochures, hotel/motel guidebooks, advertisement in magazines/TV, movies/dramas, articles from newspapers or magazines, maps, books, friends and relatives, internet. These items were measured along a five-point Likert-type scale being

1 “not at all” and 5 “very much”. Experimental familiarity, on the other hand, was measured by two items that indicate the extent of past experience related to Korea. These two items (i.e., numbers of trips to Korea and numbers of Korean friends) were open-ended questions. The level of self-rated familiarity with Korea (five items - language, history, food, lifestyle, and popular culture) was measured using a five-point bipolar scale, with 1 being "not at all familiar" and 5 being "extremely familiar."

Destination image

Destination images the respondents have of Korea were acted as a partial mediator in this study. Both cognitive dimension and affective dimension were measured in this research.

The cognitive dimension of Korea image was measured through items that Baloglu and McClear (1999) developed with slight modification. Their items appear to be suitable for this study as they capture an international destination context. One item “great beaches/water sports,” did not fit into the context of Korea and was excluded from the scale. Respondents were asked to rate Korea as a tourism destination on each of the thirteen attributes on a five-point Likert-type scale (1= “strongly disagree” to 5= “strongly agree”).

This study used affective image items provided by Baloglu and Mangalolu (2001), which was originally developed by Russel and his colleagues (Russel, 1980; Russel and Pratt, 1980; Russel and Snodgrass, 1987). The scale consists of four bipolar items on a five-point semantic differential scale (Baloglu and Brinberg 1997; Balogu and

McCleary 1999; Russell 1980; Russell and Snodgrass 1987). These four items include: arousing-sleepy, exciting-gloomy, pleasant-unpleasant, and relaxing-distressing.

Intention to visit

An intention to visit Korea was acted as a final dependent variable. It was measured by asking respondents to indicate how much you would like to visit Korea in the future via a seven-point bipolar scale, anchored by 1 being "not like to visit to Korea" and 7 being "very much like to visit to Korea."

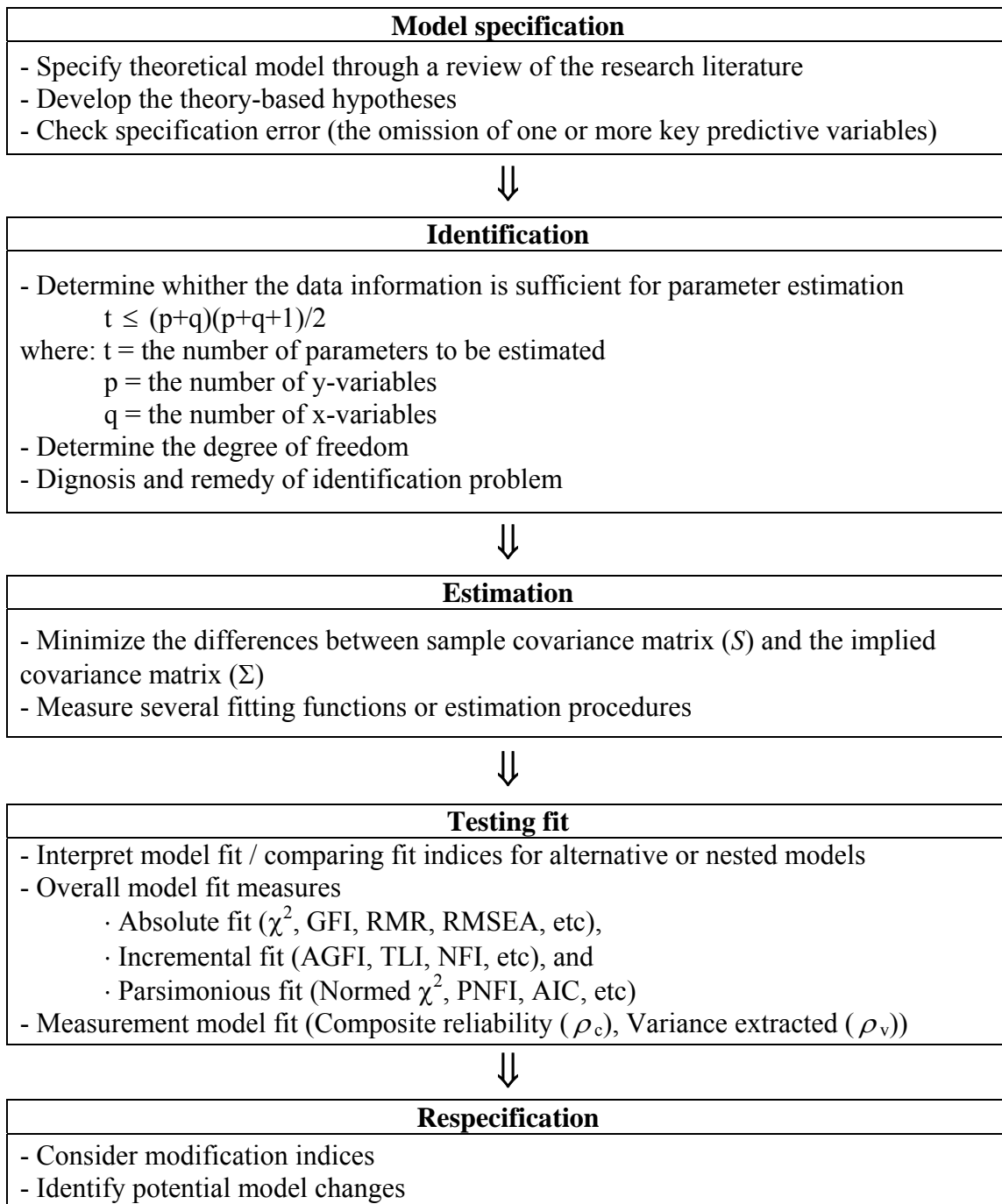
Data Analysis Procedures

The data in this study were analyzed with the Structural Equation Modeling (SEM) using LISREL (version 8.52). Structural equation modeling (SEM hereafter) is a “statistical method that takes a confirmatory (hypothesis-testing) approach to the multivariate analysis of a structural theory bearing on some phenomenon” (Byrne 1994: p.3). SEM is widely used in social science as it combines confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) and regression analysis as a way to model various sociological and psychological relationships (Hoyle 1995; Jöreskog and Sörbom 1996). During the past 25 years, Structural Equation Modeling (SEM) has become a powerful research tool for many social and behavioral scientists.

SEM can be distinguished from the older generations of multivariate procedures in several aspects (Byrne 1994; Kline 1998). First, it takes a confirmatory approach to analyze the data although exploratory analysis can be used in the modeling process.

Secondly, SEM enables researchers to estimate the measurement error whereas conventional multivariate procedures do not allow this measurement error to be assessed. Finally, SEM involves both observed and unobserved (latent) variables, while traditional multivariate techniques are based on observed measurement only. The steps of SEM are shown in Table 3.

In the previous SEM literatures, a number of fit indices have been recommended. Types of Goodness-of-fit criteria and acceptable fit interpretation are shown in Table 4. In this study, goodness of fit indices were chosen following the recommendations of Kline (1998): conventional chi-square test (χ^2), comparative fit index (CFI), Bentler and Bonnett's non-normed fit index (NNFI), and the standardized root-mean square residual (SRMR). It is recommended that the indices of CFI and NNFI (each value) have at least .9 for an acceptable fit (particularly close to or more than .95 for CFI), while an SRMR value of less than .1 indicates an acceptable model fit (Hu and Bentler 1998; Kline 1998).

Table 3. Five steps in Structural Equation Modeling (SEM)

Sources: Diamantopoulos and Siguaw (2000); Hair, Anderson, Tatham and Black (1998); Schumacker and Lomax (1996)

Table 4. Types of goodness-of-fit criteria and acceptable fit interpretation

Goodness-of-fit	Acceptable level	Interpretation
Measures of absolute fit		
Chi-square (χ^2)	Tabled χ^2 value	Compares obtained χ^2 value with table value for given df
Goodness-of-fit (GFI)	0 (no fit) to 1 (perfect fit)	Value close to .90 reflects a good fit
Root-mean-square residual (RMR)	Researcher defines level	Indicates the closeness of Σ and S matrix
Standardized RMR (SRMR)	<.10	Value less than .10 is indicative of acceptable fit
Root-mean-square error of approximation (RMSEA)	<.08	Value less than .05 indicates a good model fit, between .05 and under 0.8 of reasonable fit
Incremental fit measures		
Adjusted GFI (AGFI)	0 (no fit) to 1 (perfect fit)	Value adjusted for df, with .90 a good model fit
Tucker-Lewis index (TLI)	0 (no fit) to 1 (perfect fit)	Value close to .90 reflects a good model fit
Normed fit index (NFI)	0 (no fit) to 1 (perfect fit)	Value close to .90 reflects a good model fit
Comparative fit index(CFI)	0 (no fit) to 1 (perfect fit)	Value close to .90 reflects a good model fit
Parsimonious fit measures		
Parsimonious NFI (PNFI)	It varies from 0 to 1, with 1 = perfect fit	No recommended levels of acceptable fit. Higher values are better
Normed chi-square	1.0 to 5.0	Less than 1.0 is a poor model fit. Higher than 5.0 reflects a need for improvement
Akaike information criterion (AIC)	0 (perfect fit) to positive value (poor fit)	Compares values in alternative models

Sources: Schumacker and Lomax (1996: p.121)

Results

Respondents Profiles

The final data set for the SEM analysis included 403 respondents. Table 5 presents several demographic characteristics of the survey respondents. There was a considerably higher presence of female respondents (82.1%) than male respondents (17.9%) and a higher presence of married (85.3%) than single (14.7%). This disproportionate presence of married women appears to be due to the fact that the popularity of Korean popular culture is not widespread across diverse segments of Japanese. That is, when interviewer approached people at the airport, married women who are supposedly the primary consumers of Korean popular culture were more likely to consent to participate in this study as they tend to have more interest in the issue being explored in the survey. In terms of education, high school graduates constitute the majority (38.0%) of the respondents in this study, followed by 2-year college graduates (34.4%) and 4-year college graduates (20.0%). Despite this slight disproportion, the overall distribution of different age groups seems to be rather evenly represented.

Table 5. Demographic characteristics of respondent

Attribute	Frequency	Percent (%)	SD	Mean
Gender (N=402)			.39	1.82
Male	72	17.9%		
Female	330	82.1%		
Marital Status (N=401)			.36	1.85
Single	59	14.7%		
Married	342	85.3%		
Education (N=395)			1.29	4.38
Sixth grade or less	1	0.3%		
Less than 12 years	8	2.0%		
High school graduate	150	38.0%		
Some college	14	3.5%		
A degree from a 2-year college	136	34.4%		
Graduated from 4-year college	79	20.0%		
Some graduate school	2	0.5%		
A graduate degree	5	1.3%		
Age (N=377)			.89	2.14
Less than 1958	109	28.9%		
1959-1968	131	34.7%		
1969-1978	112	29.7%		
More than 1979	25	6.6%		

Factor Analysis

Principle Component Analysis (PCA) was carried out to reduce the number of variables prior to using SEM. The procedure helps combines variables that were correlated to one another but independent of other subsets of variables into the underlying constructs (Tabachnick and Fidell 2001). A latent root criterion of 1.0 and a factor loading of 0.4 for a factor inclusion with Varimax rotation were utilized for determining the number of sub-constructs. The composite score of each construct was

treated as an indicator that measures latent factors for familiarity and destination image. This procedure is effective in decreasing multicollinearity or error variance correlations among indicators, which is desirable in measurement model analysis. The next step involved testing the overall structural equation model of the relationships among the latent factors.

The SEM process starts with the use of confirmatory factor analysis to assess and re-specify an acceptable measurement model (Hatcher 1994). The Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA) of the measurement model indicates the posited links between the latent variable and their observed measures. When the measurement is found to be an acceptable fit, the causal relationships between the latent variable are tested (Byrne 1994). This two-step modeling approach is helpful because a constructed measurement model indicates the confirmation of acceptable fit to the data and serves as a confirmatory assessment of validity (Anderson and Gerbing 1988; Hatcher 1994).

A confirmatory factor analysis (CFA), which aims to test the theorized relationship between the latent variable and observed variables, was run on the twelve-item celebrity involvement scale. These involvement items have been repeatedly tested in various settings and shown a satisfactory level of validity and reliability (Kyle, Graefe, Manning and Bacon 2003; Kyle and Mowen 2005; McIntyre and Pigram 1992; Wiely, Shaw and Havitz 2000). Consistent with the theorized structure of the scale, the result of the confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) confirmed the three-dimensional approach: 1) attraction, 2) centrality to lifestyle, and 3) self-expression. The Cronbach's alpha were computed and all above .90 (.96 for the attraction, .93 for the centrality, and .95 for the

self-expression dimension, see table 6). All factor loadings were extremely high. The loadings were greater than .80, except for one item (I enjoy discussing Korean stars with my friends). As mentioned before, one of the popular Korean Hallyu stars held his solo concert at Japan during the survey periods. He entered and left Japan through Haneda International airport, which was the survey location of this study. The interviewers had a chance to come into contact with a lot of fan-club members at one time at the airport. Therefore, there might be homogeneity in the sample of this study

A principle component analysis (PCA) was run on the sixteen items that measured destination familiarity. Here there was to assume a priori match between items and dimensions. Factor analysis of the familiarity items resulted in three factors that accounted for 68.29% of the total variance. They were labeled as “informational familiarity” (Factor I), “self-rated familiarity” (Factor II), and “experiential familiarity” (Factor III). Table 7 shows that Eigenvalues of these factors ranged from 1.11 to 8.20 and all factor loadings were greater than .60, indicating a good correlation between the items and the factor on which they were loaded. Cronbach’s alpha coefficients were also analyzed to check the internal consistency of the scale and coefficients were above the satisfactory level (above .70) in “informational familiarity” and "self-rated familiarity". However, “experiential familiarity” showed somewhat low reliability scores (.58). This factor included the smaller number of items in the instrument. It has been shown that as the number of items increases, so does the alpha value; and acceptable levels of alpha values can be as low as .50 for instruments with few items (Carmines and Zeller 1979). All sixteen original items, thus, were retained in the destination familiarity scale.

Table 6. Properties of the measurement model for leisure involvement

Constructs and Indicators	Mean	SD	Std Loading	t^a	R²
Factor I. Attraction ($\alpha=.96$)					
Korean stars are very important to me	3.18	1.03	.87	12.64	.77
Activities that involve Korean stars offer me relaxation when pressures build up	3.05	1.06	.93	11.17	.86
Participating in activities that involve Korean stars is one of the most satisfying things I do	2.97	1.14	.96	7.77	.93
I really enjoy participating in activities which involve Korean stars	3.07	1.09	.92	11.56	.84
Factor II. Centrality ($\alpha=.93$)					
I find a lot of my life is organized around activities that involve Korean stars	2.54	1.13	.94	10.79	.88
Activities that involve Korean stars have a central role in my life	2.46	1.17	.94	10.24	.89
I enjoy discussing Korean stars with my friends	3.26	1.10	.73	13.65	.54
Most of friends are in some ways connected in activities related to Korean stars	2.52	1.14	.92	11.59	.85
Factor III. Self-expression ($\alpha=.95$)					
Participating in activities that involve Korean stars says a lot about who I am	2.39	1.06	.92	11.27	.85
You can tell a lot about people by seeing them participating in activities that involve Korean stars	2.60	1.04	.87	12.61	.76
When I participate in activities that involve Korean stars I can really be myself	2.57	1.13	.94	10.02	.89
When I participate in activities that involve Korean stars others see me the way I want them to see me	2.42	1.04	.92	11.53	.84

^a All t-tests were significant at $p<0.01$

Table 7. Scale items used to measure familiarity constructs

Variables	Mean	SD	Factor loading	Eigen value	% of Variance
Factor I. Informational Familiarity ($\alpha=.94$)				8.204	51.27
Advertisement in magazines or TV	2.98	1.14	.827		
Articles from newspapers/magazines	2.97	1.16	.817		
Movies/dramas/other media products	2.90	1.18	.806		
Travel agency brochures	2.66	1.22	.778		
Hotel/motel guidebooks	2.26	1.19	.765		
Books	2.25	1.22	.765		
Word of mouth information from friends and relatives	2.78	1.28	.728		
Maps of South Korea	2.08	1.13	.721		
Internet	2.37	1.37	.699		
Factor II. Self-rated Familiarity ($\alpha=.88$)				1.619	10.12
History of Korea	1.81	.94	.812		
Korean language	1.59	.93	.787		
Lifestyle of Korea	2.19	1.04	.768		
Korean food	3.08	1.11	.689		
Popular culture of Korea	2.08	1.05	.656		
Factor III. Experiential Familiarity ($\alpha=.58$)				1.105	6.90
How many trips have you taken to Korea?	1.64	1.17	.859		
How many Korean friends do you have?	1.60	1.01	.781		
Total variance explained					68.29

To assess the construct validity of the cognitive image scale, a principle component analysis with varimax rotation was used to identify underlying constructs of thirteen items. Table 8 presents the results of the analysis. Two underlying dimensions were identified. They were labeled “community amenities” (Factor I) and “natural/cultural attractions” (Factor II). The two cognitive image factors accounted for 70.14% of total variability. The first factor explained 60.26%; and the second factor explained 9.88%. The scale reliabilities were .93 and .90, respectively.

Table 8. Scale items used to measure cognitive image constructs

Variables	Mean	SD	Factor loading	Eigen value	% of Variance
Factor I. Community Amenities ($\alpha=.93$)				7.833	60.26
Personal safety	3.60	1.04	.867		
Suitable accommodations	3.65	.96	.859		
Good quality of transportation	3.57	.90	.801		
Appealing local food (cuisine)	4.14	.88	.758		
Standard hygiene and cleanliness	3.38	.93	.730		
Good value for travel expenditures	3.85	.85	.714		
Interesting and friendly people	3.54	.90	.611		
Factor II. Natural/Cultural Attraction ($\alpha=.90$)				1.284	9.88
Interesting cultural attractions	3.27	.79	.851		
Interesting historical attractions	3.27	.80	.811		
Good nighttime entertainment	3.26	.78	.785		
Beautiful scenery/natural attractions	3.63	.83	.723		
Good climate	3.35	.74	.625		
Unpolluted/unspoiled environment	3.30	.84	.601		
Total variance explained					70.14

For the further SEM analysis, subscale scores were computed by summing scores for individual items based on these results. The summation of scores helps reduce the number of variables in each factor. The new variables through this reducing process were included as indicators in the further analyses.

The Measurement Model

Maximum likelihood estimation was employed to estimate the measurement model using LISREL (Version 8.52). The covariance matrix to be analyzed for testing the measurement model is shown in Table 9. The matrix was based on the 403 complete cases.

Table 9. Covariance matrix for the measurement model (N=403)

	V1	V2	V3	V4	V5	V6	V7	V8	V9	V10	V11	V12	V13
V1	.63												
V2	.54	.80											
V3	.38	.53	.77										
V4	.40	.56	.64	.81									
V5	.26	.33	.40	.40	.59								
V6	.21	.26	.27	.29	.38	.43							
V7	.35	.43	.47	.46	.37	.31	.95						
V8	.26	.30	.32	.29	.22	.22	.54	.69					
V9	.23	.25	.31	.27	.18	.13	.39	.37	.81				
V10	.60	.72	.78	.78	.65	.53	.94	.66	.57	2.64			
V11	.26	.35	.39	.38	.23	.33	.60	.41	.32	.94	1.03		
V12	.25	.32	.39	.39	.26	.34	.59	.40	.30	1.01	.90	1.06	
V13	.20	.25	.28	.29	.20	.34	.48	.35	.21	.81	.80	.92	1.00

Keys: V1= Gloomy-exciting; V2= Distressing-relaxing; V3= Unpleasant-pleasant; V4= Sleepy-arousing; V5= Community amenities; V6= Natural/cultural attractions; V7= Informational familiarity; V8= Self-rated familiarity; V9=Experiential familiarity; V10= Revisit intention; V11= Attraction; V12=Centrality; V13=Self-expression

The overall measurement quality was checked through confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) (Anderson and Gerbing 1992). Overall, a model fit for the measurement model was good (Bentler's comparative fit index [CFI] = .96; Bentler and Bonnett's non-normed fit index [NNFI] = .94; standardized RMR [SRMR] = .052). Both CFI and NNFI were greater than .90 and SRMR was smaller than .10.

Reliability is related to the degree to which the measurement items yield consistent and identical results over repeated measures (Hair et al 1998). The reliability for each construct was assessed via Cronbach's Alpha and composite reliability. As shown in Table 10, the Cronbach's Alphas (α) were all greater than the recommended level of .70 (Nunnally 1978). In addition, the composite reliability indices of each latent factor, which ranged from .78 to .95, were above the recommended level of .70 (Bagozzi 1980). (see Table 10 and APPENDIX II). This suggests that the measures are internally consistent.

The convergent validity, which refers to the agreement among indicators of a scale, was also tested using confirmatory factor analysis (CFA). The significant factor loadings for a specified construct present evidence supporting the convergent validity (Bagozzi, Yi and Philips 1991). The results show that all indicators are loaded significantly on their construct (at the level of .05). This suggests that the specified indicators are sufficient in their representation of the constructs.

Table 10. Measurement parameter estimates

Constructs and Indicators	Standardized loadings	t-value	R-squared	Composite reliability (ρ_c)
Celebrity Involvement ($\alpha = .94$)				.95
Attraction	.87	12.29	.76	
Centrality	.99	1.96	.98	
Self-expression	.90	11.11	.82	
Familiarity ($\alpha = .77$)				.78
Informational familiarity	.89	6.30	.78	
Self-rated familiarity	.75	11.24	.57	
Experiential familiarity	.54	13.31	.30	
Affective Image ($\alpha = .89$)				.89
Gloomy / Exciting	.70	12.95	.49	
Distressing / Relaxing	.81	11.59	.66	
Unpleasant / Pleasant	.88	9.66	.77	
Sleepy / Arousing	.88	9.44	.78	
Cognitive Image ($\alpha = .85$)				.86
Community Amenities	.90	4.95	.81	
Natural/Cultural Attractions	.83	8.39	.69	
Intention to Visit Korea				1.00

Note 1: N = 403; All t-values are significant at $p < .05$.

The discriminant validity of each construct was, then, assessed. The discriminant validity refers to the degree to which measures of different concepts are distinct; if two or more concepts are unique, then measures of each should not correlate well. That is, the discriminant validity is achieved when measures for different constructs are not strongly correlated among themselves. The discriminant validity was measured by comparing the variance-extracted (ρ_v) and the squared latent factor correlation (Φ) between a pair of constructs (Fornell and Lacker 1981; Hatcher 1994; Petrick 2002). All

latent variables used in this study had discriminant validity in that the variance-extracted (ρ_v) is greater than the squared correlations (Φ) (see table 11). That is, the different constructs are indeed mutually distinctive from each other. These results show that the proposed measurement model is appropriate for further analysis.

Table 11. Correlation estimates (Φ)

Variable	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	Variance Extracted (ρ_v)
(1) Involvement	-					.85
(2) Familiarity	.69	-				.55
(3) Affective image	.61	.70	-			.68
(4) Cognitive image	.67	.62	.59	-		.75
(5) Intention to visit Korea	.66	.47	.45	.61	-	

The Structural Model

The structural model was tested next (see figure 3 on p. 65). Table 12 presents standardized path coefficients resulting from testing the proposed structural model. The goodness of fit indices (Chi-square = 359.52, df = 66, $p < .001$; Bentler's comparative fit index [CFI] = .96; Bentler and Bonnett's non-normed fit index [NNFI] = .94; standardized RMR [SRMR] = .05) supports the appropriateness of the structural model. Most structural path estimates are significant (support was found for two of the ten hypothesized paths). The signs of structural paths are consistent with the hypothesized relationships among the latent variables. The model explains 44% of the variance associated with destination familiarity, 47% of the variance associated with affective

image, 52% of the variance associated with cognitive image, and 55% of the variance associated with intention to visit.

Table 12. Structural path estimates

Paths	Estimates	t-value
Direct effects		
H1: Celebrity involvement → Intention to visit	.27	5.38*
H2a: Celebrity involvement → Affective image	.04	0.56 ^{n.s.}
H2b: Celebrity involvement → Cognitive image	.07	1.14 ^{n.s.}
H3: Affective image → Cognitive image	.53	7.34*
H4a: Affective image → Intention to visit	.20	3.01*
H4b: Cognitive image → Intention to visit	.18	3.04*
H5: Celebrity involvement → Familiarity	.66	12.94*
H6a: Familiarity → Affective image	.66	8.31*
H6b: Familiarity → Cognitive image	.20	2.39*
H7: Familiarity → Intention to visit	.25	3.44*
Indirect effects		
Celebrity involvement → Affective image	.44	7.19*
Celebrity involvement → Cognitive image	.38	7.14*
Celebrity involvement → Intention to visit	.34	7.74*
Familiarity → Cognitive image	.35	6.21*
Familiarity → Intention to visit	.23	5.34*
Affective image → Intention to visit	.09	2.81*
Goodness-of-fit indices		
Chi-square = 359.52, df = 66, p < .001		
CFI = .96		
NNFI = .94		
SRMR = .05		
R²		
Familiarity = 44%		
Affective image = 47%		
Cognitive image = 52%		
Intention to visit = 55%		

* p < .05; n.s. = non significant

Figure 3 (p. 65) shows the results of several hypothesis tests. Overall, there is a strong support for the positive effects of celebrity involvement on various destination perceptions. H1 postulates the positive relationship between celebrity involvement and intention to visit the destination. As hypothesized, celebrity involvement had significantly positive effects on intention to visit (H1: $\gamma_{11} = .27$, t-value = 5.38). The respondents with a high level of involvement with a Korean celebrity are also likely to report a high level of intention to visit Korea.

H2 (H2a and H2b), which stated there would be a positive direct relationship between celebrity involvement and destination images (affective image and cognitive image) was not supported in this study (H2a: $\gamma_{12} = .04$, t-value = .56; H2b: $\gamma_{13} = .07$, t-value = 1.14). The results show that the level of celebrity involvement influences neither affective nor cognitive images of Korea. That is, the respondents who are more involved with a Korean celebrity do not necessarily have better or worse images of Korea than the ones who are less involved with a Korean celebrity. Although the impact of the direct relationship between celebrity involvement and destination image was not significant, it is important to note that there were significant indirect effects between these two variables. A more detailed explanation for the possible causes for this rather unexpected result is presented in the discussion section.

H3 posits that affective image is positively related to cognitive image. As hypothesized, the result shows that there is a significantly positive relationship between affective image and cognitive image (H3: $\beta_{32} = .53$, $t\text{-value} = 7.34$). Thus, H3 was supported. Although both components of destination images are conceptually distinct, the empirical results from many previous studies show that those are closely interconnected. The results from this study also show that the respondents who have positive affective image of Korea are also likely to have a similar level of positive cognitive image of Korea.

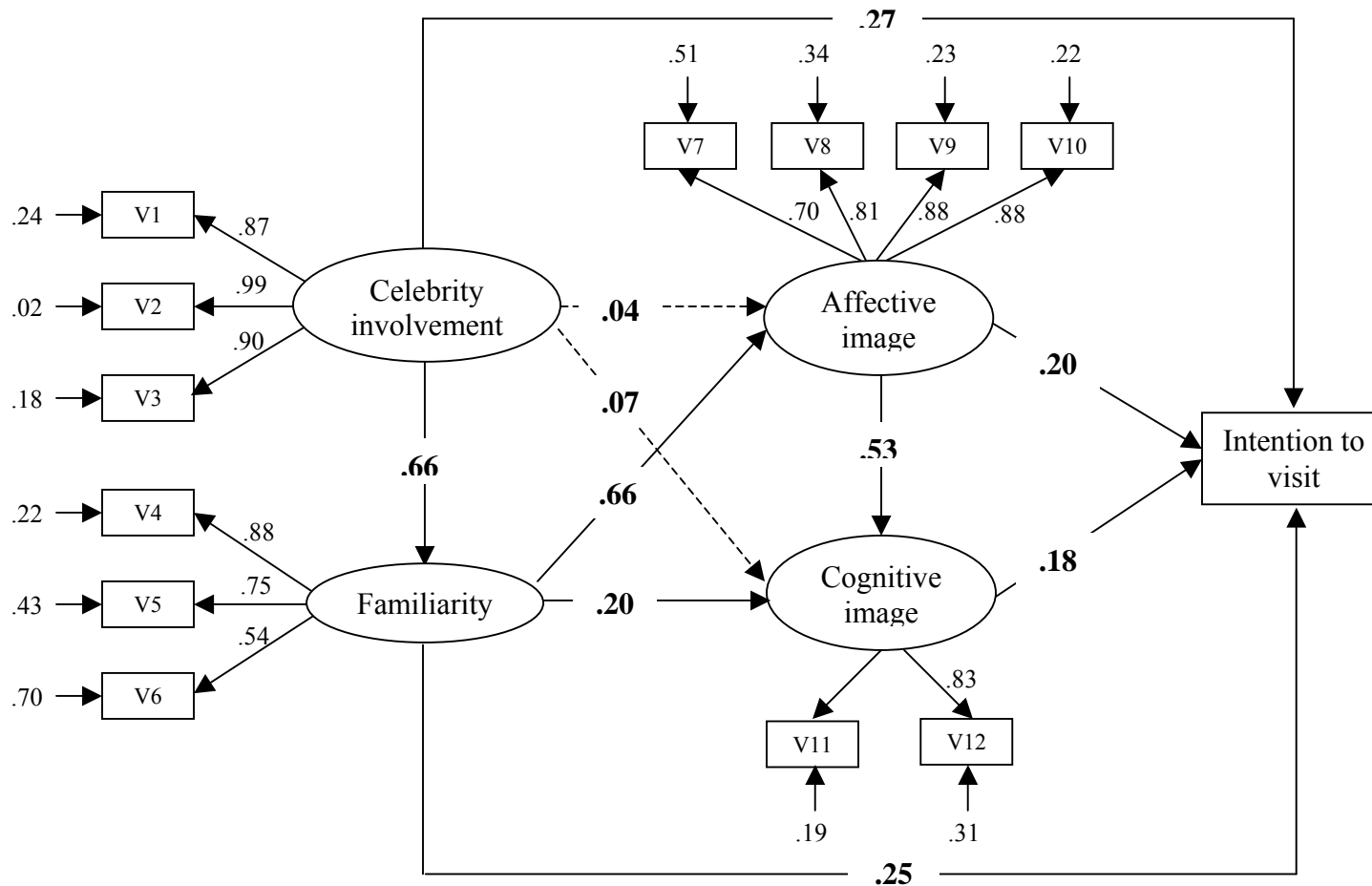
H4 states that destination images have a positive effect on intention to visit. The result shows that the effect of both affective image (H4a: $\beta_{12} = .20$, $t\text{-value} = 3.01$) and cognitive image (H4b: $\beta_{13} = .18$, $t\text{-value} = 3.04$) on intention to visit was significantly positive. As a result, H4a and H4b were accepted in this study. Put differently, the respondents of this study who have positive affective and/or cognitive image of Korea would more like to visit Korea in future. This implicitly supports much literature suggesting that destination images are one of the most important factors in tourist destination choice.

H5 postulates the positive relationship between celebrity involvement and destination familiarity. As hypothesized, celebrity involvement had significantly positive effects on destination familiarity (H5: $\gamma_{14} = .66$, $t\text{-value} = 12.94$). The respondents who are highly involved with a Korean celebrity tend to indicate a high level of familiarity with Korea.

H6 posits that destination familiarity is positively associated with destination image. Consistent with previous studies, this study shows that destination familiarity has a significantly positive effect on destination images: affective image (H6a: $\beta_{24} = .66$, $t\text{-value} = 8.31$) and cognitive image (H6b: $\beta_{34} = .20$, $t\text{-value} = 2.39$). Therefore, H6a and H6b were supported. This means that the respondents who are highly familiar with Korea are more likely to have a positive image of Korea.

H7 postulates the positive relationship between familiarity and intention to visit. The result shows that the level of destination familiarity had a positively significant effect on intention to visit (H7: $\beta_{14} = .25$, $t\text{-value} = 3.44$). Hence, H7 was accepted within this study. This suggests that the respondents who are highly familiar with Korea tend to have a high level of intention to visit Korea in future. This result is consistent with much literature advocating the positive relationship between destination familiarity and likelihood to visit the destination.

The total effects of the structural equation model can be divided into direct and indirect effects on the basis of its intercorrelated relationships. According to Bollen (1989), an identification of indirect effects can help assess whether the secondary effects strengthen or moderate structural associations between the latent variables. That is, the indirect effects can provide additional insights not detectable in the examination of direct effects only. While the direct effects can be found in the results from LISREL (see figure 3), the calculation of indirect effects is done by multiplying structural coefficient among latent variables that are mediated by at least one other variable. Total effects are attained by adding direct and indirect effects. Table 13 reports the total effects consisting of direct and indirect effects in this structural equation model. Although the effects of the direct structural path between celebrity involvement and affective image were not significant in the model, it is important to notice that there were significant indirect effects between the two latent variables that are mediated by familiarity. A similar pattern was found in the causal relationship between celebrity involvement and cognitive image. It appears that celebrity involvement's role in shaping destination images is an indirect one. That is, celebrity involvement contributes to familiarity which, in turn, affects destination images.



Keys: V1=Attraction; V2=Centrality; V3=Self-expression; V4=Informational familiarity; V5=Self-rated familiarity; V6=Experiential familiarity; V7= Gloomy-exciting; V8= Distressing-relaxing; V9= Unpleasant-pleasant; V10= Sleepy-arousing; V11= Community amenities; V12= Natural/cultural attractions

Note: Dashed lines indicate paths that were not significant at .05

Figure 3. Standardized structural path coefficients

Table 13. Direct, indirect and total effects of proposed latent variables

	Familiarity			Destination image						Intention to visit		
				Affective image			Cognitive image					
	Direct	Indirect	Total	Direct	Indirect	Total	Direct	Indirect	Total	Direct	Indirect	Total
Celebrity involvement	.66	-	.66	.04	.43	.47	.07	.38	.45	.27	.34	.61
Familiarity				.66	-	.66	.20	.35	.55	.25	.22	.47
Affective image							.53	-	.53	.20	.09	.29
Cognitive image										.18	-	.18

Discussion

In recent years, the effects of mass media on tourism have received much attention among tourism scholars (Beeton 2001a; 2001b; 2004; Busby and Klug 2001; Kim and Richardson 2003; Riley, Baker and Van Doren 1998). Previous studies confirmed the positive relationship between mass media programs (e.g., films and soap opera) and audiences' image, familiarity, and frequency of visit to a filmed location (Frost 2004; Kim and Richardson 2003; Mercille 2005; Mordue 2001; Riley and Van Doren 1992; Torchin 2002). However, the role of celebrities in forming the perceptions of a destination has rarely been examined. This study contends that a celebrity (e.g., actor/actress, singer, and model) is not just a famous individual adored by the mass but is actually a messenger of various information, meaning, and value. A celebrity exerts considerable power in shaping audience's attitude, belief, thought, and perception of an object and a place that are associated with the celebrity. The symbolic properties that a celebrity possesses (e.g., cool, smart, and gentle) can be transferred to various objects or a place that he/she represents via mass media programs.

The main purpose of this study was to investigate how people's involvement with a celebrity influences their perceptions of tourism destinations. A theoretical model was generated that incorporated the interrelationships between the level of celebrity involvement and destination related perceptions. The model was tested using data collected at a major airport in Japan and examined Japanese perceptions of Korea in relation to their involvement with Korean celebrities.

The level of celebrity involvement was positively related to destination familiarity and visitation intentions. The results also indicated destination images and destination familiarity were positively related to visitation intentions. The positive association between affective images and cognitive images was empirically supported as well. However, contrary to expectations, the posited relationship between the level of celebrity involvement and destination images was not empirically supported.

Theoretical and Marketing Implications

The findings from this study have several theoretical implications. First of all, this study contributed to bridging the concept of leisure involvement to celebrity fandom. Previous studies tended to view fandom as a psychopathological phenomenon that is associated with various socially denigrated behaviors while overlooking the leisure components that constitute the major aspect of the phenomenon. The present study attempted to apply the concept of leisure involvement in understanding the celebrity fandom. That is, the celebrity fandom was viewed in this study as a type of leisure activity. People's attachment to a celebrity, for this reason, can be examined from the perspective of leisure involvement that consists of three dimensions (i.e., attraction, centrality and self-expression). Further, as the celebrity involvement was determined as an antecedent to various tourism destination perceptions, this study provided an opportunity to view diverse aspects of celebrity fandom and helped expand the potential usage of the concept in exploring other celebrity associated tourism phenomena.

Second, this study helped better understand the concept of destination familiarity. There has been little consensus on the conceptualization and operationalization of the destination familiarity in the tourism literature. Although much of early literature focused only on the behavioral aspects of the concept, recent studies advocate for a multidimensional (Baloglu 2001; Prentice 2003; 2004). This study attempted to incorporate diverse aspects of the destination familiarity concept in measurement. Hence, the utilization of such multi-dimensional construct contributed to a more accurate measurement of the concept, which eventually helps better determine its relationship to other destination constructs. Destination familiarity is believed to be an important factor that affects one's perceptions toward a destination and his/her destination choices (Kim and Richardson 2003; Prentice 2004). Future research should pay more attention to drawing a consensus on the meaning of the concept and attempt to incorporate diverse dimensions of destination familiarity in examining destination image formation and travel destination choices.

Third, this study offered some empirical support for the idea that celebrity involvement can significantly influence perceptions (i.e., familiarity and intention to visit) of the destination closely related to the celebrity--even though the direct impact of celebrity involvement on destination images was not found. The meaning transfer process proposed in this study is partially supported. That is, the results from this study support the contention that the traits of celebrity can actually help fans shape their perceptions of the destination associated with the celebrity. Celebrities are the cultural icons that can act as a proxy for shaping the perceptions and needs of many audience

members in a postmodern society. In the context of destination marketing, this study argues for the significant role of celebrity as an important destination attribute that contributes to the construction destination perceptions in the minds of people who have a great deal of interest in the celebrity.

Fourth, this study failed to provide evidence for the linkage between the celebrity involvement and destination images. On the one hand, this rather unexpected result may be due to the distance between Japan and Korea. Studies have shown that geographic proximity affects the formation of destination images (Crompton 1979). Thus, people who live close to another country may have more opportunities to learn about that place via diverse communication channels, which helps shape solid organic images of the destination. Japan and Korea are in close proximity to one another and have a long history together. It could be that Japanese have well-structured images of Korea. With the advent of Information Age, it is likely that the organic images are more stabilized and intensified than before via diverse direct and indirect communication channels. In that sense, the power of celebrities in shaping destination images may be less significant particularly within this study context (Japanese evaluation of Korea). It can be argued that the impacts of celebrities on tourism destination seem to be greater when the audiences have a limited exposure to the destination associated with the celebrities. Future research, therefore, should incorporate the mediating role of destination distance into the present model that bridges celebrity involvement and destination images.

On the other hand, celebrity involvement indirectly influenced destination images via the destination familiarity. That is, the destination familiarity played a mediating role

in linking celebrity involvement and destination images. This finding shed new lights on the mechanism of “meaning transfer process.” It may be that the aura of a celebrity does not directly transfer to the respondents’ mental images of destinations. In fact, the perceived aura of a celebrity seems to act as a driving force to *make them collect more information about the destination*. The increased familiarity, in turn, provides them a chance to reconstruct their images of the destination. Although this proposed mechanism of the meaning transfer process appears to be plausible, more research endeavor should be made to better capture the underlying process of human perception in relation to the celebrity involvement.

Fifth, the results of this study supported the positive impacts of destination familiarity on both destination images and intention to visit the destination. The more familiar a destination is, the more attractive it is. This finding supports other studies (Kim and Richardson 2003; Mackay and Fesenmaier 1997; Prentice and Andersen 2000). However, the role of novelty frequently emphasized in tourism motivation seems to contradict the results from this study (Lee and Crompton 1992). Much literature suggests that both familiarity and novelty play an important role in determining destination images and intention to visit. It seems odd that the two opposite factors often generate the similar results. Although the concept of novelty was not examined in this study, it may be that the prominence of each factor varies in accordance with the travel context and the characteristics of the study subjects. Future research should explore the conditions that are responsible for the prominence of the two opposite variables (familiarity and novelty) in tourism destination image and decision making process.

Next, this study confirmed the positive impacts of destination images on interest in visiting the destination. As people have more positive images of a destination, their intention to visit the destination becomes higher. This result is consistent with the findings of previous research (Court and Lupton 1997; Kim and Richardson 2003; Lee, Lee, and Lee 2005). The finding suggests that destination image, as well as familiarity with the destination, is a significant factor that affects destination choice process.

Finally, this study supports a positive causal relationship between attitudes and behavior which is the epitome of the planned behavior theory. The theory of planned behavior suggests that individuals' behavioral intention is likely to be determined by their attitudes toward the behavior, subjective norms, and perceived behavioral control. The behavioral intention, then, leads to actual behavior (Ajzen and Driver 1992). Somewhat consistent with the predictions postulated by the theory, this study showed that the level of attachment (attitude) toward a selected celebrity via the positively formed images of the place tends to significantly affect their intention to visit the country with which the celebrity is associated.

From the marketing perspective, this study illustrated that the level of familiarity and interest in visiting the destination can be enhanced via a symbolic involvement with the celebrity. Celebrities, as shown in this study, can be an effective promotional tool that facilitates a sequencing process of awareness, familiarization, and persuasion. In terms of familiarization function, it should be noticed that the destination familiarity constructed through a favored celebrity is different from the one that can be attained through commercial advertisement or other promotional agents. Although not explored

in this study, the destination familiarity constructed through a human (e.g., celebrity) connection seems to have a positive emotional component in it because of the romanticized features of the celebrity that are supposedly transferred to the destination. Whereas, the familiarity constructed through a rather mechanic marketing communication appears to be less powerful in creating such positive emotional components in it. It is, therefore, important for marketers to maintain the aura of celebrity that helps create affectionate familiarity of the destination, and more frequently utilize human icons in promoting a destination. A carefully constructed special event that involves celebrities may be a useful tool to enhance the affectionate familiarity with the destination.

In a post-industrial society driven by popular culture, celebrities are moving icons that instantly draw people's attention and actual visitation to the place they appear. With the increasing circulation of popular culture worldwide, the socio-cultural and political power of celebrities who constitute an integral part of cultural products will become even greater in the future. Destination marketers should be more attentive to the iconic power of celebrities when promoting destinations.

Limitations

Some research limitations of this study are worth noting. First of all, this study did not take the role of geographic distance into account within the conceptual framework. It is possible to infer that geographic distance might affect destination perceptions such as destination image, familiarity, and intention to visit. For this reason, the impacts of

geographic distance on one's destination perceptions should be analyzed in future research to fully comprehend people's destination image formation and destination choice process.

Second, this study failed to consider the developmental aspects of leisure involvement with a celebrity because of the cross-sectional research design. It is logical to assume that one's level of involvement with a celebrity undergoes several developmental stages as illustrated by the concept of recreation specialization (Bryan 1977; Ditton, Loomis and Choi 1992). Thus, a longitudinal research design may be efficient to capture the varying nature of celebrity involvement and subsequently changing perceptions toward the destination. A qualitative research that involves participant observation and in-depth interview may be another alternative research strategy that helps understand a contextualized relationship between the celebrity involvement and destination perceptions.

Third, this study used a convenience sample from an airport due to time and financial constraints. The sample utilized in this study does not necessarily represent the population in Japan in a statistical sense. Thus, the external validity of this study may be low. A caution should be made to generalize the findings from this study. Future research should employ a representative sample in order to enhance the external validity of the study results.

Lastly, this study was conducted in Japan, and the generalization of findings from this study should be limited to Japanese population. Nonetheless, it is important to note that the popularity of Korean celebrities is not necessarily limited to Japan but also very

high in other Asian countries (e.g., China, Taiwan, Hong Kong, and other Southeast Asian nations). Given that it is a transnational socio-cultural phenomenon, similar findings can be expected from other study settings where the popularity of Korean celebrities is high. However, it is deemed appropriate that future research be conducted in more diverse countries in order to empirically validate such conjectures.

CHAPTER III
UNDERSTANDING THE PROCESS OF
CELEBRITY FAN'S CONSTRAINT NEGOTIATION

Introduction

During the past two decades, the concept of involvement has drawn considerable attention from researchers in several disciplines such as psychology, consumer behavior, and leisure/tourism (Funk, Ridinger and Moorman 2004; Havitz and Dimanche 1997; Havitz and Howard 1995; Kim, Scott and Crompton 1997; Kyle and Chick 2002). Previous studies in the field of leisure studies have shown that level of leisure involvement influences one's length and frequency of leisure participation (Havitz and Howard 1995; Park 1996; Schuett 1993; 1995; Venkatraman 1988), expenditures related with a chosen leisure activity (Bloch 1993; Siegenthaler and Lam 1992), information search behaviors (Ditton, Loomis and Choi 1992; Watkins 1986), intentions to participate in a chosen leisure activity (Kim et al. 1997; McCarville, Crompton and Sell 1993; Norman 1991), preferences for service providers (Gahwiler and Havitz 1998; Iwasaki and Havitz 2004), and place attachment to recreational settings (Bricker and Kerstetter 2000; Kyle, Graefe, Manning and Bacon 2004). Although these studies demonstrate that involvement can serve as an important antecedent for many leisure behaviors and experiences, its application seems to be limited to several conventional leisure and recreation activities. It is argued in this study that the concept of leisure involvement has broader ramifications for diverse range of leisure pursuits such as celebrity fandom.

Conceptualizing celebrity fandom in terms of leisure involvement, this study examines its effectiveness in relation to other psychological constructs within the constraints-effects-mitigation model proposed by Hubbard and Mannell (2001).

Fandom refers to a state of profound attention and adulation toward an activity or a product that is expressed in feelings, attitudes, and behaviors. Even though involvement has received extensive theoretical and empirical attention over the past 20 years, its application to fandom has gone virtually ignored. Only two empirical studies by Funk, Ridinger and Moorman (2004) and Kerstetter and Kovich (1997) have approached (sports) fandom as a type of leisure (enduring) involvement. The range of fandom activities as a leisure pursuit is extremely broad, including watching TV programs related to one's favorite stars, discussing one's favorite stars with other people, participating in fan meetings, and purchasing items associated with one's favorite stars. The association between fandom and leisure involvement is more evident from the perspective of serious leisure. For instance, Gibson, Wilming and Holdnak's (2002) study of University of Florida football fans illustrates that the fandom toward a sports team is a highly involved leisure pursuit. Although fans of a sports team have been examined in previous leisure literature (Gibson et al 2002; Jones 2000), fans of a media celebrity/star have never been investigated using the concept of leisure involvement. The present study attempts to help understand this seemingly neglected research area that links the conceptual connection between celebrity fandom and leisure involvement.

The proposed study also aims to bridge the concept of leisure motivation and leisure involvement. There appears to be a conceptual parallel between leisure

involvement and motivation although this possibility has not been tackled systematically. Leisure involvement often refers to an “unobservable state of motivation, arousal or interest toward a recreational activity or associated product. It is evoked by a particular stimulus or situation and has drive properties (adapted from Rothschild 1984)” (Havitz and Dimanche 1997: 246). Laurent and Kapferer also (1985) suggested that involvement is actually a motivating variable that drives people to behave or to make certain decisions. As reflected in the definitional perspective, the concept of leisure involvement contains a strong component of “motivation” that directs people’s leisure behavior. Examining the definition of leisure motivation makes this connection more evident. According to Mannell and Kleiber (1997), leisure motivation refers to “internal psychological factors that impel people to action and that give direction to that action in the form of participation in a specific leisure activity” (p. 187). As shown in these two definitions, both concepts are believed to act as *driving forces* with regard to leisure.

Some researchers have argued that motivation serves as an antecedent of involvement (Funk, Ridinger and Moorman 2004; Iwasaki and Havitz 2004). However, these authors have not clearly defined what leisure motivation is and their measurement of leisure motivation and involvement is quite similar. In Hubbard and Mannell’s (2001) study, leisure motivation was measured with two items (i.e., enjoyment/pleasure and health benefits). These items are a part of the Personal Involvement Index (PII) developed by Zaichkowsky (1985). This interchangeable usage of measurement items reinforces the conceptual similarity between the two concepts.

For this reason, the present study attempts to apply the concept of leisure involvement in place of leisure motivation to test the constraint-effects-mitigation model (mitigation model hereafter), which was strongly supported by Hubbard and Mannell (2001). The mitigation model proposed by Hubbard and Mannell (2001) suggests that people who encounter leisure constraints experience reduced leisure participation. The model also posits that people who encounter leisure constraints seek to skirt these constraints by engaging in negotiation behaviors. The model further holds that leisure motivation has a strong positive influence on efforts to negotiate the constraints encountered by the participants. Having noticed the conceptual similarity between leisure motivation and leisure involvement, this research hopes to demonstrate the efficacy of leisure involvement within the mitigation model which used to put leisure motivation as a primary antecedent (instead of leisure involvement) in Hubbard and Mannell's original work. Plus, the possible causal linkage between the leisure involvement and negotiation process, which has never been examined previously, will be incorporated into this modified mitigation model.

This study makes significant contributions to existing leisure literature. First of all, this study will help expand the applicability of leisure involvement concept within the context of media celebrity fandom, which has never been tackled in the field of leisure studies (despite its increasing significance in a contemporary mass media driven society). This study also helps test the utility of leisure involvement in place of motivation within the context of the constraint-mitigation model. This study, thus, contributes to understanding the empirical and conceptual similarity between the two constructs, which

have their own developmental history in leisure literature. Lastly, this research contributes to clarifying the possible association between leisure involvement and negotiation processes, which in turn helps make this mitigation model more comprehensive.

Literature Review

Involvement in the Consumer Behavior Literature

The concept of involvement has been widely used in consumer behavior research because of its strong association with consumers' behaviors and attitudes, including information searching, forms of information used, and decision making processes (Laurent and Kapferer 1985; Rothschild 1984). Despite this increasing popularity of the involvement concept in the literature, there seems to be little consensus on how to conceptualize it. Houston and Rothschild (1978) proposed three types of involvement: situational, enduring, and response. Situational involvement indicates consumers' relevance to a product. It results from a situation that evokes an individual's concern for his/her behavior when making various decisions. Enduring involvement refers to an individual's ongoing orientation towards a product. Lastly, response involvement is a combined consequence between situational involvement and enduring involvement. Stone (1984), on the other hand, identified two types of involvement. One is related to mental states. The other one is related to behavior. Recent literature in both consumer behavior and leisure studies tends to reject the behavioral conceptualization of involvement in favor of one that gives primacy to mental states. Behavior is felt to be an

antecedent or consequence of involvement (Rothschild 1984). In consumer behavior literature, the most widely accepted conceptualization of involvement refers to a psychological state of motivation, arousal, or interest between individual and a product (Laurent and Kapferer 1985); this conceptualization provided a basis for the concept of leisure involvement that emerged afterwards. Other researchers also maintain that involvement represents an internal state that reflects the amount of arousal, interest, or drive evoked by a particular stimuli or situation that mediates consumer behavior (Funk et al 2004; Mitchell 1979). As shown in these conceptualizations, it is clear that a motivational property as an internal psychological factor is integral feature of leisure involvement. Both involvement and motivation are considered to be driving (or pushing) forces for diverse behaviors.

Involvement in the Leisure Literature

The study of involvement in the field of leisure and tourism originated from the consumer behavior literature (Havitz and Dimanche 1997). Researchers considered leisure and tourism to be an expression of one's value or pleasure through high involvement in a leisure/tourism activity. Adopting Rothschild's (1984) definition of consumer involvement, Havitz and Dimanche (1997) suggested that involvement is an "unobservable state of motivation, arousal or interest toward a recreational activity or associated product. It is evoked by particular stimulus or situation and has drive properties. In other words, leisure involvement refers to how we think about our leisure

and recreation, and it affects on our behavior” (p. 256). Therefore, it can be said that leisure involvement plays a pivotal role in understanding diverse leisure behaviors.

Involvement studies in leisure and recreation settings have focused on the impacts of involvement on leisure participants’ attitudes and behaviors. Often treated as a psychological antecedent of diverse leisure attitudes and behaviors, it is known to influence the length and frequency of activity participation (Havitz and Howard 1995; Park 1996; Schuett 1995; Venkatraman 1988), engagement in other activity related behaviors such as club membership and magazine subscription (Bloch, Black and Lichtenstein, 1989; Kyle, Kerstetter and Guadagnolo, 2002; Schuett, 1993), information search behaviors (Watkins 1986), and expenditures associated with a chosen leisure activity (Bloch 1993; Siegenthaler and Lam 1992). Also, it has been found that the level of leisure involvement positively influences the preferences and evaluation of the related components of leisure activity (e.g., service providers, facilities, and place attachment) (Gahwiler and Havitz 1998; Havitz, Dimanche and Bogle, 1994; Iwasaki and Havitz 2004; Kyle, Bricker, Graefe and Wickham 2004; Kyle et al 2002; 2004; Kyle and Mowen 2005; McCarville et al 1993) and future intentions to participate in a chosen leisure activity (Kim et al 1997; McCarville, et al. 1993; Norman 1991).

It is generally acknowledged that leisure involvement is a multidimensional construct (Havitz and Dimanche, 1997; Kim et al. 1997; McIntyre and Pigram 1992). Previous studies on this subject have consistently identified three dimensions of involvement – *attraction*, *centrality*, and *self-expression* – that are particularly salient within leisure and tourism settings. Attraction refers to the perceived importance or

interest in an activity or a product, and the pleasure or hedonic value derived from participation or use. Thus, it can be conceived of as a combination of pleasure and importance. Centrality indicates that other aspects of an individual's life are centered on a given leisure activity. According to Scott and Shafer (2001), centrality means "that a person's lifestyle, personal identity, and social networks are constructed around the leisure activity" (p. 330). The last dimension, self-expression (symbolic or sign value attributed by the consumer to the product, its purchase, or its consumption), underscores the extent to which a leisure activity provides an opportunity to express a desired image. These three dimensions represent conceptually distinct aspects of leisure involvement. Combined together, it can provide insight into the overall relevance or meaning of an activity in the context of the individual's life (Wiley, Shaw, and Havitz, 2000).

The case of celebrity involvement

The majority of involvement research has focused only on activities or products as an object of involvement. It is logical to view celebrities as a source of leisure activity or product. A celebrity can become a powerful object of leisure involvement for some fans (see figure 4). Currently, there is no published research that deals with leisure involvement as celebrity fandom. However, literature in the field of sport fandom provides a link to understand the association between leisure involvement and celebrity fandom. The concept of sports fandom has emerged as a way to understand individuals' involvement with iconic figures. For instance, Kerstetter and Kovich's (1997) study of fan behaviors for women's basketball is an intriguing attempt to understand the sports

fandom in light of leisure involvement. Their research might be the first attempt to conceptualize fandom (the avid interest in a sports team) as a type of leisure involvement. As previous research on leisure involvement tends to view only conventional leisure activities (e.g., climbing, hiking, bird watching, etc.) as an object of leisure involvement, Kerstetter and Kovich's study help expand the applicability of leisure involvement concept to an area that has drawn limited interest from leisure researchers. As the concept deals with individual's involvement with a sporting team or athlete, it bares considerable similarity to individuals' attraction to celebrities in other domains such as movies and music.

Similar to sports' fans studied in previous literature, celebrity fans not only devote their time and money to celebrity related activities (e.g., watching exciting movies/TV programs related to one's favorite celebrity, participating in the celebrity's fan meetings, and purchasing items associated with the celebrity), but also become emotionally attached to the celebrity. For avid fans, doing things related to their favorite celebrities becomes a part of everyday life to the point at which becomes a major part of their self-identity (e.g., identification as a fan of the celebrity). It is proposed in this study that the behaviors of celebrity fans can be effectively understood using the concept of involvement as is the case with avid sports fans. The following section provides a detailed discussion of celebrity involvement as it relates to constraints and motivations.



Figure 4. Frenzied celebrity fans at Narita International Airport in Tokyo, the capital city of Japan

Conceptual Framework

A Proposed Research Model

This study proposes relationships among celebrity involvement, constraints, constraints-negotiation, and participation in a given leisure activity (i.e., celebrity fandom activity). Basically, this research follows the mitigation model proposed by Hubbard and Mannell (2001) except this study substitutes celebrity involvement in place of leisure motivation. The motivation construct that Hubbard and Mannell (2001) applied is similar to the involvement construct in definition and measurement. Both involvement and motivation are believed to act as driving forces for leisure behaviors although this conceptual and operational similarity has not been empirically examined. It may well be that the involvement construct will provide key insights into our understanding of relationships among frequency of leisure participation, leisure constraints, and leisure negotiation.

The interrelationships of the study constructs are shown in the model below. Specifically, the proposed model (figure 5) suggests that the perceived constraints influence one's negotiation strategies and frequency of participation in a chosen leisure activity. It is also proposed that celebrity involvement influences one's probability to utilize constraints-negotiation strategies, and frequency of participation in a given leisure activity. The detailed linkage between these constructs is further explained in the following section.

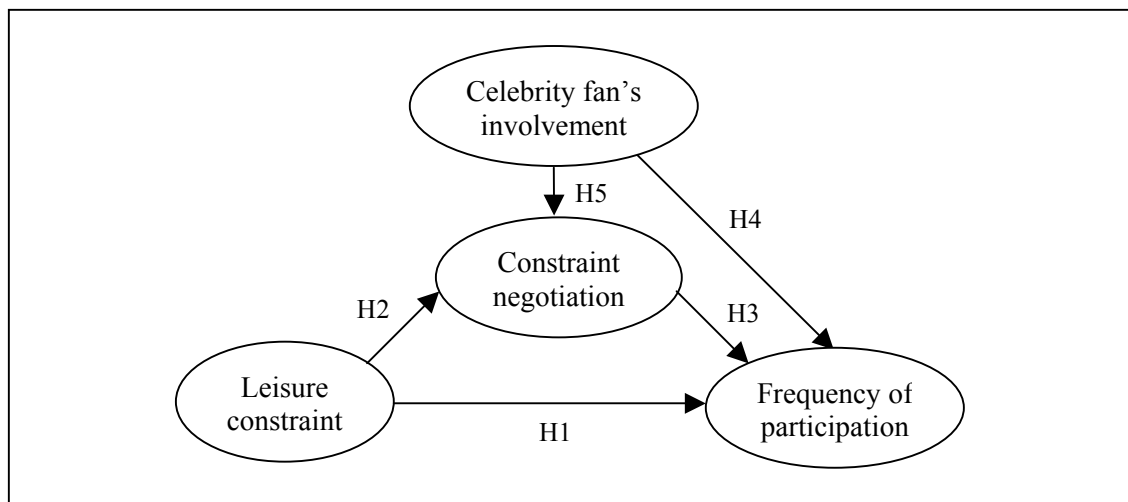


Figure 5. A proposed model of leisure constraint negotiation process among celebrity fans

Leisure constraints refer to factors that make leisure participation difficult (Jackson, Crawford and Godbey 1993). Over the last two decades, leisure constraints research has become one of the most researched topics in leisure studies (Jackson and Scott 1999). The research on this issue has made a significant contribution to understanding various leisure behaviors in terms of categorizing non-participants and participants, explaining participants' characteristics, and asking why people do not participate in leisure activities or use leisure services (Crawford and Godbey 1987; Jackson and Searle 1985). Moreover, it is often argued that there are extensive background factors that affect peoples' perceived leisure constraints. These factors include gender (Alexandris and Carroll 1997; Fredric and Shaw 1995; Henderson 1991; 1994; Henderson and Allen 1991; Henderson, Bialeschki, Shaw and Freysinger 1996; Henderson, Stalnaker and Taylor 1988; Shaw 1994), race/ethnicity (Floyd 1999; Floyd,

Gramann and Saenz 1993; Gobster 2002; Gobster and Delgado 1993; Gramann and Allison 1999; Shinew, Floyd and Parry 2004; Washburne 1978), socio-economic status (Bultena and Field 1978; Kelly 1980; 1983; Lucas 1990), and age (Fleisher and Pizam 2002; Grant 2001; McGuire, Dottavio and O’Leary 1986; Raymore and Scott 1998; Witt and Goodale 1981).

Typologies of leisure constraints have been developed by several researchers, and the three major categories of constraints (i.e., intrapersonal, interpersonal, and structural constraints) initially identified and introduced by Crawford and Godbey (1987) have become broadly embraced and adopted by leisure researchers (Jackson and Scott 1999). Intrapersonal constraints are concerned with individual psychological conditions (e.g., personality factors, attitudes, and moods). Interpersonal constraints arise from social interaction with others, such as family members, friends, coworkers and neighbors. Structural constraints include lack of money, time scarcity, and availability of opportunity. This study follows the intrapersonal – interpersonal – structural classification proposed by Crawford and Godbey (1987) as a useful categorization of leisure constraints.

In general, perceived leisure constraint is conceptualized as having a negative impact on frequency of participation. Several empirical studies have provided evidence that there is significantly negative relationship between these two constructs (Alexandris and Carroll 1997; Carroll and Alexandris 1997; Hawkins, Peng, Hsieh and Eklund 1999; Jackson and Witt 1994; Raymore, Godbey and Crawford 1994; Raymore, Godbey, Crawford and von Eye 1993; Samdahl and Jekubovich 1997). Furthermore, it is argued

that perceived leisure constraints can be utilized as an effective indicator to predict participation and non-participation. Therefore, the first hypothesis states:

Hypothesis 1: Perceived leisure constraints will negatively influence frequency of participation in chosen leisure activities.

Despite the body of literature arguing for the negative impacts of constraints on the participation rate in a given leisure activity, the relationship between perceived leisure constraints and frequency of participation is still a controversial issue. It was generally accepted, in early constraints studies, that non-participation in leisure activities stemmed directly from the effects of constraints. However, at the beginning of 1990s the concept of leisure constraints underwent a major challenge. Several researchers started to notice that people's participation in leisure activity was not always determined by constraints they faced (Kay and Jackson 1991; Shaw, Bonen and McCabe 1991). It was further argued that people who do participate in leisure activities are often as constrained as those who refrain from participation. Furthermore, constraints were not overwhelming barriers to participation in leisure activities, but rather that they can be successfully negotiated (Jackson et al. 1993). Negotiation processes, thus, were seen as partially offsetting the effects of constraints.

Constraints negotiation refers to “the strategies people use to avoid or reduce the impact of the constraints and barriers to leisure participation and enjoyment” (Mannell and Kleiber 1997: 341). The idea of constraints negotiation is consistent with the social cognitive view that people actively respond to constraints (circumstances that hamper their goals) by negotiation, rather than passively accepting them and not participating.

Hubbard and Mannell (2001) showed that constraints generally had a negative effect on participation in leisure activities, but they sometimes stimulated negotiation strategies/resources. For instance, when leisure participants face interpersonal constraints, such as lack of leisure partners and disapproval of family members, they sometimes actively seek out leisure partners and extend the social network revolving around the chosen leisure pursuit.

Jackson et al (1993) extended the hierarchical leisure constraints model (Crawford, Jackson and Godbey 1991) by developing six propositions that hypothesized how individuals could negotiate through the leisure constraints they encounter. According to their proposition 1, “leisure participation is dependent not on the absence of constraints (although this may be true for some people) but on negotiation through them. Such negotiations may modify rather than foreclose participation” (p. 4). This proposition has been repeatedly supported by studies (Frederick and Shaw 1995; Henderson, Bedini, Hecht and Schuler 1995; Henderson and Bialeschki 1993; Jackson and Rucks 1995; Hubbard and Mannell 2001).

Furthermore, Jackson et al (1993) made a large contribution toward the negotiation research in terms of suggesting the existence of *cognitive* and *behavioral* negotiation strategies. Cognitive strategies are largely based on the cognitive dissonance reduction mechanism; unselected or constrained activity alternatives are devalued and are no longer seen as interesting. Behavioral strategies include taking alternative actions in relation to the chosen leisure activity (e.g., making an effort to learn about other leisure opportunities, altering the timing and frequency of participation, and learning new leisure

skills) and changing other aspects of lifestyle (e.g., spending less time at work).

Behavioral strategies are further divided into two categories. One category involves modifications to *non-leisure aspects* of one's life in order to accommodate leisure needs (e.g., re-scheduling other activities, cutting back on other expenses). The other category could encompass modifications to *leisure itself* (e.g., efforts to enhance awareness of opportunities, alterations in the timing or frequency of participation, including delayed or reduced participation, and changes in the level of specialization). Consistent with the classification advanced by Jackson et al (1993), Jackson and Rucks (1995) distinguished constraint negotiation approaches (by Junior-high and high-school students) as cognitive strategies (e.g., pushing themselves harder and ignoring parents) and behavioral strategies (e.g., modifying the use of time and acquiring skills). Negotiation strategies to adapt or alleviate leisure constraints can be either cognitive or behavioral, but the majority of individuals who negotiate constraints appear to do so behaviorally (Jackson et al 1993; Jackson and Rucks 1995). Congruence between leisure constraints and constraints negotiation tactics seems to be an important condition if participation in a chosen leisure activity is to occur (Jackson and Rucks 1995; Mannell and Lucks-Atkinson 2005). For instance, the negative impacts of the most frequently mentioned structural constraint (lack of time) would be alleviated to a great extent via time management negotiation strategies (Mannell and Loucks-Atkinson 2005).

Since it was recognized that leisure constraints do not always lead to non-participation, several leisure researchers have identified constraints negotiation strategies employed by people (e.g., acquisition of information, skill development, time and

financial management, and interpersonal coordination) (Coble, Selin and Erickson 2003; Frederick and Shaw 1995; Henderson et al 1995; Henderson and Bialeschki 1993; Hubbard and Mannell 2001; Jackson and Rucks 1995; Livengood and Stodolska 2004; Scott 1991). Furthermore, the types of negotiation strategies people employ have been examined in accordance with different group of people (e.g., women, people with disabilities, and adolescent girls) and the unique leisure constraints they encounter (Auster 2001; Henderson et al 1995; Henderson and Bialeschki 1993; Little 2002; Whyte and Shaw 1994).

As shown, constraints negotiation strategies appear to be important in facilitating leisure participation as they may constitute direct responses to leisure constraints. Thus, people tend to negotiate instead of simply stop participating in a given leisure activity when they encounter constraints. This recognition helps explain the unexpected non-correlation between some constraints and actual leisure participation (Kay and Jackson 1991; Shaw et al 1991) and even a positive relationship in one study (Shaw et al 1991).

Hypothesis 2: Perceived leisure constraints will positively influence constraints negotiation strategies used by individuals.

Hypothesis 3: Leisure constraints negotiation strategies used by individuals will positively influence the frequency of participation in a chosen leisure activity.

Havitz and Dimanche (1997) suggested the leisure involvement construct highlights one's interest level and motivational state to participate in a given leisure activity. As Havitz and Dimanche (1997) pointed out, a motivational component is almost universally present across various conceptualizations of leisure involvement.

Both the concept of involvement and motivation share great similarity in terms of definition, conceptualization, and measurement (see previous sections for the detailed comparisons). Both constructs are seen to be driving forces that direct one's degree of participation in a given leisure activity. Despite this conceptual and operational parallel, involvement and motivation have been independently used in the field of leisure studies. The proposed study attempts to illustrate this seemingly obvious interchangeability of the two variables by substituting the concept of leisure motivation with the leisure involvement in the mitigation model.

The concept of leisure involvement, mentioned previously, is shown to be a driving force that may influence participants' behaviors or experiences in a chosen leisure activity. Indeed, there is vast support for the idea that leisure involvement explains one's leisure behavior and perceived experience in regard to the selected leisure activities (Bloch et al 1989; Havitz and Dimanche 1990; Manfreda 1989; Mannell 1980; McIntyre 1989; Neulinger 1974; Park 1996; Selin and Howard 1989; Venkatraman 1988; Wakins 1986). Several studies have demonstrated there is a positive relationship between one's level of leisure involvement and frequency of participation in a chosen leisure activity (Ap, Dimanche and Havitz 1994; Bloch et al 1989; McCarville 1991; Park 1996; Schuett 1993; Venkatraman 1988). This finding is not surprising given that the concept of involvement infers a motivational and attitudinal state, which is accepted as an influential antecedent of behavior in the psychology literature. Drawing from these accumulated studies, the next hypothesis states:

Hypothesis 4: Celebrity involvement will positively influence the frequency of participation in chosen leisure activities.

Although it has not been empirically examined, there seems to be a strong conceptual linkage between celebrity involvement and constraints negotiation. The possible linkage between the two concepts is more evident when viewed from the perspective of serious leisure. The concept of serious leisure, mainly developed by Stebbins (1982; 1992; 1993; 2001), indicates a state of high involvement in a chosen leisure activity. As celebrity involvement is understood within the framework of low-to-high continuum, the concept of serious leisure can be juxtaposed to its conceptual counterpart casual leisure, which indicates a state of low involvement in a given leisure activity.

Among the six unique qualities that characterize serious leisure, a quality of perseverance is a useful feature that may help explain the relationship between a state of high involvement and constraint negotiation. Serious leisure participants (similar to highly involved individuals in a chosen leisure activity) often encounter diverse forms of adversity to their continuous engagement in a chosen leisure activity. Distinguished from casual leisure participants, they are not likely to discontinue participation but to persevere through the difficulties (i.e., leisure constraints).

Several studies of serious leisure, indeed, have identified several forms of perceived leisure constraints: intrapersonal, interpersonal and structural constraints although those constraints were never expressed in such academic terms. For instance, Stebbins (1992) contended that some intrapersonal constraints (e.g., personal

disappointments, tensions and dislikes) are commonly experienced by serious leisure participants. Baldwin and Norris (1999), through the study of the serious leisure experience for American Kennel Club activity participants, documented structural constraints (e.g., monetary and time constraints) and intrapersonal constraints (e.g., negative emotional experiences) that stemmed from sustaining a “dog person” lifestyle. Further, interpersonal constraints, such as conflicts between family members who do not share the same interest in the chosen leisure pursuit, are commonly documented (Baldwin and Norris 1999; Gillespie, Leffler and Lerner 2002; Kim 2004). When faced with these constraints, serious leisure participants tend to use both cognitive and behavioral negotiation strategies (e.g., highlighting the benefits followed by the selected leisure activity, persuading the conflicting parties, saving time and money from other domains of life) in order to sustain their participation in the leisure activity. It is clear from these studies that serious leisure participants actively utilize negotiation strategies when they encounter constraints. Given that serious leisure is a state of high involvement in a chosen leisure activity, it can be postulated that highly involved individuals in a given leisure activity are more likely to use negotiation strategies than less involved individuals. Thus, the following hypothesis states:

Hypothesis 5: Celebrity involvement will positively influence the constraint negotiation strategies used by individuals.

Research Methods

Measurement of Variables

Leisure involvement (IV)

Leisure involvement acts as an independent variable. The level of leisure involvement with Korean stars/celebrities by mass media was measured using the scale originally proposed by McIntyre and Pigram (1992). It is a three dimensional model (i.e., attraction, centrality, and self-expression) supported by numerous studies in terms of validity and reliability (Dimanche, Havitz and Howard 1991; Havitz and Dimanche 1997; Kyle, Graefe, Manning and Bacon 2003; Kyle and Mowen 2005; McIntyre and Pigram 1992; Wiely, Shaw and Havitz 2000). The leisure involvement was measured by asking respondents to indicate how they feel about leisure activity (in this study, doing activities with Korean stars) via a five-point Likert type scale. A total of 12 items were used to measure individual's leisure involvement with Korean stars/celebrities. The items of leisure involvement in this study are shown in Table 14.

Table 14. Items of leisure involvement

Types of involvement	Items
Attraction	Korean stars are very important to me Activities that involve Korean stars offer me relaxation when pressures build up Participating in activities that involve Korean stars is one of the most satisfying things I do I really enjoy participating in activities which involve Korean stars
Centrality	I find a lot of my life is organized around activities that involve Korean stars Activities that involve Korean stars have a central role in my life I enjoy discussing Korean stars with my friends Most of friends are in some ways connected in activities related to Korean stars
Self-expression	Participating in activities that involve Korean stars says a lot about who I am You can tell a lot about people by seeing them participating in activities that involve Korean stars When I participate in activities that involve Korean stars I can really be myself When I participate in activities that involve Korean stars others see me the way I want them to see me

Leisure constraint (IV)

Leisure constraints were measured by asking respondents to indicate how important 18 factors are in limiting their participation in fan activities. The items of leisure constraints were developed on the basis of previous studies (Alexandris, Tsorbatzoudis and Grouios 2002; Carroll and Alexandris 1997; Hubbard and Mannell 2001; Jackson and Witt 1994; Kim, Scott and Oh 2005; Nadirova and Jackson 2000; Shinew et al 2004). These constraints items included intrapersonal (6 items), interpersonal (6 items), and structural constraint (6 items). The intrapersonal –

interpersonal – structural classification was proposed by Crawford and Godbey (1987) as a useful categorization of leisure constraints. A five-point Likert-type scale was used (1 = “not important” to 5 = “very important”). The items used to measure leisure constraints are shown in Table 15.

Table 15. Items of leisure constraints

Types of constraints	Items
Intrapersonal constraint	Too shy to participate in fan activity Fear that other would make fun of me A feeling that fan activity would not be appropriate for my age, gender and social status Feeling guilty about doing fan activities Lack of energy Feeling uncomfortable about other fans' behaviors
Interpersonal constraint	Lack partners Too busy with family responsibilities Schedule conflicts between partners Lack of close family and friends' approval Family members or me are in poor health The people I know who participate in fan activities live or work too far away
Structural constraint	Not having enough money Not having enough time Too many other things to do Lack of information about fan activities Lack of transportation Lack of equipment (e.g., multimedia systems, computers, and cameras)

Constraint negotiation (MV)

Constraint negotiation was measured by asking respondents to indicate what types of things they do to overcome constraints on their leisure/recreation (within the context of fan behavior). Items of constraints negotiation are developed using a number of published sources (Jackson and Rucks 1995; Henderson et al 1995; Henderson and Bialeschki 1993; Mannell and Hubbard 2001). Building on the existing literature, the constraint negotiation items in this research included intrapersonal constraint negotiation (6 items), interpersonal constraint negotiation (6 items), and structural constraint negotiation for doing activities with one's favorite stars (6 items). A five-point Likert-type scale was used with values ranging from 1 (not at all) to 5 (very much). The measurement items of leisure constraints negotiation are shown in Table 16.

Frequency of leisure participation (DV)

Frequency of leisure participation acts as the final dependent variable. Leisure activities related to stars/celebrities include watching the movies/TV programs related to one's favorite stars, participating in the stars' fan meetings, getting information about one's favorite stars' through internet, news articles, and magazine, talking about one's favorite stars with other people, and purchasing items associated with the stars. To measure frequency of participating in fan activities related to favorite stars, respondents were asked how often they have participated in different aspects of fan activities within the past year. A six-point scale determines the frequency of leisure participation: 1 = "daily or nearly everyday"; 2 = "at least once a week"; 3 = "at least once a month"; 4 =

“at least once a year”; 5 = “less than once a year”; and 6 = “never or almost never”. The measurement items of participation in fan activities are shown in Table 17. For the directional consistency, the items of leisure participation were reverse coded.

Table 16. Items of constraints negotiation

Types of negotiation	Items
Intrapersonal constraint negotiation	I try not to let my shyness get in the way of participating in fan activities I try not to be bothered by what other people think about me I swallow my pride and do the best I can I try to overcome negative feelings that might inhibit fan activities I try to save energy for fan activities I try not to be bothered by other fans' behaviors
Interpersonal constraint negotiation	I try to find people with similar interests. I try to better organize family responsibilities. I try to solve scheduling conflicts among partners. I persuade close people (family and friends) to participate in fan activities with me I encourage family members to live a healthy lifestyle I find ways to interact with people who live or work far away
Structural constraint negotiation	I try to budget my money for fan activities I try to budget my time for fan activities I try to better organize what I have to do I get more information about fan activities I try to work out my transportation problems to participate in fan activities I buy or borrow equipment to participate in fan activities

Table 17. Items of frequency of leisure participation

Items	
Over the last 12 months, how often have you...	Watched movies/TV programs related to your favorite stars? Participated in your favorite stars' fan meetings? Gotten information about you favorite stars through internet, news articles, and magazines? Talked about your favorite stars with other people? Purchased items associated with your favorite stars?

Data Collection

A direct, face-to-face survey methodology was used in this study. The survey was conducted on-site with visitors on both weekdays and weekends (June 2 - 8, 2006). Questionnaires were administered at the main exit of Haneda international airport in Tokyo, the capital city of Japan. Three field researchers, all fluent in Japanese, approached potential respondents, outlined the purpose of the research project, and invited them to participate in the survey. After consenting, a self-administered questionnaire was presented to each respondent to complete. Further, the questionnaires were completed in the presence of the field researchers, allowing for rigorous monitoring of the data collection process. Korean traditional souvenirs/gifts were distributed to the respondents in order to enhance the response rate. A total of 403 useable questionnaires were attained at the end of the survey.

Data Analysis

Structural Equation Modeling (SEM hereafter), using LISREL (version 8.52), was used in this study. The SEM process begins with the use of Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA) to verify the theorized relationships between observed variables to the latent variables. It is suggested that CFA is performed on each latent variable with more than three observed variables (Anderson and Gerbing 1988). All constructs (i.e., leisure involvement, leisure constraints, constraints negotiation, and frequency of leisure participation) were the latent variables with more than four observed variables. Therefore, the use of CFA on these all constructs was appropriate. Once the measurement fit was shown to be acceptable, hypotheses were tested as specified in the structural model (Byrne 1994). Standardized path coefficients between the variables were examined to test each hypothesis proposed in this model.

Results

Factor Analysis

Confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) was carried out to reduce the number of variables prior to using structural equation modeling (SEM). For SEM analysis, subscale scores of factor analysis were computed by summing scores for individual items. The summation of scores helps reduce the number of variables in each factor. The new variables through this reducing process were included as indicators in the further SEM analyses.

The result of the Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA) confirmed the theorized latent leisure involvement model, which is a three-dimensional approach with attraction, centrality to lifestyle, and self-expression. As shown in Table 18, the Cronbach's coefficient alphas (α s) for the reliability were .96 for the attraction, .93 for the centrality, and .95 for the self-expression dimension. The composite reliabilities (ρ_c) were .95 for the attraction, .94 for the centrality, and .95 for the self-expression dimension. All Cronbach's coefficient alphas (α s) were above .90.

Next, a confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) was run on the eighteen items of leisure constraints scale. Consistent with the theorized structure of the scale, the result of the confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) supported the three-dimensional approach: 1) intrapersonal constraints, 2) interpersonal constraints, and 3) structural constraints. The Cronbach's coefficient alphas (α s) of all three factors were .90 (see table 19). These three dimensions were above the satisfactory level.

Table 18. Properties of the measurement model for celebrity involvement

Constructs and Indicators	Mean	SD	Std Loading	t	R²
Factor I. Attraction ($\alpha=.96$)					
Korean stars are very important to me	3.18	1.03	.87	12.64	.77
Activities that involve Korean stars offer me relaxation when pressures build up	3.05	1.06	.93	11.17	.86
Participating in activities that involve Korean stars is one of the most satisfying things I do	2.97	1.14	.96	7.77	.93
I really enjoy participating in activities which involve Korean stars	3.07	1.09	.92	11.56	.84
Factor II. Centrality ($\alpha=.93$)					
I find a lot of my life is organized around activities that involve Korean stars	2.54	1.13	.94	10.79	.88
Activities that involve Korean stars have a central role in my life	2.46	1.17	.94	10.24	.89
I enjoy discussing Korean stars with my friends	3.26	1.10	.73	13.65	.54
Most of friends are in some ways connected in activities related to Korean stars	2.52	1.14	.92	11.59	.85
Factor III. Self-expression ($\alpha=.95$)					
Participating in activities that involve Korean stars says a lot about who I am	2.39	1.06	.92	11.27	.85
You can tell a lot about people by seeing them participating in activities that involve Korean stars	2.60	1.04	.87	12.61	.76
When I participate in activities that involve Korean stars I can really be myself	2.57	1.13	.94	10.02	.89
When I participate in activities that involve Korean stars others see me the way I want them to see me	2.42	1.04	.92	11.53	.84

Note: All indicators are significant at $p < .01$
 α = Cronbach's coefficient alpha

Table 19. Properties of the measurement model for leisure constraints

Constructs and Indicators	Mean	SD	Std loading	t	R²
Factor I. Intrapersonal constraint ($\alpha = .89$)					
Too shy to participate in fan activities	1.95	1.12	.81	11.97	.66
Fear that other would make fun of me	1.78	1.03	.85	11.11	.73
A feeling the fan activities would not be appropriate for my age, gender, and social status	1.87	1.03	.85	11.16	.72
Feeling guilty about doing fan activities	1.68	.95	.78	12.41	.61
Lack of energy	2.20	1.21	.66	13.31	.43
Feeling uncomfortable about other fan' behavior	2.08	1.16	.64	13.38	.41
Factors II. Interpersonal constraint ($\alpha = .89$)					
Lack of partners	2.19	1.33	.72	13.17	.52
Too busy with family responsibilities	2.54	1.40	.65	13.51	.42
Schedule conflicts between partners	1.97	1.11	.87	11.24	.76
Lack of close family & friends' approvals	1.95	1.15	.87	11.17	.76
Family members or me are in poor health	1.76	1.02	.62	13.60	.39
The people I know who participate in fan activities live or work too far away	1.79	1.10	.86	11.42	.75
Factor III. Structural constraint ($\alpha = .90$)					
Not having enough money	2.23	1.22	.79	12.56	.62
Not having enough time	2.45	1.37	.72	13.13	.52
Too many other things to do	2.68	1.40	.62	13.57	.38
Lack of information about fan activities	2.13	1.17	.85	11.71	.71
Lack of transportation	1.88	1.05	.82	12.09	.68
Lack of equipment (e.g., multimedia systems, computers, and cameras)	1.85	1.04	.86	11.26	.75

Note: All indicators are significant at $p < .01$
 α = Cronbach's coefficient alpha

A confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) also supported the three sub-dimensions of constraints negotiation scale: 1) intrapersonal constraints negotiation, 2) interpersonal constraints negotiation, and 3) structural constraints negotiation. As shown in Table 20,

the Cronbach's coefficient alphas (α s) were between .91 and .96. These are all above the satisfactory level.

Table 20. Properties of the measurement model for constraints negotiations

Constructs and Indicators	Mean	SD	Std Loading	t	R ²
Factor I. Intrapersonal negotiation ($\alpha = .95$)					
I try not to let my shyness get in the way of participating in fan activities	2.00	1.13	.90	11.63	.80
I try not to be bothered by what other people think about me	2.04	1.12	.84	12.68	.71
I swallow my pride and do the best I can	2.06	1.19	.81	13.02	.65
I try to overcome negative feelings that might inhibit fan activities	1.93	1.05	.89	11.91	.79
I try to save energy for fan activities	1.98	1.14	.90	11.69	.80
I try not to be bothered by other fans' behaviors	1.93	1.08	.89	11.84	.79
Factor II. Interpersonal negotiation ($\alpha = .91$)					
I try to find people with similar interests	2.17	1.24	.91	12.37	.83
I try to better organize family responsibility	2.21	1.23	.84	13.30	.71
I try to solve scheduling conflicts among partners	2.09	1.21	.93	11.65	.87
I persuade close people (family and friends) to participate in fan activities with me.	1.98	1.24	.81	13.49	.66
I encourage family members to live a healthy lifestyle	2.63	1.50	.46	14.08	.21
I find ways to interact with people who live or work far away	1.97	1.20	.90	12.62	.81
Factor III. Structural negotiation ($\alpha = .96$)					
I try to budget my money for fan activities	2.04	1.21	.91	12.29	.84
I try to budget my time for fan activities	2.03	1.18	.93	11.77	.87
I try to better organize what I have to do	2.31	1.30	.84	13.33	.70
I get more information about fan activities	2.15	1.29	.92	12.24	.84
I try to work out my transportation problems to participate in fan activities	1.93	1.09	.87	13.07	.75
I buy or borrow equipment to participate in fan activities	1.86	1.08	.86	13.17	.74

Note: All indicators are significant at $p < .01$
 α = Cronbach's coefficient alpha

The Measurement Model: Reliability and Validity of the Scales

Maximum likelihood estimation was used to estimate the measurement model using LIRSEL (version 8.52). Table 21 is the covariance matrix used to test measurement model. It was based on the 403 completed cases. (Among the 450 usable cases, 47 cases were dropped because one or more variables were missing.)

Following Anderson and Gerbing's (1988) recommendation, the properties (reliability and validity) of measurement model were assessed before estimating the structural paths to test the hypothesized relationships between the latent variables. Goodness of fit indices determines if the model being tested should be accepted or rejected. Jaccard and Wan (1996) recommend the use of at least three fit tests. Similarly, Kline (1998) recommends at least four tests. Following their recommendations, this study reports several indices as a measure of fit: chi-square (χ^2), Bentler's comparative fit index (CFI), Bentler and Bonnett's non-normed fit index (NNFI), goodness-of-fit-index (GFI), and standardized root-mean-square residual (SRMR).

Table 21. Covariance matrix

	V1	V2	V3	V4	V5	V6	V7	V8	V9	V10	V11	V12	V13	V14
V1	1.00													
V2	.89	1.12												
V3	.90	1.06	1.17											
V4	.08	.08	.12	.12										
V5	.64	.76	.82	.31	3.07									
V6	.31	.35	.42	.30	1.02	1.25								
V7	.74	.90	.99	.42	2.32	1.43	3.28							
V8	.57	.64	.74	.36	2.28	1.13	2.49	2.77						
V9	.27	.26	.32	.21	1.09	.67	1.19	1.15	1.03					
V10	.25	.25	.32	.21	1.02	.66	1.13	1.08	.90	1.06				
V11	.17	.14	.20	.16	.74	.51	.81	.81	.80	.92	1.00			
V12	.47	.43	.43	-.01	.20	-.04	.10	.14	-.01	.02	.00	.76		
V13	.48	.56	.53	-.04	.17	-.06	.10	.04	-.07	-.04	-.07	.64	.91	
V14	.45	.52	.48	-.06	.20	-.09	.09	.09	-.05	-.05	-.08	.64	.78	.98

Keys: V1= Intrapersonal negotiations; V2=Interpersonal negotiations; V3=Structural negotiations; V4=Programs watching; V5=Fan meetings; V6=Celebrity information obtaining; V7=Talking; V8=Purchasing items; V9=Attraction; V10=Centrality; V11=Self-expression; V12=Intrapersonal constraints; V13=Interpersonal constraints; V14=Structural constraints

Chi-square statistics show the most basic index that reflects the sample size and the value of the maximum likelihood fitting function. CFI indicates the portion in the improvement of the overall fit of the researcher's model to a null model. NNFI is an index that adjusts the overall portion of explained variance for model complexity. GFI indicates the proportion of the observed covariances explained by the model covariances. SRMR indicates a standardized summary of the difference between the observed and model-implied covariance. Previous literature recommends that a value greater than .90 in CFI, NNFI, and GFI shows an acceptable fit, while an SRMR of less than .10 indicates an acceptable fit (Schumacker and Lomax 1996; Kline 1998).

Confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) was used to examine the adequacy of the measurement model on convergent validity, discriminant validity, and reliability. An examination of the measurement model showed a good fit to the data: CFI = .96; NNFI = .95; GFI = .88; and SRMR = .054). Convergent validity can be defined as the agreement among indicators of a scale (Bagozzi, Yi and Phillips 1991). The convergent validity was confirmed by all items of which standardized loadings were at least .70 on the specified factors. All loadings were statistically significant ($p < .05$). As shown in Table 22, the item-to-total correlation (ITC) scores, which ranged from .71 to .93 also exceeded the commonly recommended level of .40 (Kline 1986).

Table 22. The properties of measurement model

Constructs and Indicators	Std loadings	t-value	R-Squared	Item-to-total correlation (ITC)
Celebrity involvement				
Attraction	.87	12.27**	.76	.85
Centrality	.99	2.05*	.98	.93
Self-expression	.90	11.23**	.81	.87
Leisure constraints				
Intrapersonal constraints	.83	11.59**	.69	.79
Interpersonal constraints	.94	5.92**	.88	.86
Structural constraints	.88	9.70**	.78	.84
Constraints negotiations				
Intrapersonal negotiations	.87	12.68**	.76	.85
Interpersonal negotiations	.97	5.92**	.94	.93
Structural negotiations	.96	7.23**	.92	.92
Frequency of participation				
Watching movies/TV programs	.80	12.68**	.64	.76
Participating in fan meetings	.76	13.02**	.58	.71
Obtaining information about stars	.92	9.36**	.85	.88
Talking about stars	.89	11.03**	.78	.86
Purchasing items associated with stars	.87	11.53**	.75	.83

Note: * $p < .05$; ** $p < .01$

Discriminant validity refers to the principle that the indicators for different constructs should not be so highly correlated as to lead one to conclude that they measure the same thing. It is achieved when measures for different constructs are not strongly correlated among themselves. The discriminant validity was confirmed in this study as the square root of the average variance extracted (AVE) for a given construct was found to be higher than the absolute value of the standardized correlation of the given construct with any other constructs (Fornell and Larcker 1981; Hatcher 1994). As shown in Table 23, the correlations among the four constructs ranged from -.04 for celebrity involvement

and leisure constraints to .71 for celebrity involvement and frequency of participation. None of the correlations of the constructs was higher than the square root of the average variance extracted (AVE).

The reliability coefficients of four constructs were also found to be satisfactory, which means that the constructs are internally consistent. Cronbach's coefficient alpha ranged from .91 for leisure constraints to .95 for constraints negotiations, which surpassed Nunnall's (1978) recommended minimum level of .70. The composite reliability indices (ρ_c) of each scale that range from .92 for leisure constraints to .95 for constraints negotiation were all higher than the cutoff point (.70) recommended by Bagozzi (1980) (see Table 23 and APPENDIX III). The average variance extracted (AVE) surpassed .50, which is the threshold for an acceptable level (Bagozzi and Yi's 1988). These results from the validity and reliability tests collectively suggest that the proposed measurement model is suitable for the further analysis.

Table 23. Correlation estimates (Φ)

Variable	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	α	ρ_c	AVE
(1) Celebrity involvement	-				.94	.94	.85
(2) Leisure constraints	-.04 ^{n.s.}	-			.91	.92	.78
(3) Constraint negotiations	.26**	.59**	-		.95	.95	.87
(4) Frequency of participation	.71**	.04 ^{n.s.}	.48**	-	.92	.93	.72

Note: ** $p < .01$; n.s. = not significant

α = Cronbach's coefficient alpha; ρ_c = composite reliability; AVE = average variance extracted

The Structural Model

Because the measurement model revealed a reasonable representation of the data, the structural paths were estimated to test the hypothesized relationships between the constructs (Anderson and Gerbing 1988). As shown in Table 24, the structural model fits the data well, with $\chi^2 = 399.78$ ($df = 91$, $p < .001$), CFI = .96, NNFI = .95, GFI = .88, SRMR = .05. Figure 6 reports the standardized coefficient for each path in the model. All the structural path coefficients were significant at the level of .01. Hence, the hypothesized relationships among the constructs were supported empirically. The model explains 43% of the variance associated with constraints negotiation, and 63% of the variance associated with frequency of leisure participation. Below are the specific results regarding each hypothesis.

H1 states that leisure constraints have a negative effect on frequency of leisure participation. The result shows that the effect of leisure constraints on the frequency of participation in fan activities was significantly negative ($\gamma_{11} = .20$, $t\text{-value} = -4.26$), which supports H1. This result is consistent with much literature advocating the negative relationship between the leisure constraints and the frequency of leisure participation.

H2 postulates the positive relationship between leisure constraints and constraint negotiation. The result shows that the level of perceived leisure constraints has a positively significant effect on constraint negotiation ($\gamma_{21} = .60$, $t\text{-value} = 12.34$).

Consequently, H2 was accepted in this study. This reveals that the more people perceive leisure constraints, the more they are likely to use constraints negotiation strategies.

H3 posits that constraints negotiation is positively related to the frequency of

leisure participation. As hypothesized, the result shows that there is a significantly positive relationship between constraints negotiation and leisure participation ($\beta_{12} = .44$, $t\text{-value} = 8.72$). Thus, H3 was accepted within this study. The respondents with a high level of perceived leisure constraints are likely to report a high level of participation in constraints negotiation.

H4, which postulates for the positive relationship between celebrity involvement and frequency of leisure participation, was also supported ($\gamma_{12} = .59$, $t\text{-value} = 12.50$). The results show that the level of celebrity involvement influences the frequency of participation in related leisure activities. Put differently, the respondents of this study who are highly involved with a Korean star/celebrity are more likely to participate in activities that are closely related with their favorite star/celebrity than individuals who are less involved.

H5 posits that celebrity involvement is positively associated with constraints negotiation. Consistent with previous studies, this study shows that a level of involvement with a Korean star/celebrity has a significantly positive effect on constraints negotiation ($\gamma_{22} = .29$, $t\text{-value} = 6.76$). Hence, H5 were accepted within this study. This means that the respondents who are highly involved with a Korean celebrity tend to use constraints negotiation strategies.

Table 24. Structural path estimates

Hypotheses	Paths	Estimates	t-value
H1 (γ_{11})	Leisure constraints → Frequency of participation	.20	- 4.26
H2 (γ_{21})	Leisure constraints → Constraint negotiation	.60	12.34
H3 (β_{12})	Constraint negotiation → Frequency of participation	.44	8.72
H4 (γ_{12})	Celebrity involvement → Frequency of participation	.59	12.50
H5 (γ_{22})	Celebrity involvement → Constraint negotiation	.29	6.76

Goodness-of-fit measuresChi-square = 399.78, df = 91, $p < .001$

CFI = .96

NNFI = .95

GFI = .88

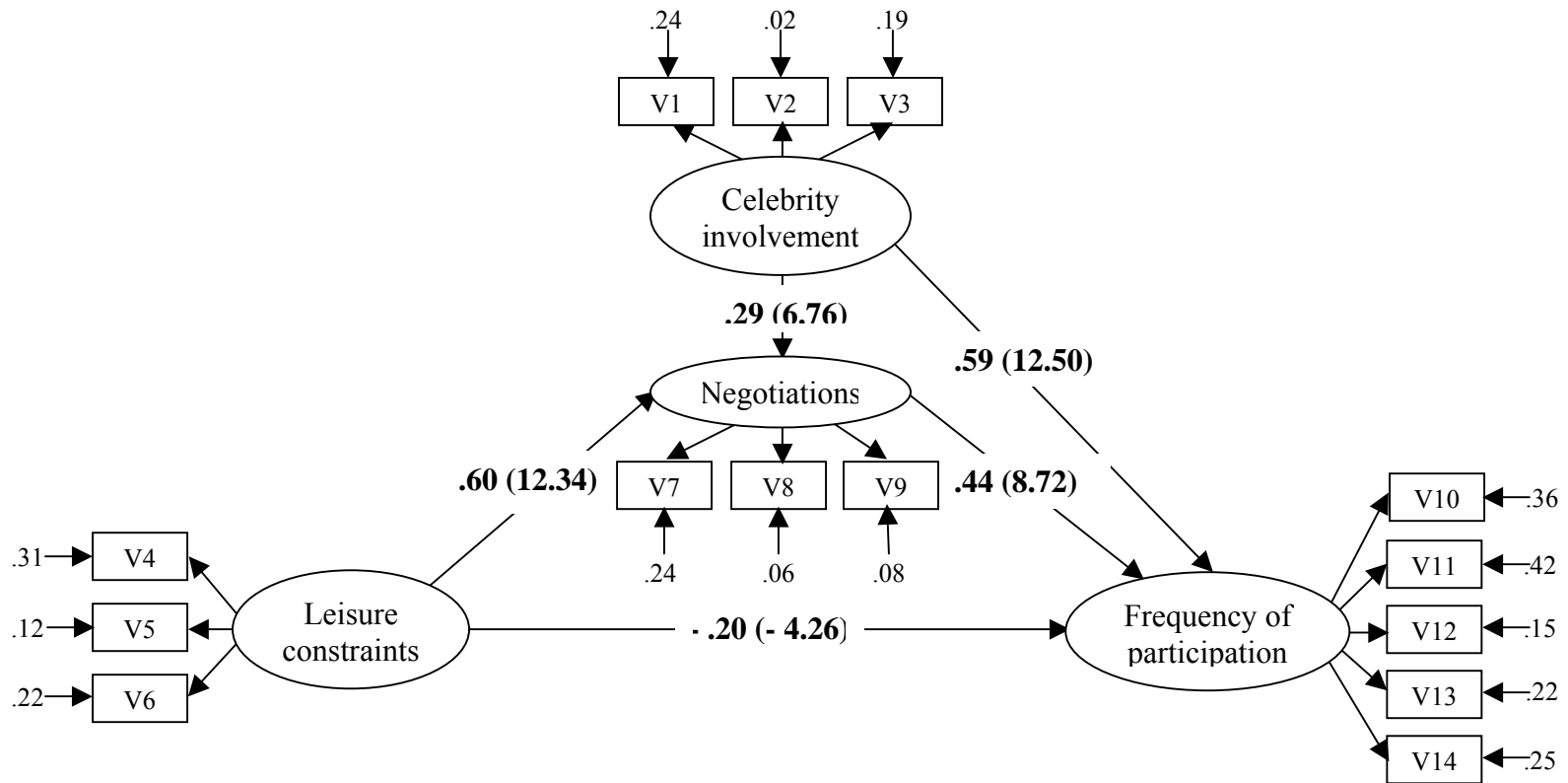
SRMR = .05

R²

Constraints negotiation = 43%

Frequency of leisure participation = 63%

Note: All paths are significant at $p < .01$



Keys: V1=Attraction; V2=Centrality; V3=Self-expression; V4=Intrapersonal constraints; V5=Interpersonal constraints; V6=Structural constraints; V7=Intrapersonal negotiations; V8=Interpersonal negotiations; V9=Structural negotiations; V10=Programs watching; V11=Fan meetings; V12=Celebrity information obtaining; V13=Talking; V14=Purchasing items

Note: All lines indicate paths that were significant at .01

Figure 6. Standardized structural path coefficients

Hubbard and Mannell (2001) compared four models of leisure constraints negotiation (i.e., independence model, negotiation-buffer model, constraint-effects-mitigation model, and perceived-constraint-reduction model). However, such model comparison has several statistical problems (see APPENDIX IV). Thus, the comparison of different model was not conducted in this study.

There is only a slight difference in Goodness-of-fit indices between constraint-effects-mitigation model by Hubbard and Mannell (2001) and the proposed research model of this study, and these two models are beyond the acceptable level. And also, two models' path coefficients were similar except for the path between leisure motivation (or involvement) and frequency of leisure participation. Path coefficient of this study between leisure involvement and leisure participation was much higher than Hubbard and Mannell's coefficient between leisure motivation and leisure participation.

Discussion

The purpose of this study was to examine the inter-relationships among celebrity involvement, constraints, constraints negotiation, and frequency of participation in celebrity fandom activities. This study adopted Hubbard and Mannell's (2001) mitigation model with a slight modification in specifying the interrelationships among the variables. The concept of celebrity involvement was incorporated into the model in lieu of leisure motivation that was a part of Hubbard and Mannell's original model. This modified model suggests that celebrity involvement influences one's likelihood to use constraints negotiation strategies, and frequency of participation in various fandom

activities. Plus, a significant causal effect of the perceived constraints on constraints negotiation and frequency of participation was posited in the model. Japanese who are involved with Korean celebrities with a varying degree were surveyed at the Haneda International Airport, Japan in order to examine the study model.

As hypothesized, the results show that the level of celebrity involvement positively affects constraints negotiation and frequency of participation in celebrity fandom activities (e.g., watching the movies/TV programs related to one's favorite stars, participating in the stars' fan meetings, obtaining information about one's favorite stars' through diverse media channels, talking about one's favorite stars with other people, and purchasing items associated with the stars). The study also found that the level of perceived leisure constraints positively influence constraints negotiation and frequency of participation. The positive relationship between constraints negotiation and frequency of participation was empirically accepted as well.

The results of this study contribute to an emerging understanding of celebrity fandom and leisure participation with the following conclusions and insights. First of all, this study provided an innovative approach to understand the phenomenon of celebrity fandom. While much literature highlights a psychopathological aspect of the fandom (Guttman 1986; Jenkins 1992; Leerhsen 1986), this study suggests that people's attachment to a celebrity can be better understood as a novel form of leisure activity, which has been overlooked by leisure scholars. For many avid fans studied in this research, an attachment to a celebrity is not a symptom of paranoia but actually a means of attaining pleasure, expressing self-identity, and developing social networks. Focusing

on such positive aspects commonly found in other conventional leisure activities (e.g., boating, fishing, and hunting), the present study contributes to bringing this rather overlooked phenomenon into the domain of leisure studies. Future research should delve more into differences between the celebrity fandom and conventional leisure activities although there seems to exist a striking similarity between them.

Second, this study attempted to identify the conceptual equivalence between leisure motivation and leisure involvement. Despite conceptual and operational similarity between these two concepts, an empirical examination of the possible interchangeability has not been carried out partly due to their own developmental history in leisure studies. Particularly, unlike the concept of leisure motivation, the relationship between leisure involvement and constraint negotiations has gained little attention to researchers. The results of this study suggest that the concept of leisure involvement can serve as a proper substitute for leisure motivation at least within the context of the constraint-mitigation model. Importantly, the effect of leisure motivation on participation in Hubbard and Mannell's (2001)'s study was not as significant as the effects of the involvement in this study. It is not certain at this stage whether or not this result is due to difference in study populations. At least, this study demonstrated a conceptual similarity between these two concepts and that the concept of leisure involvement can be as powerful as leisure motivation in explaining other subsequent leisure perceptions/behaviors (perceived leisure constraints, constraints negotiation, and leisure participation). Additional research is needed to clarify this important conceptual issue in the future.

Third, this study helped expand the applicability of leisure constraint model. The leisure constraints model has been predominantly tested in North American contexts. To the best of author's knowledge, this model has not been tested in Asian and other international settings. Therefore, it can be argued that the findings from this study helped confirm the cross-cultural validity of the leisure constraints model. More research should be conducted in diverse cultural settings to enhance the generalizability and validity of the proposed leisure constraints model.

Finally, this study presented empirical evidence that the level of leisure involvement positively influences constraints negotiation. A number of serious leisure studies (Gibson, Willming and Holdnak 2002; Stebbins 1982; 1992), through a concept of perseverance, have implicitly suggested a positive association between the leisure involvement and negotiation efforts to overcome obstacles to participation. It is important to note that serious leisure research has been highly qualitative in nature, and the results from this research tradition have not been integrated in leisure constraints-negotiation studies, which have been largely quantitative in nature. The results of this study help link such conceptual and empirical disconnection between the two domains of leisure studies. This study found the positive impacts of leisure involvement on constraints negotiation using quantitative survey data. Highly involved individuals are likely to negotiate the perceived intra- and interpersonal constraints in order to continuously pursue a given leisure activity.

Limitations and Future Research

This study has several methodological limitations. The first limitation is related to the sample utilized in this study. Although a systematic random sampling was conducted at the various points at the airport, the site for sampling was limited to one specific international airport. A representative sample of Japanese population would have been appropriate to generalize the results of this study. However, since it is not realistic for the researcher of this study to conduct such a national scale survey, a caution should be made to generalize the findings from this study to other population. This study finding reflects the views of Japanese people traveling through the Haneda airport, Japan. Therefore, future research should be conducted in more diverse contexts with different population in order to enhance the external validity of the study results.

Second, this study utilized cross-sectional data. It is commonly believed that human perceptions like leisure involvement requires a certain maturing time to take a form. Also, it is not a static mental state but a dynamic state that typically undergoes various developmental stages. However, this study failed to consider such developmental aspects of leisure involvement with a celebrity into the study model. Future research should be made in a way that reflects such evolving nature of the concept and its effects on other constructs. A longitudinal study may be an appropriate way to address this issue.

Third, this study used a survey method as a main data collection strategy. A survey method is known for its susceptibility to many measurement errors including wording problems and pre-structured questions and rather enforced subsequent answers.

Qualitative research approach may alleviate such deficiencies found in survey methods. Future research, therefore, should incorporate certain qualitative research methods that include participant observation and in-depth interview into the study design. That may help advance deeper theoretical understanding of the various human perceptions and behaviors (related to celebrity fandom) within a natural setting.

CHAPTER IV

SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

The advent of mass media driven society has brought significant sociocultural impacts on people's everyday life. As many cultural commentators (Lasch 1979; Riesman 1950; Rojek 1995) argue, mass media have created prevailing social conditions in which celebrities serve as cultural icons for the public to construct self-identities and to help guide every day thoughts and behavior. As an epitome of modern society, celebrities have become sociocultural figures that affect various domains of society such as leisure and tourism. It is not difficult to find that places are given special meaning in association with a celebrity, and become tourism icons. Also, mass mediated images of celebrities often serve as an important guideline for the public in determining their leisure activities. Despite its powerful ramifications, researchers in the field of leisure and tourism have been negligent on exploring the extent to which celebrity fandom influences leisure and tourism perceptions and behaviors.

This dissertation research was conducted to help understand this under-researched area particularly in the field of leisure and tourism. It is argued in this study that the celebrity fandom is a novel form of leisure and tourism activity, which should be understood in relation to other leisure and tourism constructs. Two separate models were proposed: one model was concerned with the impacts of celebrity involvement on various tourism perceptions, and the other model investigated the efficacy of celebrity involvement within the constraints-effects-mitigation models. The results demonstrated

the significant role of celebrity involvement in shaping various perceptions and behaviors related to leisure and tourism.

It is hoped that this study helps advance a theoretical understanding of celebrity fandom particularly within the context of leisure and tourism practices. With the ever increasing power of mass media in a global society, the influence of celebrities is expanding exposure to, and interest in, non-work time activities like leisure and tourism. For this reason, relationships between celebrity fandom and other leisure and tourism phenomena must be further critiqued, researched, and understood.

Summary of Study 1: Celebrity Fan's Leisure Involvement and Destination

Perceptions

The purpose of this study was to investigate the extent to which people's involvement with a celebrity affects their perceptions of tourism destinations (i.e., familiarity, image, and intention to visit). A theoretical model specified the interrelationships between the level of celebrity involvement and destination related perceptions. An on-site intercept survey was conducted at a major airport (Haneda) in Japan to examine Japanese perceptions of Korea in relation to their involvement with Korean celebrities. Structural Equation Modeling (SEM), using LISREL (version 8.52), was used to test the model.

The results corroborated several hypothesized relationships within the proposed model. The level of celebrity involvement positively affected destination familiarity and visitation intention. Destination images and destination familiarity were also positively

related to visitation intentions. The positive association between affective images and cognitive images was empirically supported as well. However, contrary to the expectation, the posited relationship between the level of celebrity involvement and destination images was not empirically supported. The possible explanations for this unexpected result were suggested at the end of Chapter II.

This study made several contributions to existing tourism literature. First of all, it introduces a concept of celebrity fandom to the field of tourism studies. It, thus, expands a theoretical understanding of how people's participation in mass media influence tourism attitudes and behaviors. Second, although leisure involvement has received widespread attention over the last two decades, its application to celebrity fandom has gone virtually ignored. This study helps expand the applicability of leisure involvement concept by investigating it within the context of media celebrity fandom. Third, this study helps better understand the concept of destination familiarity; diverse aspects of the destination familiarity concept were incorporated in measurement.

Summary of Study 2: Understanding the Process of Celebrity Fan's Constraint Negotiation

Conceptualizing celebrity fandom in terms of leisure involvement, this study examined its effectiveness in relation to other psychological constructs within the constraints-effects-mitigation model proposed by Hubbard and Mannell (2001). It is important to notice that the concept of celebrity involvement was incorporated into the model in lieu of leisure motivation that was a part of Hubbard and Mannell's original

model. The modified model specified the inter-relationships among celebrity involvement, constraints, constraints negotiation, and frequency of participation in celebrity fandom activities. This model suggests that celebrity involvement influences one's likelihood to use constraints negotiation strategies, and frequency of participation in various fandom activities. A significant causal effect of the perceived constraints on constraints negotiation and frequency of participation was also posited in the model. Japanese who are involved with Korean celebrities with a varying degree were surveyed at the Haneda International Airport, Japan in order to examine the study model. Structural Equation Modeling (SEM), using LISREL (version 8.52), was used in this study.

The results supported all the hypothesized relationships within the model. The level of celebrity involvement positively affects constraints negotiation and frequency of participation in celebrity fandom activities (e.g., watching movies/TV programs related to one's favorite stars, participating in the stars' fan meetings, obtaining information about one's favorite stars' through diverse media channels, talking about one's favorite stars with other people, and purchasing items associated with the stars). The study also found that the level of perceived leisure constraints influence constraints negotiation and frequency of participation. The positive relationship between constraints negotiation and frequency of participation was empirically supported as well.

This study made several major contributions to existing leisure studies. First of all, this study helped understand the conceptual parallel and the interchangeability between leisure motivation and leisure involvement by applying the concept of leisure

involvement to the constraint-mitigation model as a substitute for a leisure motivation. In addition, this research helps clarify the effects of leisure involvement on the leisure negotiation processes, which eventually contributes to making this mitigation model more comprehensive. Lastly, this study advanced a theoretical understanding of leisure involvement and constraints negotiation strategy by introducing the concept of perseverance (an important quality of serious leisure) into the constraints negotiation studies. This attempt helps bridge the two rather disconnected research domains (serious leisure research and constraints negotiation research) in leisure studies.

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APPENDIX I

**A STUDY OF LEISURE INVOLVEMENT AND
CELEBRITY FANDOM IN JAPAN**



Department of Park, Recreation and Tourism Sciences
Texas A&M University, USA

A Study of Leisure Involvement and Celebrity Fandom

Spring 2006



Thank you for participating in this study of leisure involvement and celebrity fandom. This study is being conducted to further our understanding of how people's interest in celebrities is related to what they do in their free time and their travel decisions. It will make an important contribution to what we know about people's use of media and people's participation in leisure activities.

The results of this study will be used by Soojin Lee as she pursues her doctoral dissertation in the Department of Recreation, Park and Tourism Sciences at Texas A&M University. Your answers will not be made available to any travel agencies. Your responses will be kept completely confidential. Your responses will be combined with those of others so that no single respondent may be identified. You do not have to put either your name or address on this questionnaire.

You are one of several Japanese citizens to be selected to complete this survey. Therefore, your answer will represent the opinions and needs of others who have not been contacted. The survey will take approximately 10 to 12 minutes to complete.

Please read each question carefully before responding.

Thank you in advance for your participation – your input is very important to understand celebrity fandom as a type of leisure activity!

Soojin Lee
sjlee73@neo.tamu.edu
Doctoral Student
Department of Park, Recreation and Tourism Sciences
Texas A&M University, USA

Section I. Attitudes and Behaviors About Korean Stars

1. Here we are interested in your opinions about Korean stars in general. For each statement below, CIRCLE ONE NUMBER to indicate the extent to which you agree or disagree.

	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly agree
a. Korean stars are very important to me	1	2	3	4	5
b. Activities that involve Korean stars offer me relaxation when pressures build up	1	2	3	4	5
c. Participating in activities that involve Korean stars is one of the most satisfying things I do	1	2	3	4	5
d. I really enjoy participating in activities which involve Korean stars	1	2	3	4	5
e. I find a lot of my life is organized around activities that involve Korean stars	1	2	3	4	5
f. Activities that involve Korean stars have a central role in my life	1	2	3	4	5
g. I enjoy discussing Korean stars with my friends	1	2	3	4	5
h. Most of friends are in some ways connected in activities related to Korean stars	1	2	3	4	5
i. Participating in activities that involve Korean stars says a lot about who I am	1	2	3	4	5
j. You can tell a lot about people by seeing them participating in activities that involve Korean stars	1	2	3	4	5
k. When I participate in activities that involve Korean stars I can really be myself	1	2	3	4	5
l. When I participate in activities that involve Korean stars others see me the way I want them to see me	1	2	3	4	5

2. Here we are interested in your behavior related to Korean stars. For each statement, please answer the following questions.

a. Over the last 12 months, how often have you watched movies/TV programs related to your favorite Korean stars? (CIRCLE ONE NUMBER)

- 1 DAILY OR NEARLY EVERY DAY
- 2 AT LEAST ONCE A WEEK
- 3 AT LEAST ONCE A MONTH
- 4 LESS THAN ONCE A MONTH
- 5 ONCE OR TWICE
- 6 NEVER

b. Over the last 12 months, how often have you participated in fan meetings related to your favorite Korean stars? (CIRCLE ONE NUMBER)

- 1 DAILY OR NEARLY EVERYDAY
- 2 AT LEAST ONCE A WEEK
- 3 AT LEAST ONCE A MONTH
- 4 LESS THAN ONCE A MONTH
- 5 ONCE OR TWICE
- 6 NEVER

- c. Over the last 12 months, how often have you obtained information about Korean stars through the internet, news articles, and magazines? (CIRCLE ONE NUMBER)
- 1 DAILY OR NEARLY EVERYDAY
 - 2 AT LEAST ONCE A WEEK
 - 3 AT LEAST ONCE A MONTH
 - 4 LESS THAN ONCE A MONTH
 - 5 ONCE OR TWICE
 - 6 NEVER
- d. Over the last 12 months, how often have you talked about Korean stars with other people? (CIRCLE ONE NUMBER)
- 1 DAILY OR NEARLY EVERYDAY
 - 2 AT LEAST ONCE A WEEK
 - 3 AT LEAST ONCE A MONTH
 - 4 LESS THAN ONCE A MONTH
 - 5 ONCE OR TWICE
 - 6 NEVER
- e. Over the last 12 months, how often have you purchased items associated with Korean stars? (CIRCLE ONE NUMBER)
- 1 DAILY OR NEARLY EVERYDAY
 - 2 AT LEAST ONCE A WEEK
 - 3 AT LEAST ONCE A MONTH
 - 4 LESS THAN ONCE A MONTH
 - 5 ONCE OR TWICE
 - 6 NEVER
- f. Over the last 12 months, about how much MONEY have you spent, per month, on fan activities related to Korean stars (e.g., watching movies/TV programs related to your favorite star, participating in the star's fan meetings, and purchasing items associated with the star)?
- \$ _____
- g. Are you currently a member of a fan club devoted to Korean stars?
- 1 YES
 - 2 NO
- h. In the next 12 months, how likely do you think you will participate in activities related to Korean stars (e.g., watching movies/TV programs, participating in fan meetings, and purchasing items associated with the star)? (CIRCLE ONE NUMBER)

Not at all likely	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Highly likely
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Section II. Images of Korea

3. Here we are interested in your **perceptions of Korea** as a travel destination. For each statement, CIRCLE ONE NUMBER to indicate the extent to which you agree or disagree.

Korea is likely to offer.....	Strongly		Neutral	Agree	Strongly
	Disagree	Disagree			
a. Good value for travel expenditures	1	2	3	4	5
b. Beautiful scenery/natural attractions	1	2	3	4	5
c. Good climate	1	2	3	4	5
d. Interesting cultural attractions	1	2	3	4	5
e. Suitable accommodations	1	2	3	4	5
f. Appealing local food (cuisine)	1	2	3	4	5
g. Good quality of transportation	1	2	3	4	5
h. Personal safety	1	2	3	4	5
i. Interesting historical attractions	1	2	3	4	5
j. Unpolluted/unspoiled environment	1	2	3	4	5
k. Good nighttime entertainment	1	2	3	4	5
l. Standard hygiene and cleanliness	1	2	3	4	5
m. Interesting and friendly people	1	2	3	4	5

4. On each of the four lines below, two opposite terms are presented (e.g., "sleepy" and "arousing"). We would like you to CIRCLE ONE NUMBER between each set of words that most accurately describes your image or perception of Korea.

Korea is:						
a. Sleepy	1	2	3	4	5	Arousing
b. Gloomy	1	2	3	4	5	Exciting
c. Unpleasant	1	2	3	4	5	Pleasant
d. Distressing	1	2	3	4	5	Relaxing

Section III. Familiarity with Korea

5. Below is a list of information sources that people use to find out about travel destinations. We would like you to tell us how frequently you have heard about Korea through these different sources. Use the following 1-5 rating scale for your answer. (CIRCLE ONE NUMBER FOR EACH ITEM)

How much have you seen or heard about Korea through...?	None		Some		A great deal
	1	2	3	4	5
a. Travel agency brochures	1	2	3	4	5
b. Hotel/motel guidebooks	1	2	3	4	5
c. Advertisement in magazines or TV	1	2	3	4	5
d. Movies/dramas/other media products	1	2	3	4	5
e. Articles from newspapers/magazines	1	2	3	4	5
f. Maps of South Korea	1	2	3	4	5
g. Books	1	2	3	4	5
h. Word of mouth information from friends and relatives	1	2	3	4	5
i. Internet	1	2	3	4	5

6. Below is a list of different aspects of Korean culture. We would like you to rate how familiar you are with each one. (CIRCLE ONE NUMBER FOR EACH ITEM)

How familiar are you with...	Not at all familiar		Somewhat familiar		Extremely familiar
a. Korean language?	1	2	3	4	5
b. History of Korea?	1	2	3	4	5
c. Korean food?	1	2	3	4	5
d. Lifestyle of Korea?	1	2	3	4	5
e. Popular culture of Korea?	1	2	3	4	5

7. Here we are interested in your **past experiences** in relation to Korea. For each statement, please answer the following questions.

- a. How many trips have you taken to Korea? _____
 b. How many Korean friends do you have? _____

8. How much would you like to visit Korea in the future? (Circle one number)?

Not at all likely	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Highly likely
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Section IV. Barriers to Participation

9. Here we are interested in factors that prevent you from participating in activities related to Korean stars (e.g., watching movies/TV programs, participating in fan meetings, and purchasing items associated with a star). For each factor listed below, please indicate how important it is as a reason for not participating in activities related to Korean stars. (CIRCLE ONE NUMBER FOR EACH ITEM)

How important is each factor in limiting your participation?	Not at all important		Somewhat important		Very important
a. Too shy to participate in fan activities	1	2	3	4	5
b. Fear that other would make fun of me	1	2	3	4	5
c. A feeling the fan activities would not be appropriate for my age, gender and social status	1	2	3	4	5
d. Feeling guilty about doing fan activities	1	2	3	4	5
e. Lack of energy	1	2	3	4	5
f. Feeling uncomfortable about other fans' behaviors	1	2	3	4	5
g. Lack of partners	1	2	3	4	5
h. Too busy with family responsibilities	1	2	3	4	5
i. Schedule conflicts between partners	1	2	3	4	5
j. Lack of close family and friends' approvals	1	2	3	4	5
k. Family members or me are in poor health	1	2	3	4	5
l. The people I know who participate in fan activities live or work too far away	1	2	3	4	5
m. Not having enough money	1	2	3	4	5
n. Not having enough time	1	2	3	4	5
o. Too many other things to do	1	2	3	4	5
p. Lack of information about fan activities	1	2	3	4	5
q. Lack of transportation	1	2	3	4	5
r. Lack of equipment (e.g., multimedia systems, computers, and cameras)	1	2	3	4	5

10. We would like you to tell us how often you try to overcome barriers that might prevent you from participating in activities related to Korean stars. For each strategy listed below CIRCLE ONE NUMBER that describes how often you have tried to overcome constraints to participation.

To overcome barriers on activities, I try to...	Never		Sometimes		Frequently
a. I try not to let my shyness get in the way of participating in fan activities	1	2	3	4	5
b. I try not to be bothered by what other people think about me	1	2	3	4	5
c. I swallow my pride and do the best I can	1	2	3	4	5
d. I try to overcome negative feelings that might inhibit fan activities	1	2	3	4	5
e. I try to save energy for fan activities	1	2	3	4	5
f. I try not to be bothered by other fans' behaviors	1	2	3	4	5
g. I try to find people with similar interests	1	2	3	4	5
h. I try to better organize family responsibilities	1	2	3	4	5
i. I try to solve scheduling conflicts among partners	1	2	3	4	5
j. I persuade close people (family and friends) to participate in fan activities with me.	1	2	3	4	5
k. I encourage family members to live a healthy lifestyle	1	2	3	4	5
l. I find ways to interact with people who live or work far away	1	2	3	4	5
m. I try to budget my money for fan activities	1	2	3	4	5
n. I try to budget my time for fan activities	1	2	3	4	5
o. I try to better organize what I have to do	1	2	3	4	5
p. I get more information about fan activities	1	2	3	4	5
q. I try to work out my transportation problems to participate in fan activities	1	2	3	4	5
r. I buy or borrow equipment to participate in fan activities	1	2	3	4	5

Section V. Demographic Characteristics. This final section of the questionnaire asks for information about you and your household. You may be assured this information will be kept confidential and used only to help us understand characteristics of respondents.

- a. Are you? (CIRCLE ONE)
- 1 Male
 - 2 Female
- b. What is your current marital status? (CIRCLE ONE)
- 1 Single
 - 2 Married
- c. What is the highest level of formal education that you have completed? (CIRCLE ONE)
- 1 SIXTH GRADE OR LESS
 - 2 LESS THAN 12 YEARS
 - 3 HIGH SCHOOL GRADUATE
 - 4 SOME COLLEGE
 - 5 A DEGREE FROM A 2-YEAR COLLEGE
 - 6 GRADUATED FROM 4 YEAR COLLEGE
 - 7 SOME GRADUATE SCHOOL
 - 8 A GRADUATE DEGREE
- d. In what year were you born? 19_____ year
- e. Which of the following categories apply to you? (CIRCLE ALL THAT APPLY)
- 1 EMPLOYED FULL TIME
 - 2 EMPLOYED PART TIME/TEMPORARY
 - 3 UNEMPLOYED
 - 4 SELF-EMPLOYED
 - 5 RETIRED
 - 6 STUDENT
 - 7 HOMEMAKER
- f. What is your approximate annual household income before taxes? (CIRCLE ONE)
- 1 UNDER \$10,000
 - 2 \$10,000-19,999
 - 3 \$20,000-29,999
 - 4 \$30,000-39,999
 - 5 \$40,000-49,999
 - 6 \$50,000-59,999
 - 7 \$60,000-69,999
 - 8 \$70,000-79,999
 - 9 \$80,000-89,999
 - 10 \$90,000-99,999
 - 11 \$100,000 OR MORE

APPENDIX II

PAPER 1: CONSTRUCT RELIABILITY AND VARIANCE EXTRACTED

ESTIMATES

Reliability

$$\text{Construct reliability } (\rho_c) = (\sum \lambda)^2 / [(\sum \lambda)^2 + \sum (\theta)]$$

Where λ = indicator loadings

θ = indicator error variance (i.e., variances of the δ 's or ε 's)

$$\text{Celebrity involvement} = \frac{(.87 + .99 + .90)^2}{(.87 + .99 + .90)^2 + (.24 + .02 + .18)} = .9454$$

$$\text{Familiarity} = \frac{(.89 + .75 + .54)^2}{(.89 + .75 + .54)^2 + (.22 + .43 + .70)} = .7788$$

$$\text{Affective image} = \frac{(.70 + .81 + .88 + .88)^2}{(.70 + .81 + .88 + .88)^2 + (.51 + .34 + .23 + .22)} = .8916$$

$$\text{Cognitive image} = \frac{(.90 + .83)^2}{(.90 + .83)^2 + (.19 + .31)} = .8569$$

Variance extracted

$$\text{Variance extracted } (\rho_v) = (\sum \lambda^2) / \{ (\sum \lambda^2) + \sum (\theta) \}$$

Where λ = indicator loadings

θ = indicator error variance (i.e., variances of the δ 's or ε 's)

$$\text{Celebrity involvement} = \frac{(.87)^2 + (.99)^2 + (.90)^2}{(.87)^2 + (.99)^2 + (.90)^2 + (.24 + .02 + .18)} = .8527$$

$$\text{Familiarity} = \frac{(.89)^2 + (.75)^2 + (.54)^2}{(.89)^2 + (.75)^2 + (.54)^2 + (.22 + .43 + .70)} = .5494$$

$$\text{Affective image} = \frac{(.70)^2 + (.81)^2 + (.88)^2 + (.88)^2}{(.70)^2 + (.81)^2 + (.88)^2 + (.88)^2 + (.51 + .34 + .23 + .22)} = .6746$$

$$\text{Cognitive image} = \frac{(.90)^2 + (.83)^2}{(.90)^2 + (.83)^2 + (.19 + .31)} = .7499$$

APPENDIX III

PAPER 2: CONSTRUCT RELIABILITY AND VARIANCE EXTRACTED

ESTIMATES

Reliability

$$\text{Construct reliability } (\rho_c) = (\sum \lambda)^2 / [(\sum \lambda)^2 + \sum (\theta)]$$

Where λ = indicator loadings

θ = indicator error variance (i.e., variances of the δ 's or ε 's)

$$\text{Celebrity involvement} = \frac{(.87 + .99 + .90)^2}{(.87 + .99 + .90)^2 + (.24 + .02 + .19)} = .9442$$

$$\text{Leisure constraints} = \frac{(.83 + .94 + .88)^2}{(.83 + .94 + .88)^2 + (.31 + .12 + .22)} = .9153$$

$$\text{Constraints negotiation} = \frac{(.87 + .97 + .96)^2}{(.87 + .97 + .96)^2 + (.24 + .06 + .08)} = .9538$$

$$\text{Leisure participation} = \frac{(.80 + .76 + .92 + .89 + .87)^2}{(.80 + .76 + .92 + .89 + .87)^2 + (.36 + .42 + .15 + .22 + .25)} = .9278$$

Variance extracted

$$\text{Variance extracted } (\rho_v) = (\sum \lambda^2) / [(\sum \lambda^2) + \sum (\theta)]$$

Where λ = indicator loadings

θ = indicator error variance (i.e., variances of the δ 's or ε 's)

$$\text{Celebrity involvement} = \frac{(.87)^2 + (.99)^2 + (.90)^2}{(.87)^2 + (.99)^2 + (.90)^2 + (.24 + .02 + .19)} = .8499$$

$$\text{Leisure constraints} = \frac{(.83)^2 + (.94)^2 + (.88)^2}{(.83)^2 + (.94)^2 + (.88)^2 + (.31 + .12 + .22)} = .7831$$

$$\text{Constraints negotiation} = \frac{(.87)^2 + (.97)^2 + (.96)^2}{(.87)^2 + (.97)^2 + (.96)^2 + (.24 + .06 + .08)} = .8733$$

$$\text{Leisure participation} = \frac{(.80)^2 + (.76)^2 + (.92)^2 + (.89)^2 + (.87)^2}{(.80)^2 + (.76)^2 + (.92)^2 + (.89)^2 + (.87)^2 + (.36 + .42 + .15 + .22 + .25)} = .7207$$

APPENDIX IV

There are three major reasons that testing competing models in this dissertation is not appropriate. Hubbard and Mannell (2001) compared four models of leisure constraints negotiation process (i.e., independence model, negotiation-buffer model, constraint-effects-mitigation model, and perceived-constraint-reduction model). However, such model comparison has several serious problems. First of all, the buffer model (out of four models in Hubbard and Mannell's paper) is not feasible for the Structural Equation Modeling (SEM) analysis because of a technical issue. That is why Hubbard and Mannell did not use SEM for that specific model in their paper. The remaining three models can be analyzed through SEM, which allows for model comparison to be performed. That is, it is impossible to compare all four models between each other.

Second, two models (independent model and mitigation model) out of the remaining three models have some statistical problem for the comparison to be performed. If the number of paths (i.e., correlation between X-variables, casual relationship between X-variable and Y-variable) is the same (regardless of the direction of the paths), the result of Goodness of fit indices will be the same. Even though the path coefficients between X-variables are not reported, there exist correlations between them in the model. This means that independent model (3 correlations + 3 casual relationships = 6 paths) and mitigation model (1 correlation + 5 casual relationships = 6 paths) will generate the same result in terms of model fit although the specific path

coefficients will be different between each model. That is, the SEM analysis won't allow us to see which model is better than the others as long as the variables incorporated in the models are the same ones. The reason that Hubbard and Mannell's paper reported different results is that they dropped non-significant path from the mitigation model. If they included the non-significant path in the model, mitigation model would have produced the same result with the independent model.

Third, the results of model comparison might be meaningless because there is only a slight difference in Goodness-of-fit indices between three models, and all three models are beyond the acceptable level. Hubbard and Mannell just dropped some path to change the model fit. The results of model comparison are as following:

Hubbard and Mannell's result

Model	Overall fit indices				
	χ^2/df	IFI	CFI	RMSEA	NFI
Independence	2.34	.90	.90	.09	.84
Mitigation	1.62	.96	.95	.06	.89
Reduction	1.80	.94	.94	.07	.88

Soojin Lee's dissertation result

Model	Overall fit indices					
	χ^2/df	IFI	CFI	GFI	SRMR	NNFI
Independence	399.78/91	.96	.96	.88	.05	.95
Mitigation	399.78/91	.96	.96	.88	.05	.95
Reduction	421.49/92	.96	.96	.87	.08	.95

VITA

Soo Jin Lee
Bongchun-3dong, Hyundai Apt. #112-304, Seoul, Korea.

Education

- Ph.D. Texas A&M University, College Station, Texas
2002-2007 Department of Recreation, Park, and Tourism Sciences
Tourism and Natural/Cultural Resource Management
- M.B.A. Sejong University, Seoul, Korea
1999-2002 Department of Tourism Management
- B.A. Kyonggi University, Suwon, Korea
1992-1997 Department of History

Work Experience

- 2001-2002 Korea Culture & Tourism Policy Institute
- 2000-2001 Feanix Data Co., Ltd.
- 1997-2000 Daehan Real Estate Investment Trust Co., Ltd.

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