



CELEBRITY FAN INVOLVEMENT AND DESTINATION PERCEPTIONS

Soojin Lee
David Scott

Texas A&M University, USA

Hyounggon Kim

Sejong University, Republic of Korea

Abstract: The purpose of this study was to investigate the extent to which people's involvement with a celebrity affects their perceptions of tourism destinations (familiarity, image, and visitation intentions). An on-site survey was conducted in Japan to examine Japanese' perceptions of Korea in relation to their involvement with Korean celebrities. The results corroborated several hypothesized relationships. Celebrity involvement positively affected familiarity and visitation intentions. The results also indicated destination images and familiarity were positively related to visitation intentions. This study furthers researchers' understanding to an emerging form of tourism whose creation is based on the powerful impacts of mass media and popular culture in post-industrial societies. **Keywords:** celebrity fandom, leisure involvement, destination image, familiarity, film-induced tourism. © 2008 Elsevier Ltd. All rights reserved.

INTRODUCTION

Several studies suggest that portrayals and representation in films and television act as powerful forces that stimulate tourism demand (Beeton, 2001; Connell 2005; Hudson and Ritche 2006; Frost 2006; Kim and Richardson 2003; Riley and Van Doren 1992; Tooke and Baker 1996). While these studies contribute to our understanding of the impact of mass media on tourism phenomena, the actual linkage between the diverse components of mass media and tourism perceptions/behaviors has yet to be explored. The role that celebrities play in stimulating travel has been acknowledged (Beeton, 2005) but remains under-researched in tourism studies.

Celebrities are cultural icons in mass media driven societies. Scholars have attempted to understand the emergence and popularity of celebrities in light of the cultural characteristics of modernity, such as

Soojin Lee is a recently graduated PhD student from the Department of Recreation, Park and Tourism Sciences at Texas A&M University. Her research interest includes media-induced tourism and tourist behavior. **David Scott** is a Professor in the Department of Recreation, Park and Tourism Sciences, Texas A&M University. **Hyounggon Kim** is an Assistant Professor in the Graduate School of Hospitality and Tourism Management at Sejong University. (Seoul 143-747, Republic of Korea. Email <hkim@sejong.ac.kr>).

narcissism and other-directedness (Lasch 1979; Riesman 1950; Rojek 1995). Lasch (1979) maintains that the culture of narcissism is a determining quality of modern individuals. Narcissists, he argues, constantly seek heroes or outstanding people and see them as an extension of themselves. They tend to closely identify with the celebrities in order to vicariously bask in the glory of the celebrities, and fulfill their underlying desires for fame and social approval. The narcissistic culture makes the celebrities become an iconic symbol with whom 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., proliferation of images via mass media). He argues that individuals in other-directed societies look to the mass media (e.g., radio, movies, television, comics) as a guide for behavior. Mass mediated celebrities emerged as new authority figures in other-directed societies. 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. Since attachment to celebrities has become an ordinary social practice, it is important to understand how celebrity attachment impacts tourism behavior and phenomena. This study aims to understand the under-researched power of celebrities in shaping people's perceptions and attitudes toward a tourism destination.

The notion of fandom has been put forward to understand the linkage between celebrities and mass audience in diverse realms (movie, music, drama, sports, etc.) of popular culture (Couldry 2007; Madrigal 1995). Fandom has historically been regarded as pathological and believed to stem from alienating qualities of modern society (Caughy 1978; Horton and Wohl 1956). However, cultural critiques of fandom in recent years have tended to dismiss such negative views and approach the phenomena as a widely spread reality in post-industrial societies (Jenson 1992; Sandvoss 2005). From the perspective of cultural economy, fandom may be seen as a rational activity for many modern individuals to accumulate popular cultural capital in the way of enhanced prestige and self-esteem (Fiske 1992). Also, accumulation of social capital often accrues in many fandom activities, as evidenced by enhanced in-group solidarity among members of fan clubs. As (Fiske 1992) further points out, the nature of *popular cultural capital* that may accrue to fandom activity (particularly for mass media celebrities) is different from *official cultural capital* (particularly associated with conventional elite cultural activities) as popular cultural capital dies out quickly along with the fast-paced nature of mass media. However, culture industries in modern society constantly produce a myriad of popular icons that can be utilized as objects of fandom, which enable many individuals to acquire popular cultural capital and receive associated social and personal benefits within social worlds that may be formal or informal. Given that distinction is the underlying mechanism of cultural capital, a wide range of fandom activities that include an actual visit to a place associated with adoring celebrities may serve as an effective strategy to accumulate popular cultural capital in modern society.

In recent years, Korean popular culture has gained much recognition across many Asian countries via movies, songs, soap operas, and other forms of mass media entertainment. The trend is known as “Hallyu” 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 (<http://www.knto.or.kr>, 2004). Initiated in mainland China through soap operas, Hallyu became a transnational sociocultural phenomenon in many Asian countries. 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 the Korean language, tasting Korean food, and actually visiting Korea.

Hallyu has spurred travel to Korea. The Korea National Tourism Organization (KNTO) reported that approximately 3 million Hallyu induced tourists visited Korea as of November 2004. The figure was 37 percent higher than the previous year (<http://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 (KNTO, <http://www.knto.or.kr>, 2004).

Although scholars have long recognized the role of mass media in creating destination images and actual tourism demand (Kim and Richardson 2003; Mercille 2005; Riley, Baker, and Van Doren 1998; Santos 2004), the role that particular celebrities play in shaping tourism demand has only recently been examined. Kim, Agrusa, Lee, and Chon (2007) studied international tourists at a famous soap opera location in Korea and confirmed that an interest in celebrities affects destination selection processes and trip behaviors. Little is known, however, 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. The results from this study make a significant contribution to existing tourism literature by bridging theoretical understanding of fandom to empirical examination of a tourism phenomenon, namely a celebrity induced tourism.

CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK AND MODEL ESTIMATION

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 images (composed of affective and cognitive dimensions), familiarity, and likelihood to visit a filmed location. The interrelationships of these constructs are shown in Figure 1 and fleshed out in this section.

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.” McIntyre and Pigram (1992) extend Laurent and Kepferer’s (1985) involvement profile (IP) to develop three dimensions of leisure involvement: attraction, centrality, and self-expression. These three dimensions have consistently been shown to be applicable and reliably measured within diverse tourism and leisure settings (Bricker and Kerstetter 2000; Gahwiler and Havitz 1998; Kyle and Mowen 2005; 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*

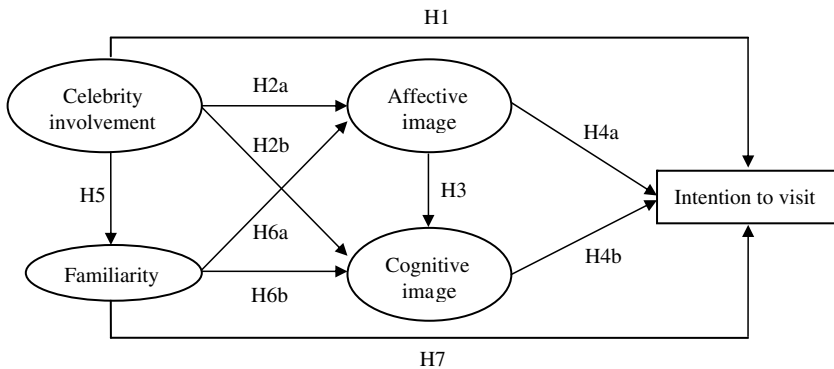


Figure 1. Hypothetical model of the relationship between celebrity involvement and destination perceptions

implies if the leisure activity offers them an opportunity to express their desired images. This research utilizes these three dimensions of leisure involvement.

The concept of leisure involvement provides a valuable theoretical framework for understanding celebrity fandom, particularly in terms of fans' psychological states. Most involvement studies have focused only on activities or products as an object of involvement. However, it is practical to view celebrities as a source of leisure activity or product. The term celebrity involvement is used here to describe the *tendency to develop a heightened affection and attachment to a celebrity*.

It is argued that level of involvement with the chosen celebrity can influence the perceptions of a place the celebrity may signify. That is, the level of celebrity involvement may be positively associated with one's image of the chosen celebrity. As the Elaboration Likelihood Model (ELM) suggests (Petty and Cacioppo 1986) positive images that audiences have of celebrities may be transferred to the products that celebrities represent via the peripheral route. 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). Degree of receptiveness will be higher when the program is 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 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 people's desire 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. For instance, it is often maintained that Elvis Presley's home "Graceland", which is one of the most visited destinations in the U.S., has been elevated to the level of sacred place for many avid fans all over the world. Hinerman (1992) suggests that Elvis fans tend to achieve personal liberation and ego enhancement by actually visiting Graceland and reinforcing their identification with the mass mediated fantasy figure, Elvis Presley. The process of constructing significant personal meanings through visiting a destination associated with an adoring celebrity appears to show a strong similarity with pilgrimage in which pilgrims seek a spiritual experience (Reader 2007). Much literature in tourism, indeed, argues for various tourism phenomena as modern secular pilgrimage (Cohen 1979; Graburn 1983; MacCannell 1976). The main difference is that the attractive power of place does not stem from the figures with religious significance

but from the mass mediated celebrities. Visiting the celebrity related destination is thus an act of consuming the desired qualities that the celebrity may signify. Hence, the following hypothesis is put forward:

H1: *The level of celebrity involvement will have a positive effect on intentions to visit destinations that celebrities signify.*

Destination image refers to a sum of impressions, beliefs, thoughts, perceptions, and feelings built up over time towards a place (Assael 1984; Crompton 1979). It plays a critical role in various decision-making processes and actual experiences people have in tourism destinations (Baloglu and McCleary 1999; Chen and Tsai 2007; Chon 1991; Fakeye and Crompton 1991; Gartner 1993; Lee, Lee and Lee 2005). Previous studies 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).

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 indicated the role of a celebrity as an agent of destination image formation. According to Gartner, the covert induced I represents a traditional advertising projected by second-party spokespeople, which implicitly suggests a power of a celebrity in changing people's images of a destination. There are numerous anecdotes that support the role of impact that celebrities have in shaping destination images. 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". Kolter, Haider and Rein (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 (celebrities such as actors/actresses and singers) who are relatively free from various political and religious concerns can be effective agents for destination image formation. Hence, the following two hypotheses are offered.

H2a: *Level of celebrity involvement will have a positive effect on the cognitive image of destinations that celebrities signify.*

H2b: *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, we hypothesize:

H3: *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 et al 2005). In particular, the positive relationship between the destination image of a place and intention to visit the destinations has been confirmed repeatedly (Court and Lupton 1997; Lee et al 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:

H4a: *The more favorable the cognitive image of a destination, the higher the probability of the intention to visit that destination.*

H4b: *The more favorable the affective image of a destination, the higher the probability of the intention to visit that destination.*

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, 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 a certain level of familiarity with the 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 a multidimensional (Baloglu 2001; Kim and Richardson 2003; Prentice 2004). This study utilizes self-rated familiarity proposed by Kim and Richardson (2003) along with informational and experiential dimensions which are adopted from Baloglu (2001) and Prentice (2004). The self-rated familiarity is evaluative in nature as the construct aims to measure respondents' subjective familiarity with the destination, while informational and experiential familiarity are both behavioral

in nature as those indicate people's behavior that may lead to enhancing one's perceived familiarity with a destination.

Many fans may become familiar with a destination by participating in various activities related to the celebrity. A number of psychological studies (Bornstein 1989; Bornstein and D'Agostino 1992) show that the increased familiarity in the absence of negative qualities tends to elevate the level of affection toward a beloved (here a celebrity). Likewise, as fans are more exposed to mass media that portray their favorite celebrities, they may develop a certain level of attachment and affection to the celebrities. The heightened affection toward the celebrities, in turn, spurs fans to collect more information about the destination that the celebrities signify as well as the celebrities themselves. Hence, it is reasonable to posit a close linkage between celebrity involvement and information search behavior. Indeed, a positive relationship between the leisure involvement and information search behavior has been repeatedly confirmed in previous studies (Bloch, Sherrell and Ridgway 1986; Celsi and Olson 1988; Jamroz, 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 with destinations. 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 either imaginatively or realistically. 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:

H5: 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,

H6a: *The level of familiarity with a tourism destination is positively related to affective image of the destination.*

H6b: *The level of familiarity with a tourism destination is positively related to cognitive image of the destination.*

H7: *The level of familiarity with a tourism destination is positively related to intention to visit the destination.*

Research Methods

Survey methods were used to collect data. Major variables in the questionnaire are leisure involvement with celebrities, destination images (affective/cognitive), destination familiarity, and intention to visit. A leisure involvement scale with three dimensional model (attraction, centrality to lifestyle, and self-expression) was used as a measure of celebrity fandom in this study. Each dimension consisting of 4 items (a total of 12 items) was drawn from previous leisure involvement studies. A five-point Likert-type scale (1 = strongly disagree to 5 = strongly agree) was utilized to measure the construct. The cognitive dimension of Korea image was measured through items from Baloglu and McCleary (1999) with slight modification. A five-point Likert-type scale (1 = strongly disagree to 5 = strongly agree) was also used to measure the construct. As for the affective dimension of Korea image, four bipolar items on a five-point semantic differential scale were used (Baloglu and McCleary 1999). The concept of destination familiarity was measured using sixteen items that were adopted from the study of Prentice (2004). The construct consists of three dimensions: 1) informational, 2) experiential, and 3) self-rated. These items were measured along a five-point Likert-type scale. An intention to visit Korea was measured using a seven-point bipolar scale (from 1 = not like to visit Korea to 7 = very much like to visit Korea).

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 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 were recent arrivals to 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.

An on-site survey was conducted at the Haneda airport on both weekdays and weekends (June 2–8, 2006). As this study specifically aims at understanding Japanese' involvement in Korean celebrities and their perceptions of Korea, a group of Japanese interviewers were recruited and trained for the purpose of this survey. Interviewers were instructed to contact every 10th person passing by the several key points. 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. It is reported that most of the Hallyu fans in Japan are among middle age groups. Therefore, it seemed practical to select individuals with over 18 years old as possible study respondents in order to fulfill the purpose of this study. 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.

A total of 618 individuals 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.

The data in this study were analyzed with the Structural Equation Modeling (SEM) using LISREL. In the previous SEM literatures, a number of fit indices have been recommended. 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).

Respondents Profiles

The final data set for the SEM analysis included 403 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

Table 1. Measurement parameter estimates (N = 403)

Constructs and Indicators	Standardized loadings	t-value ^a	R ²	α^b	ρ^c
Celebrity Involvement				.94	.95
Attraction	.87	12.29	.76		
Centrality	.99	1.96	.98		
Self-expression	.90	11.11	.82		
Familiarity				.77	.78
Informational familiarity	.89	6.30	.78		
Self-rated familiarity	.75	11.24	.57		
Experiential familiarity	.54	13.31	.30		
Affective Image				.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				.85	.86
Community Amenities	.90	4.95	.81		
Natural/Cultural Attractions	.83	8.39	.69		
Intention to Visit Korea				1.00	1.00

^a All t-values are significant at $p < .05$; ^b α = Cronbach's alpha; ^c ρ = Composite reliability.

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 interviewers approached people at the airport, married women who are 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 are the largest group (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 was evenly represented.

The Measurement Model

The overall measurement quality was checked through confirmatory factor analysis (Anderson and Gerbing 1988). 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, Anderson, Tatham and Black 1998). The reliability for each construct was assessed via Cronbach's Alpha and composite reliability. As shown in Table 1, the Cronbach's Alphas (α) and composite reliability were all

Table 2. Correlation estimates (Φ)

Variable	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	Variance Extracted (q_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	-	

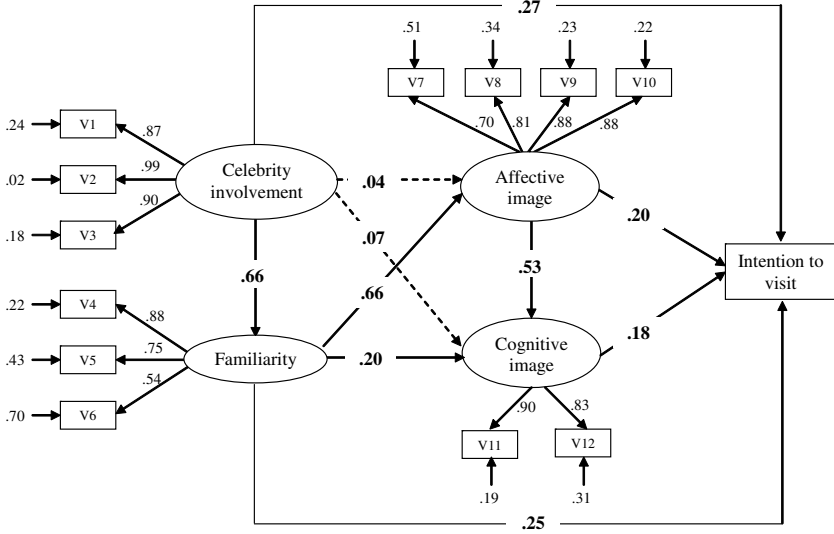
greater than the recommended level of .70 (Bagozzi 1980; Nunnally 1978). This suggests that the measures are internally consistent.

The convergent validity, which refers to the agreement among indicators of a scale, was also tested using confirmatory factor analysis. 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.

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 (q_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 (q_v) is greater than the squared correlations (Φ) (see Table 2). 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.

Hypotheses Testing

The structural model was tested next (see Figure 2). Table 3 presents standardized path coefficients resulting from testing the proposed structural model. The goodness of fit indices (Chi-square = 359.52, $df = 66$, $p < .001$; CFI = .96; NNFI = .94; SRMR = .05) supports the appropriateness of the structural model. Most structural path estimates were significant (support was found for eight of the ten hypothesized paths). The signs of structural paths were 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. Figure 2 shows the results of hypothesis testing. Over-



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 2. Standardized structural path coefficients

all, there was a strong support for the positive effects of celebrity involvement on various destination perceptions. H1 postulated a positive relationship between celebrity involvement and intention to visit the destination. In deed, 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 were likely to report a high level of intention to visit Korea.

H2 (H2a and H2b), which stated there would be a positive 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 influenced neither affective nor cognitive images of Korea. 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 posited that affective image is positively related to cognitive image. As hypothesized, the result shows that there was indeed a significantly positive relationship between affective image and cognitive image (H3: $\beta_{32} = .53$, t -value = 7.34). Although both components of destination images are conceptually distinct, the empirical results from many previous studies show that those are closely interconnected. The results also show that the respondents who had positive affective image

Table 3. Structural path estimates

Paths	Estimates	t-value ^a
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%		

^a p < .05; n.s. = non significant.

of Korea were also likely to have a correspondingly positive cognitive image of Korea.

H4 stated 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-value = 3.01) and cognitive image (H4b: $\beta_{13} = .18$, t-value = 3.04) on intention to visit was significantly positive. As a result, H4a and H4b were accepted in this study. Put differently, respondents who had positive affective and/or cognitive image of Korea were more likely to visit Korea in future. This supports much literature suggesting that destination images are among the most important factors in predicting tourists' destination choices.

H5 postulated a positive relationship between celebrity involvement and destination familiarity. The hypothesis was supported as celebrity involvement had significantly positive effects on destination familiarity (H5: $\gamma_{14} = .66$, t-value = 12.94). The respondents who were highly

involved with a Korean celebrity tended to indicate a high level of familiarity with Korea.

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

H7 offered a 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 -value = 3.44). Hence, H7 was accepted. This suggests that the respondents who were familiar with Korea expressed a high level of intention to visit Korea in the future.

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 or not 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 2), 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. Although the effects of the direct structural path between celebrity involvement and image was not significant in the model, it is important to note that there were significant indirect effects between the two latent variables that are mediated by familiarity. That is, celebrity involvement contributes to familiarity which, in turn, affects destination images.

CONCLUSION

The main purpose of this study was to investigate how people's involvement with a celebrity influences their perceptions of tourism destinations. A review of related literature generated a theoretical model 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.

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 (Eichberg 1992; Guttman 1986; Harrington and Bielby 1995; Jenkins 1992; Leerhsen 1986). The present study conceived celebrity fandom as a type of leisure activity to which people have varying degrees of attachment. From this perspective, celebrity fandom is conceived as consisting of three dimensions (i.e., attraction, centrality and self-expression). Further, as celebrity involvement was theorized to be an antecedent of 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.

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 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, more studies are needed to understand how celebrities contribute to the construction of destination perceptions in the minds of people who have a great deal of interest in the celebrity.

This study failed to provide evidence for the linkage between the celebrity involvement and destination images. This 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). The notion of distance decay suggests that visitation patterns as well as destination related perceptions are strongly affected by a geographical distance between tourists and destinations (Prebensen 2007). As geographical distance increases, tourists are likely to have less solid images of a destination due to decreased opportunities for both first- and second-hand experience with the destination. Conversely, 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. That is, it can be argued that strength of destination image is associated with the amount of information received, and geographical

proximity is an important factor that affects the flow of information. 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.

Another plausible explanation is related to the fact that 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 is needed to better capture the underlying process of human perception in relation to the celebrity involvement.

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 multi-dimensional conceptualization and operationalization (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.

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. Particularly, Cohen's (1972;1979) notion of familiarity and novelty continuum in tourism motivation should be incorporated to better understand the function of the two seemingly opposite forces in tourism motivation, which may help further identify the characteristics of celebrity induced tourists. It is hard to make any conclusive inferences at this point given that the present study was not designed to incorporate Cohen's contention of novelty seeking versus familiarity seeking tourists. A caution should be made in order to validate such theoretical assumption and further 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.

Finally, 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 et al 2005). The finding suggests that destination image, as well as familiarity with the destination, is a significant factor that affects destination choice process.

From a practical perspective, this study illustrated that the level of familiarity and interest in visiting a 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 tourism 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.

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 ana-

lyzed 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.

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.

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 will become even greater in the future. Destination marketers should be more attentive to the iconic power of celebrities when promoting destinations. **A**

REFERENCES

- Anderson, J., and D. Gerbing
1988 Structural Equation Modeling in Practice: A Review and Recommended Two-step Approach. *Psychological Bulletin* 103(3):411–423.
- Aronson, E., T. Wilson and R. Akert
1999 *Social Psychology* (3rd edition). New York: Addison Wesley Longman.
- Assael, H.
1984 *Consumer Behavior and Marketing Action*. Boston: Kent.
- Bagozzi, R.
1980 *Causal Models in Marketing*. New York: John Wiley.
- Bagozzi, R., Y. Yi and L. Philips
1991 Assessing Construct Validity in Organization Research. *Administrative Sciences Quarterly* 36:258–421.
- Baloglu, S.
2001 Image Variations of Turkey by Familiarity Index: Informational and experiential dimensions. *Tourism Management* 22:127–133.
- Baloglu, S., and K. McCleary
1999 A Model of Destination Image Formation. *Annals of Tourism Research* 26:868–897.
- Beeton, S.
2001 Smiling for the Camera: The Influence of Film Audiences on a Budget Tourism Destination. *Tourism, Culture and Communication* 3: 15-25.
2004 Rural Tourism in Australia: Has the Gaze Altered? Tracking Rural Images through Film and Tourism Promotion. *International Journal of Tourism Research* 6: 125-135.

- Beeton, S.
2005 *Film-induced Tourism*. Tonawanda, NW: Channel View Publications.
- Bigné, J., L. Andreu and J. Gnoth
2005 The Theme Park Experience: An Analysis of Pleasure, Arousal and Satisfaction. *Tourism Management* 26(6):833–844.
- Bigné, J., M. Sanchez and J. Sanchez
2001 Tourism Image, Evaluation Variables and after Purchase Behavior: Inter-relationship. *Tourism Management* 22:607–616.
- Bloch, P., D. Sherrell and N. Ridgway
1986 Consumer Search: An Extended Framework. *Journal of Consumer Research* 13:119–126.
- Bollen, K.
1989 *Structural Equation with Latent Variable*. New York: Wiley & Sons.
- Bornstein, R.
1989 Exposure and Affect: Overview and Meta-analysis of Research, 1968-1987. *Psychological Bulletin* 106:265–289.
- Bornstein, R., and P. D'Agostino
1992 Stimulus Recognition and The Mere Exposure Effect. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology* 63:545–552.
- Bricker, K., and D. Kerstetter
2000 Level of Specialization and Place Attachment: An Exploratory Study of Whitewater Recreationists. *Leisure Sciences* 22(4):233–257.
- Bryan, H.
1977 Leisure Value Systems and Recreational Specialization: The Case of Trout Fisherman. *Journal of Leisure Research* 9:174–187.
- Burch, W.
1969 The Social Circles of Leisure: Competing Explanations. *Journal of Leisure Research* 1:125–147.
- Caughey, J.
1978 Artificial Social Relations in Modern America. *American Quarterly* 30(1):70–89.
- Celsi, R., and J. Olson
1988 The Role of Involvement in Attention and Comprehension Processes. *Journal of Consumer Research* 15:210–224.
- Chen, C., and D. Tsai
2007 How Destination Image and Evaluative Factors Affect Behavioral Intentions?. *Tourism Management* 28:1115–1122.
- Chon, K.
1991 Tourism Destination Image Modification Process: Marketing Implications. *Tourism Management* 12:68–72.
- Cohen, E.
1972 Towards a Sociology of International Tourism. *Social Research* 39(1):164–182.
1979 A Phenomenology of Tourist Experiences. *Sociology* 13:179–201.
- Connell, J.
2005 Toddlers, Tourism and Tobermory: Destination Marketing Issues and Television-induced Tourism. *Tourism Management* 26:763–776.
- Couldry, N.
2007 On the Set of the Sopranos: Inside a Fan's Construction of Nearness. In *Fandom: Identities and Communities in a Mediated World*, J. Gray, C. Sandvoss and C. Harrington, eds., pp. 139–148. New York: New York University Press.
- Court, B., and R. Lupton
1997 Customer Portfolio Development: Modeling Destination Adopters, Inactives and Rejecters. *Journal of Travel Research* 36:35–43.
- Crompton, J.
1979 An Assessment of the Image of Mexico as a Vacation Destination and the Influence of Geographical Location upon That Image. *Journal of Travel Research* 17:18–23.
- Ditton, R., D. Loomis and S. Choi
1992 Recreation Specialization: Re-conceptualization from a Social Worlds Perspective. *Journal of Leisure Research* 24(1):33–51.

- Eichberg, H.
1992 Crisis and Grace: Soccer in Denmark. *Scandinavian Journal of Medicine and Science in Sports* 2:119–128.
- Fakeye, P., and J. Crompton
1991 Image Difference between Prospective, First-time, and Repeat Visitors to the Lower Rio Grande Valley. *Journal of Travel Research* 30:10–16.
- Fiske, J.
1992 The Cultural Economy of Fandom. *In The Adoring Audience: Fan Culture and Popular Media*, L. Lewis, ed., pp. 30–49. New York: Routledge.
- Frost, W.
2006 Braveheart-ed Ned Kelly: Historic Films, Heritage Tourism and Destination Image. *Tourism Management* 27:247–254.
- Fornell, C., and D. Lacker
1981 Two Structural Equation Models with Unobservable Variables and Measurement Error. *Journal of Marketing Research* 18:39–50.
- Gahwiler, P., and M. Havitz
1998 Toward a Relational Understanding of Leisure Social Worlds, Involvement, Psychological Commitment, and Behavioral Loyalty. *Leisure Sciences* 20(1):1–23.
- Gartner, W.
1993 Image Formation Process. *Journal of Travel and Tourism Marketing* 2:191–216.
- Graburn, N.
1983 The Anthropology of Tourism. *Annals of Tourism Research* 10:9–33.
- Guttman, A.
1986 *Sport Spectators*. New York: Columbia University Press.
- Hair, J., R. Anderson, R. Tatham and W. Black
1998 *Multivariate Data Analysis* (fifth ed.). New Jersey: Prentice Hall.
- Harrington, C., and D. Bielby
1995 *Soap Fans: Pursuing Pleasure and Making Meaning in Everyday life*. Philadelphia: Temple University Press.
- Hatcher, L.
1994 *A Step-by-step Approach to Using the SAS Systems for Factor Analysis and Structural Equation Modeling*. Cary, NC: SAS Institute.
- Havitz, M., and F. Dimanche
1997 Leisure Involvement Revisited: Conceptual Conundrums and Measurement Advances. *Journal of Leisure Research* 29(3):245–278.
- Hinerman, S.
1992 I will be Here with You: Fans, Fantasy, and the Figure of Elvis. *In The Adoring Audience: Fan Culture and Popular Media*, L. Lewis, ed., pp. 107–134. New York: Routledge.
- Horton, D., and R. Wohl
1956 Mass Communication and Parasocial Interaction: Observation on Intimacy at a Distance. *Psychiatry* 19(3):188–211.
- Hu, Y., and J. Ritchie
1993 Measuring Destination Attractiveness: A Contextual Approach. *Journal of Travel Research* 32:25–32.
- Hu, L., and P. M. Bentler
1998 Fit Indices in Covariance Structure Modeling: Sensitivity to Underparameterized Model Misspecification. *Psychological Methods* 3(4):424–453.
- Hudson, S., and J. R. B. Ritchie
2006 Promoting Destinations via Film Tourism: An empirical Identification of Supporting Marketing Initiatives. *Journal of Travel Research* 44:387–396.
- Jamrozy, U., S. Backman, and K. Backman
1996 Involvement and Opinion Leadership in Tourism. *Annals of Tourism Research* 23:908–924.

- Jenkins, H.
1992 Strangers No More, We Sing: Filking and the Social Construction of the Science Fiction Fan Community. *In* *The Adoring Audience: Fan Culture and Popular Media*, L. Lewis, ed., pp. 208–236. New York: Routledge.
- Jense, J.
1992 Fandom as Pathology: The Consequences of Characterization. *In* *The Adoring Audience: Fan Culture and Popular Media*, L. Lewis, ed., pp. 9–29. New York: Routledge.
- Judd, C., E. Smith and L. Kidder
1991 *Research Methods in Social Relations*. Fort Worth, TX: Harcourt Brace Jovanovich college publishers.
- Kerstetter, D., and G. Kovich
1997 The Involvement Profiles of Division I women's Basketball Spectators. *Journal of Sport Management* 29:320–341.
- Kim, H., and S. Richardson
2003 Motion Picture Impacts on Destination Images. *Annals of Tourism Research* 30:216–237.
- Kim, S., J. Agrusa, H. Lee and K. Chon
2007 Effects of Korean Television Dramas on the Flow of Japanese Tourists. *Tourism Management* 28:1340–1353.
- Kline, R.
1998 *Principles and Practices of Structural Equation Modeling*. New York: The Guildford Press.
- Korea National Tourism Organization (KNTO) 2004 www.knto.or.kr
- Kotler, P., D. Haider and I. Rein
1993 *Marketing Places: Attracting Investment, Industry, and Tourism to Cities, States, and Nations*. New York: The Free Press.
- Kyle, G., and A. Mowen
2005 An Examination of the Leisure Involvement: Agency Commitment Relationship. *Journal of Leisure Research* 37(3):342–363.
- Lasch, C.
1979 *The Culture of Narcissism*. London: Abacus.
- Laurent, G., and J. Kapferer
1985 Measuring Consumer Involvement Profiles. *Journal of Marketing Research* 22:41–53.
- Lee, T., and J. Crompton
1992 Measuring Novelty Seeking in Tourism. *Annals of Tourism Research* 19:732–752.
- Lee, C., Y. Lee, and B. Lee
2005 Korea's Destination Image Formed by the 2002 World Cup. *Annals of Tourism Research* 32:839–858.
- Leerhsen, C.
1986 Aging playboy. *Newsweek* (August 4) 108:50–56.
- MacCannell, D.
1976 *The Tourist: A New Theory of the Leisure Class*. New York: Schocken Books.
- Mackay, K., and D. Fesenmaier
1997 Pictorial Element of Destination in Image Formation. *Annals of Tourism Research* 24:537–565.
- Madrigal, R.
1995 Cognitive and Affective Determinants of Fan Satisfaction with Sporting Event Attendance. *Journal of Leisure Research* 27(3):205–207.
- McIntyre, N., and J. Pigram
1992 Recreation Specialization Reexamined: The Case of Vehicle-based Campers. *Leisure Research* 14:3–15.
- Mercille, J.
2005 Media Effects on Image: The Case of Tibet. *Annals of Tourism Research* 32:1039–1055.
- Milman, A., and A. Pizam
1995 The Role of Awareness and Familiarity with a Destination: The Central Florida Case. *Journal of Travel Research* 33:21–27.

- Nunnally, J.
1978 *Psychometric Theory* (second ed.). New York: McGraw-Hill.
- Olsen, J., J. McAlexander and S. Roberts
1986 The Impact of the Visual Content of Advertisements upon the Perceived Vacation Experience. *Tourism Services Marketing: Advance in Theory and Practice*(2):260–269.
- Perdue, R.
1993 External Information Search in Marine Recreational Fishing. *Leisure Sciences* 15:169–187.
- Petrick, J.
2002 Development of a Multi-dimensional Scale for Measuring the Perceived Value of a Service. *Journal of Leisure Research* 34(2):119–134.
- Petty, R., and J. Cacioppo
1986 *Communication and persuasion: Central and peripheral routes to attitude change*. New York: Springer-Verlag.
- Prebensen, N.
2007 Exploring tourists' images of a distant destination. *Tourism Management* 28:747–756.
- Prentice, R.
2003 The Distant Familiarity? Young British Adults' Imaginings of Australia. *In Riding the Wave of Tourism and Hospitality Research*. R. Braithwaite and R. Braithwaite, eds., Lismore, NSW: Southern Cross University, (CD-ROM file 133).
- Prentice, R.
2004 Tourist Familiarity and Imagery. *Annals of Tourism Research* 31:923–945.
- Prentice, R., and V. Andersen
2000 Evoking Ireland: Modeling Tourist Propensity. *Annals of Tourism Research* 27:490–516.
- Reader, I.
2007 Pilgrimage Growth in the Modern World: Meanings and Implications. *Religion* 37(3):210–229.
- Richins, M., and P. Bloch
1986 After the New Wears off: The Temporal Context of Product Involvement. *Journal of Consumer Research* 13:280–285.
- Riesman, D.
1950 *The Lonely Crowd*. New Haven: Yale University Press.
- Riley, R., and C. Van Doren
1992 Movies as Tourism Promotion: A “Pull” Factor in a “Push” Location. *Tourism Management* 13:267–274.
- Riley, R., D. Baker and C. Van Doren
1998 Movie Induced Tourism. *Annals of Tourism Research* 25:919–935.
- Rojek, C.
1995 *Decentering Leisure: Rethinking Leisure Theory*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications.
- Russel, J.
1985 A Circumplex Model of Affect. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology* 29:1161–1178.
- Sandvoss, C.
2005 *Fans: The Mirror of Consumption*. Cambridge, UK: Polity Press.
- Santos, C.
2004 Framing Portugal: Representational Dynamics. *Annals of Tourism Research* 31:122–138.
- Slama, M., and A. Tashchian
1985 Selected Socioeconomic and Demographic Characteristics Associated with Purchasing Involvement. *Journal of Marketing* 49:72–82.
- Soriano, M., and G. Foxall
2002 A Spanish Translation of Mehrabian and Russell's Emotionality Scales for Environmental Consumer Psychology. *Journal of Consumer Behavior* 2(1):23–36.
- Tooke, N., and M. Baker
1996 Seeing is Believing: The Effect of Film on Visitor Numbers in Screened Locations. *Tourism Management* 17:87–94.

Venkatraman, M.

1988 Investigating Differences in the Roles of Enduring and Instrumentally Involved Consumers in the Diffusion Process. *Advances in Consumer Research* 15:299–303.

Submitted 5 July 2007. Resubmitted 25 January 2008. Final Version 30 April 2008. Accepted 12 June 2008. Refereed anonymously. Coordinating Editor: Bill Gartner

Available online at www.sciencedirect.com

