From fandom to tourism: An examination of self-expansion theory

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FROM FANDOM TO TOURISM:
AN EXAMINATION OF SELF-EXPANSION THEORY

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ABSTRACT

In recent years, pop-culture tourism, in which individuals travel to destinations made famous through pop-culture or relative media themes, has come into the spotlight. The new market segment induced by pop-culture has created a specialized but dedicated consumer, called a “fan.” This study examined the impact of pop-stars on a destination from the perspective of fans. Specifically, the research investigated whether fans at different degrees of fandom had different travel attitudes and behaviors with regard to motivation, satisfaction, attachment, and loyalty in the destination context by applying self-expansion theory. In particular, Korean pop-star’s fans were chosen as the study example of Korean pop-culture.

This research provided empirical support for the impact of fandom on tourism. Results of the study revealed a new characteristic of fans, a high level of self-expansion. Fans’ self-expansion was significant in influencing their fandom and travel motivation. As a result, a high degree of fandom had a significant effect on travel satisfaction and destination loyalty.

Given the growing importance of pop-culture tourism, this research is among the first studies to investigate the impact of fandom on tourism, providing new insights in understanding this niche segment from the pop-culture fans’ perspective. The examination of self-expansion theory on fandom and tourism has helped to bridge the link between a fan and a destination, extending the literature on destination studies, and suggesting meaningful implications for destination marketers. The findings of this study suggest that future research continue to investigate destination markets with different and/or broader contexts using diverse research approaches.
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CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

“I visit Korea because I am happy simply with the fact that I can breathe the same air with my pop-star.”

In an interview with a pop-star fan, 2008

Fans, stars, and media often cross over popular culture boundaries that exist in music, television, and movies (Fiske, 1992). Popular culture or “pop-culture,” is defined as manifestations in several varying facets of entertainment such as professional sports, music, film, literature, and television. As consumer media has made pop-culture increasingly prevalent throughout society, each manifestation has also drawn people to the very destinations where it can be experienced. In recent years “pop-culture tourism,” in which individuals travel to destinations made famous through pop-culture or relative media themes, has come into the spotlight (Miller & Washington, 2007). Pop-culture tourism involves travel to destinations featured in film, literature, music and television, those related to a particular celebrity, or any other location that could be associated with pop-culture or media themes (Miller & Washington, 2007).

The most obvious place for zealous fans to seek some sort of experience, perhaps even intimacy would be a celebrity’s home. For instance, Elvis Presley’s famed home, Graceland in Memphis, has attracted over 600,000 visitors a year as the second most-visited private home in America. Along with the homes of celebrities, venues where
movies and television shows were filmed have become popular tourist destinations. In 2006, after the release of the movie *The Da Vinci Code*, the number of monthly visitors to Rosslyn Chapel, South Edinburgh increased to over 26,000 a month as compared to 6,000 visitors a year previously (Miller & Washington, 2007).

Special interest tourists are defined as travelers who visit destinations to pursue their desire for novelty, quality, and experience in a particular region or destination (Read, 1980). Tourists driven by pop-culture can also be considered special interest tourists. Special interest tourism has developed in many different aspects, including culture, heritage, nature, health, sports, wine, and festivals (Hall, 1989; Hall & Zeppel, 1990; Tabata, 1989; Young & Crandall, 1984). As more and more people visit various destinations to indulge their particular interests, special interest tourism has been identified as niche tourism in government tourism strategies worldwide (Macleod, 2003). Highly involved special interest tourists are considered opinion leaders because they would likely be more receptive to destination information and willingly spread positive word-of-mouth (Jamrozy, Backman, & Backman, 1996).

The new market segment induced by pop-culture has created a specialized but dedicated consumer, called a “fan.” Fans are those individuals who have attached importance to a transitional object, imbuing it with special personal, communal and symbolic value (Winnicott, 1974). As fans’ behaviors, choices, and characteristics are further structured through social, cultural, and economic capital, fan consumption has been recognized and appreciated by the greater public, media, and business sector (Gray, Sandvoss, & Harrington, 2007).
Pop-star fans are a unique group of individuals as many are highly involved with and have an emotional attachment to their pop-star. It is argued that each fan’s level of involvement with the pop-star is assumed to be positively associated with personal achievement, ego enhancement, and identification reinforcement through a famous figure (Lee, Scott, & Kim, 2008). Also, this type of association can translate into a level of worship, culminating in fans visiting destinations associated with a celebrity. The process of constructing important personal significance through a visit to a particular destination appears to show a strong similarity to the quintessential pilgrimage in which individuals seek a spiritual experience (Reader, 2007).

The bridge between celebrities and mass audiences in popular culture is called “fandom” (Grossberg, 1992). Fandom is a serious leisure activity, a state of profound attention and adulation toward an interest expressed in feelings, attitudes, and behaviors (Lee et al., 2008). Fandom has grown into a global phenomenon that draws on popular culture (Gray et al., 2007). Another fan-related concept, fanaticism, has been discussed in various areas such as psychology and sociology, while sometimes being treated as identical to fandom. Some studies have even investigated fans’ behaviors by using the term “fanaticism” without differentiating it from “fandom” (i.e., Mackellar, 2006). Ultimately, fanaticism is expressed in terms of extreme enthusiasm, incoherency, and intolerance (Redden & Steiner, 2000). Relative to this concept, this study defines fanaticism as an extreme form or highest degree of fandom.

Lasch (1979) argued that narcissists seek heroes or famous people as an extension of themselves and tend to identify with those people to fulfill their desires for fame and social approval. This study attempts to understand the impact of a pop-star on a
destination as a transition from the fans relationship with pop-star to the fans relationship with the destination by applying the aspects of “extension,” “expansion,” or “transfer”.

Self-expansion theory (Aron & Aron, 1986) introduced a concept in which individuals possess an inherent motivation for self-expansion, a desire to incorporate others (here pop-stars and destinations) into one’s conception of “self.” This study adopts self-expansion theory to link the relationship between a pop-star’s fans and their attitudes and behaviors toward a destination.

**Background of the Study**

**Korean Popular Culture**

Korean pop-culture has gained a fast-growing popularity across many Asian countries through various channels such as pop-stars, movie, popular music, soap operas, and other forms of mass media since the late 1990s. Particularly ever since two Korean soap operas, “What is love all about?” and “Stars in my heart” were on the air in mainland China in 1997 and 1998 respectively, South Korea's recent surge in pop-culture has sparked tremendous interest for all Chinese generations. The interest in Korean soap operas was not limited to China; it was spreading to South East Asian countries, India, the Middle East, Central Asia, Iran, Israel, Turkey, and Russia (Korea National Tourism Organization [KNTO], 2004). The continuous success of soap operas such as “Winter Sonata” in 2003 and “Jewel in the Place” in 2005 led to the thriving of Korean popular culture in most Asian countries.

**Korean Wave**

This trend is referred to “Hallyu (韓流)” which means “Korean Wave.” In 1999, the term Hallyu was first introduced by Chinese media and afterwards has been used to
describe the trend and impacts of Korean pop-culture on most Asian countries (Lee, 2007). In particular, Korean dramas or soap operas have become a main component of the Korean wave. Initiated through Korean soap operas, Hallyu represents various facets of Korean popular culture such as pop-stars or celebrities, film, pop-music, entertainment, and performances. As a result, exports of Korean television dramas skyrocketed in the early 2000s. Korean television programming exports have increased dramatically, earning $37.5M in 2003, compared with $12.7M in 1999 (Shim, 2006). Further, in 2005 television exports reached $100 M, according to the Korean Ministry of Culture, Sports, and Tourism (Kim & Jeffe, 2010). The Korean music industry’s earnings increased from $31M in 2009 to $177M in 2010, while film exports almost doubled from $14M to $26M (Oliver, 2012). In addition, over the same time period broadcasting exports (e.g., television dramas) went from $185M to $252M. In 2011, Korean culture exports reached $4.2B in revenue, a 15% increase from 2009 (Heo, 2011; Oliver, 2012).

The early stage of Hallyu was characterized as consumption of entertainment products such as soap operas, albums, movies (Lee, 2007). At this stage, merchandise was mainly related to soap operas and pop-stars. The Hallyu phenomenon has moved to the next stage of its popularity as more significantly active, expanding its impacts on broader contexts of Korean cultures and its tourism in many surrounding countries, including Taiwan, Hong Kong, and Japan. Pop-stars have significantly influenced consumer culture, including food, fashion, make-up trends, and even plastic surgery (Shim, 2006). Given Asians infatuation with Korean culture, regional fans became
interested in its language, fashion, cuisine, and ultimately, visiting the country itself. This stage was defined as a transnational and sociocultural phenomenon (Lee, 2007).

Along with Korean soap operas, Korean Pop Music, or K-pop began emerged in China, Japan and Thailand in the early 2000s and has become a large part of the Korean Wave (Heo, 2011). In recent years, K-pop has steadily gained influence in foreign markets outside of Asia, such as North America, Latin America, Australia, and Europe while also creating a second Korean Wave (Seo, Lee, Hong, & Jung, 2012). For example, in 2012, the nine-member Girls’ Generation group from Korea gained attentions in the US by appearing on two popular TV programs, “The Late Show with David Letterman” and “Live! With Kelly.” Current K-pop stars include Rain, TVXQ, Big Bang, Super Junior, Girls’ generation, and the Wonder Girls. The Korean Wave is further popularized through social media sites (e.g., Facebook, Youtube, Tumblr, Twitter, DramaFever, Hulu) and fosters niche markets for Asia, Europe and the North America regions (Seo et al., 2012). In 2011, for example, K-pop videos were viewed nearly 2.3B times in 235 countries on YouTube (Jeong & Song, 2012).

**Korean pop-star fans**

K-pop is driving the Korean Wave abroad and particularly for Asian women in their 20s who make up the majority of overseas Korean pop-culture fans. A Korea Tourism Organization survey of 12,085 K-pop fans found that 55% were most interested in K-pop, followed by TV dramas (33%), film (6%) and others (7%) (Kim, Y., 2011). The majority of the survey respondents were Asians (76%), ages 20-29 (49%), and predominantly female (90%). The top five K-pop star groups included Super Junior (13%), Big Bang (9%), JYJ (7%), TVXQ (5%), and Girls’ Generation (4%). The survey revealed that
Japanese in their 40s and 50s showed the most interest in TV programs such as soap operas while Japanese in their 20s and 30s showed the strongest interest in K-pop music.

The Ministry of Culture, Tourism, and Sports estimated the number of overseas fans of Korean pop culture in 2011 at 3.3M across 182 fan clubs in over 20 different geographic regions (Jeong, 2011). This indicates that Korean pop culture has significant influence in many Asian, European and American countries. Since the estimation is based on a survey recently conducted by the Korean Culture and Information Service overseas, actual numbers of Korean Wave fans are estimated to be greater when non-official fan clubs are included. Asia had the largest number of fans (2.31M) in eight regions including Japan, China, and Vietnam. There were about 500,000 fans in four South and North American regions and 460,000 in seven European areas, including Britain, France and Turkey (Jeong, 2011).

**Impacts of Korean Wave on tourism**

Over the last decade, Hallyu has spurred travel to Korea from around the globe (Lee, 2007). Many Korean pop-stars’ fans have traveled to their favorite pop-star’s homeland to pursue their interest and to participate in events and activities. The Korea National Tourism Organization (KNTO) reported that from 2003 to 2004, tourism increased from 2.8M to 3.7M foreign visitors, a 37% increase in tourists (KNTO, 2004). In 2007, 6.4M foreign tourists visited South Korea, making it the 36th most visited country in the world (UNTWO, 2008). In 2009, South Korea ranked 28th in the world, seventh in Asia for inbound tourism and was expected to exceed 8.5M in 2010. The inbound Korean tourism industry has been enjoying an annual average growth rate of 6 to 7 percent due to the fever of Korean pop-culture (Yeon, 2011).
Problem Statement

Although researchers have long appreciated the impact of pop-culture on destination development – a better perceived destination image and an increase in tourism demand (Kim & Richardson, 2003; Mercille, 2005; Riley, Baker, & Van Doren, 1998), the role of pop-stars in influencing tourism demand has only recently been explored (i.e. Beeton, 2001; Kim, Agrusa, Lee, & Chon, 2007). Lee et al. (2008) introduced the concept of celebrity fandom to the field of tourism studies and attempted to examine the relationship of fan involvement, destination perception, and behavioral intentions. However, the authors pointed out that the role of celebrities in tourism studies remains under-researched.

Marketing research has investigated the role of a celebrity in advertising a product or brand, called “celebrity endorsement” from such approaches as schema theory, attributes theory, and meaning transfer theory. Celebrity endorsement is especially related to a commercial objective for brands or products in an advertisement (McCracken, 1989). Destination marketers have questioned whether a celebrity endorsement can also play an important role in marketing destinations (i.e., Glover, 2009; Van Der Veen, 2008). Glover (2009) suggested that destinations use the perceived image of celebrities in destinations to connect with the public in order to attract potential tourist’s interest. The right celebrity endorser can be effective particularly for the annual main holiday destination in creating a more favorable evaluation of the advertisement than a non-endorsed advertisement (Van Der Veen, 2008). However, the choice of a celebrity to promote a destination could be less appropriate than a product promotion because it is difficult to precisely evaluate the direct impact of the endorsement on a destination (Van
Destinations have certainly different characteristics and attributes from products. Therefore, differentiated and sophisticated approaches should be utilized to investigate the role of celebrities to promote a destination.

Fans and their behavior have only been studied for the past two decades (Gray, Sandvoss, & Harrington, 2007). Most academic research on fans has been limited to the areas of sport and teams (i.e., Laverie & Arnett, 2000). Furthermore, the studies in the 1980s discussed sports fans in light of negative perspectives such as violence and racism (Gray et al., 2007). Hence, relatively few studies have investigated fans in other contexts of pop-culture such as movies or soap operas. Although these few studies mostly borrowed and replicated the foundation of sport fan research, it is generally understood that fan audiences in other areas of pop-culture are obviously different from sports fans (Fiske, 1992). This suggests that fans be studied in broader contexts that should include such diverse components as pop-culture fans and sport fans.

**Purpose of the Study**

The purpose of the study is to examine the impact of fandom on tourism by investigating the fans’ travel attitudes and behavior. More specifically, this study intends to investigate if fans at different degrees of fandom have different travel attitudes and behaviors with regard to motivation, satisfaction, attachment, and loyalty in the destination context by applying the self-expansion theory. For this purpose, the study considers pop-stars’ fans as one category of pop-culture. In particular, Korean pop-star’s fans were chosen as an example of Korean pop-culture.

The research has two objectives. First, the study investigates if this study examines the role of self-expansion on bridging the link between fandom and tourism at two levels:
1) the relationship between a pop-star and the pop-star’s fans, and 2) the relationship between fans and the pop-star’s country. Second, fans with different degrees of fandom have different travel attitudes and behaviors toward a destination. The degree of fandom is evaluated based on such factors as involvement, commitment, attachment, and group identity.

This study applies the self-expansion theory (Aron & Aron, 1986) as a theoretical foundation to bridge the relationship between fans and destinations. The theory posits that people have a desire to expand themselves by acquiring resources, perspectives, and identities to achieve a certain goal. Such expansion entails close relationships that include others in the self, a process that ultimately generates a positive effect. Adopting the theory, this study assumes that fans are motivated to expand themselves to achieve the goal of having a closer relationship with their favorite pop-stars by participating in fan-related activities and visiting the pop-star’s country. As most fans’ activities occur in the pop-star’s native country, usually the best place for resources related to the pop-star, fans want/have to visit the country in order to expand themselves to achieve their goals. Therefore, fans who are highly motivated to expand themselves in general are assumed to be also motivated to travel to the pop-star’s native country.

Motivation to visit a celebrity’s homeland to interact with them or engage in related activities leads to high levels of positive affect and feelings of excitement while traveling the country. This, in turn, enhances the relationship between fans and the pop-star. At the same time, a new relationship between a fan and the destination is established as high travel motivation results in high positive affect toward the destination, high satisfaction with the destination, and destination loyalty, particularly, psychological loyalty (i.e.,
commitment to a long-term relationship) through the mediator of fandom. Thus, the study assumes that self-expansion can play a significant role in bridging the link between a fan and a destination.

**Significance of the Study**

The fan’s consumer behaviors and activities have been described as “positive additions” under the assumption that most of the resulting outcomes from such experiences are beneficial (Glasser, 1976). There is a need to understand fandom from more positive perspectives, at least in the entertainment – celebrity context. A fan, as a specialized but dedicated consumer, has become a centerpiece of media industries’ marketing strategies (Gray et al., 2007). Therefore, it is important to examine if a fan’s behavior towards a destination can also be considered a positive additions in the tourism context. Such a positive addition can have a significant impact on destination popularity because fans are considered deeply committed travelers and significant opinion leaders who are repeat visitors (Holbrook, 1987; Lehmann, 1987; Mackellar, 2006; Scammon, 1987). Along with the “positive addition” of fandom, further research of fan audiences will help clarify consumer behavior in light of popular culture.

Most studies have observed the impact of popular culture on destinations only for the general mass media audiences (i.e., Lee & Scott, 2009; Lee et al., 2008) and not on a pop-star’s particular fans that can be considered the opinion leaders at the forefront of the trend or phenomenon. The most avid fans do not necessarily have to come from the same regions. Many celebrity endorsement studies have selected samples with a convenient sampling strategy (i.e. Lee & Scott, 2009), which has only limited generalizability to the fans population (Soley & Reid, 1983). However, this research deliberately chose to
examine a pop-star’s fans from various countries and regions such as China, Taiwan, Singapore, Malaysia, Hong King, and the U.S. A diverse sample of fans will offer a better understanding of the phenomenon and a greater concrete finding that increases the quality of the research. In addition, the study of myriad nationalities helps to increase the generalizability of the framework.

The impact of popular culture on tourism has recently been studied and approached mostly from exploratory perspectives. This research aims to understand the rationale behind fans’ travels and its influences on their destination from self-expansion theory. It is suggested that the theory be applied into broader areas in which there are significant person-object relationships, such as political psychology, social psychology, health psychology, and environmental psychology (Reimann & Aron, 2009). Just as Reimann and Aron suggested that environmental psychology is a good area to apply the theory to examine the relation of an individual with nature and particular natural locales, this research intends to utilize the self-expansion theory to provide a sound link between fans (person) and destination (nature) as well as the relationship between fans and the pop-stars themselves. The research will contribute to the extension of the theory into the context of tourism by understanding fans’ attitudes and behaviors toward a destination.

As a business attempts to provide customized service to its customers to increase satisfaction, repeat visits, and loyalty, pop-culture tourism destinations have recognized its importance and applied it in marketing. It would be almost impossible to focus on each individual tourist’s characteristics and preferences; however, the study of a particular destination may reveal different degrees of fandom that significantly influence its tourism. This will enable destination marketing organizers to differentiate marketing
strategies for a group of fans as there are similarities in characteristics, attitudes, and behaviors. The findings will be beneficial to destination marketers in recognizing the important characteristics, attitudes, and behaviors of fans and appreciating the different impacts for each destination. This will facilitate destination organizers in implementing differentiated marketing strategies to fans, which will influence tourists’ degree of satisfaction, number of repeat visits, and destination loyalty.

**Definition of Terms**

A Pop-star (Lee, S., 2007) can be considered 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). This study views pop-stars and celebrities as synonymous.

A Fan (Thorne, 2011) can be considered a person with a focused interest in a particular topic, subject, or person. This person may not typically participate directly in the activity, but instead observes it and participates in related activities, contributing varying amounts of time and capital. For the purposes of this study, a fan will be defined in a broader context that extends from the general audience who doesn’t have a typical membership to a fanatic who exhibits extreme interests.

Fandom (Thorne 2011) can be considered a subculture composed of like-minded people, typified by a feeling of closeness to others with a shared interest and having a subject-specific jargon, often characterized by a slight feeling of superiority toward those not “in the know,” particularly when the intensity of involvement is high.
Celebrity Fandom (Lee, S., 2007) can be considered a state of profound attention and adulation toward a celebrity that is expressed in multi-dimensions such as feelings, attitudes, and behaviors.

Fanaticism (Thorne, 2011) can be considered the degree to which one is a fan of a topic, subject or person. The level of interest can vary from low to high levels. Thus, fanaticism is viewed as being a continuous variable, rather than dichotomous. Fanaticism is the result of multiple variables, which are to be identified in this study. The term usually has a negative connotation in the vernacular and is associated with ugly patterns developed from mass movements (Hoffer, 1989, p. 5).
CHAPTER 2

LITERATURE REVIEW

This chapter provides a foundation to better understand the concepts underlying fan attitudes and behaviors and their influences on destination travel. The literature review consists of four main sections. This chapter first starts by providing a cohesive and thorough description on fans, and the concepts of fandom, and fanaticism. The second section reviews key factors that influence fandom - namely, involvement, commitment, attachment, and group identity. The third section discusses fans’ attitudes and behaviors in the context of tourism, including motivation, satisfaction, place attachment, and destination loyalty. The last section provides a theoretical framework to understand how fandom influences travel attitudes and behaviors.

Fan, Fandom, and Fanaticism

Fan

In a variety of perspectives, we are all “fans” of something (Fiske, 1992). A fan has been defined as an individual who has an avid liking or love for something (Gray, Sandvoss, & Harrington, 2007, p.76). The term fan, a word that is derived from fanatic, has been commonly used. However, the word fan has come to mean a range of followers of celebrities, from the casual fan to the obsessive fan (Stever, 1995, 2009). Winnicott (1974) defines fans as those who have attached importance to an object, imbuing it with special personal and/or communal symbolic value. Most recently, Thorne (2011) defined a fan as “one who is inwardly focused and derives primarily intangible results and knowledge from his activities” (p.161).
The early connotation of a fan in the literature has been consistently recognized as a potential fanatic. A screaming, weeping teen at the airport glimpsing a rock star, or the roaring maniacal sports fan rioting at a soccer game would be the image of the frenzied, crazed, and fanatic fan that predominates discussions of pop-star and sports fans (Jenson, 1992). The fan was seen as an irrational, out-of-control individual obsessed with particular figures or cultural forms. These perceptions instigated little interest in exploring fandom from the perspective of a normal, positive, and daily social and cultural occurrence (Jenson, 1992), which led to a relatively short history of fan research (Gray et al., 2007).

Jenson (1992) argues that social inquiry and criticism should proceed differently in order to appreciate the true value of fans in modern societies. As a result, public recognition and appreciation of fans has profoundly changed over the past several decades (Gray et al., 2007). This shift in perspective highlighted the replication of social and cultural hierarchies within fans and fan subcultures, as the choice of fan objects, practices, and behavior were structured through social, cultural, and economic capital (Gray et al., 2007).

Fans exhibit interest, affect, and attachment to figures (Fiske, 1992) and tend to engage with them in an emotionally involved way rather than rational way (Gray et al., 2007). Fans have a remarkably emotional relationship with their interests (e.g., Harrington & Bielby, 1995; Hill, 2002). However, “emotional” does not mean “irrational.” Rationality is “a special set of abilities that are recruited from the emotion systems in the brain to enable us to adapt to the challenges that daily confront us” (Marcus, 2002, p.7). Neuroscientists showed that a person’s rational decision making
was heavily influenced by his/her brain’s emotional center. Emotion leads to rational thinking and in turn to action according to the deliberation (Marcus, 2002). Therefore, it is necessary to recognize the importance of emotion in understanding fans and their behavior from more positive perspectives.

Fans organize their identities by invoking them across various social conditions (Stryker, 1968). Social identity theory explains how and why individuals select certain identity related activities, given all of the possible alternatives (Serpe, 1987). Fans focus on pop-culture because industrially-produced texts foster identification and participation by audience members (Fiske, 1992). Identification is important to make them distinctive from others. A number of researchers have reported fan behavior consistent with those exhibited by other groups. Sport fans, for example, have been shown to categorize themselves as ingroups and others as outgroups (Voci, 2006). Therefore, in-group solidarity among members of fan clubs is considered to be an important fandom activity. This research suggests that a sport fan regards the self and other fans in the same group as sharing an important group identity.

In business contexts, research suggests that associating a brand or a consumer product with a consumer’s ingroup in a persuasive appeal such as an ad generally leads to more positive attitudes (Park, Preister, MacInnis, & Wan, 2009). Hence, group-based relationships can have a positive effect on attitudes. More generally, linking a positive attitude to an object in a persuasive appeal with an ingroup has been found to typically lead to more positive attitudes (Fleming, 2009). For example, persuasion has been found to be greater when the source of a persuasive message about an object is a member of the message recipient’s ingroup rather than outgroup (e.g. Cohen, 2003), when an attitudinal
position toward an object is attributed to a message recipient’s ingroup rather than outgroup (e.g., Wood, Pool, Leck, & Purvis, 1996), or when a persuasive message simply relates the object to a message recipient’s ingroup (e.g., Reed, 2004).

Fan audiences in popular culture are different from sports fans (Fiske, 1992; Gray et al., 2007). One of the most distinctive differences is based on the type of activity; in sports, winning or losing is very important while in pop-culture, winning or losing is meaningless. In sports, for example, fans tend to continue to support a team because of its success of the team (Wann, Tucker, & Schrader, 1996). On the other hand, such forces do not influence celebrity fans and their behaviors. The different characteristics of the two groups lead to different attitudes and behaviors toward their interests.

In addition, these differences reflect the different types and status of fan audience. An example is gender. In general, sport is perceived as a male-oriented area while celebrities are occasionally associated with an image of admiring, weeping girls. The composition of gender between the two groups is clearly different. Sport tends to have more male fans while the majority of celebrity fans are female. The different composition of gender indicates that there is the possibility that previous sport fans studies have collected data from more men than women, which may result in representing more men’s perspectives than women.

Gender difference has been recognized as an important topic in psychology and sociology. In a study of sport fans, for instance, Wann, Inman, Ensor, Gates, and Caldwell (1999) investigated the relationship between aggressiveness and fandom, and concluded there was no significant correlation between the two constructs for either men or women. While reporting that men had higher fandom than women, the authors failed
to find any impact of gender on aggressiveness and fandom. Many sport research studies, furthermore, do not provide gender information in the results section (i.e., Funk & James, 2006; Laverie & Arnett, 2000), which may hinder thorough interpretations of gender effects. Therefore, researchers should be careful in generalizing findings, and not assume that sports fans represent all fans. Furthermore, pop-star or celebrity-oriented fan studies should be conducted to compare similarities and differences between genders.

Although differences exist between sport and other pop-star fans, the psychological literature on fans has heavily focused on sport fans, with only few studies on celebrity fans (Maltby, Day, McCutcheon, Houran, & Ashe, 2006; Reysen & Branscombe, 2010). The predominant research focus on sport fans limits the generalizability of the findings to other membership groups such as celebrity fan clubs.

Fans are “associated with the cultural tastes of subordinated formations of the people, particularly those disempowered by any combination of gender, age, class and race” (Fiske, 1992, p.30). Scholars argue that age is a function of the specific type of media content being studied (Peiser & Peter, 2001) and an essential element to influence fans’ attitude and behaviors (Lambe & McLeod, 2005; Scharrer, 2002).

In the relationship between age and media exposure, Peiser and Peter (2001) found that older respondents showed their own higher levels of television exposure when they perceive the program useful, compared to a younger generation. This result can be explained by use-and-gratification research that has consistently found that older individuals generally are more reliant on media, and in particular, television (Rubin & Rubin, 1982). In contrast, Tiedge, Silverblatt, Havice, and Resenfeld (1991) found that older respondents sought alternative sources of information over time, making them less
dependent on media content than younger people who were more reliant on media. As a result, younger respondents were more affected by media content than older respondents.

To measure age, scholars have mostly examined age by categorizing age groups, as opposed to treating age as a continuous variable. For example, Lambe and McLeod (2005) found that a categorized group of older respondents (i.e., 40-50 year olds) assigned third-person perceptions to a comparison group of younger viewers (18-24 year olds) across different types of media content. Additionally, Scharrer (2002) found that “children and teens” were perceived as most susceptible to media influence. Therefore, it remains unclear as to whether or not age differences consistently affect their fandom and attitude and behavior toward a destination.

**Fandom**

Fiske (1992) argued that fandom is a complex and contradictory subject but recognized it as a coherent and important arena for critical inquiry. Abercombie and Longhurst (1998) defined fandom as a serious leisure activity that requires such characteristics as perseverance, a long-term career, significant personal effort, self-benefits, a unique ethos existing within the activity, and participants identifying strongly with their chosen activity. Grossberg (1992) referred to fandom as a distinct ‘sensibility,’ a unique relationship between audience and culture in which the pleasure of consumption is replaced by an investment in difference.

In the past, the images of fandom were loaded with negative stereotypes and labels of aberration (Fiske, 1992). Fandom has been viewed as pathological, originated from alienating qualities of modern society (Hornton & Whol, 1956). Fandom is seen as a psychological symptom of a presumed social dysfunction. The public press has
stigmatized fandom by focusing on risk, abnormality, and crassness (Fiske, 1992). Along a similar line, the academy treated fans as passive and controlled by media manipulation and have overlooked or not taken them seriously as research subjects until recently (Fiske, 1992).

However, Fiske (1992) claimed that the wrongly perceived image of fandom resulted from an unacknowledged critique of modernity. The negative critiques of fandom in post-industrial societies have transitioned to positive perspectives as a rational activity in developing prestige and self-esteem (Jenson, 1992). Fandom has emerged as a more integral aspect of life in global capitalism, and an important interface between the dominant micro and macro forces of our time (Fiske, 1992). Fandom has grown into a global phenomenon drawing on popular contexts ranging from the media such as Hollywood blockbuster films or the televised Super Bowl to local programming such as Afghan Idol, Afghanistan’s adaption of American Idol (Gray et al., 2007).

The notion of fandom has been proposed to understand the bridge between celebrities and mass audiences in various areas of popular culture (Couldry, 2007). Fandom was considered a collective strategy, a communal effort to form interpretive communities that in their subcultural cohesion evaded the preferred and intended meanings of the power bloc (Fiske, 1992). Lee and Scott (2009) described celebrity fandom as a state of profound attention and adulation toward a celebrity that is expressed in feelings, attitudes, and behaviors.

A recent study by Reysen and Branscombe (2010) addressed an issue of the difference between the two notions of a group and an individual in fandom. They introduced the concept of “fanship” compared to “fandom,” and present differences
between sport and non-sport fans. In their study, the individual's sense of connection to a
sport team is referred to as "fanship," while the individual's connection to other fans of
the team is regarded as "fandom." The term fanship corresponds to "team identification"
(Wann, 1997) while fandom is equivalent to “social identity” (Tajfel, 1978). The
difference lies in a distinction between personal identity and social identity (Tajfel, 1978;
Turner, Hogg, Oakes, Reicher, & Wetherell, 1987). This distinction suggests that in
general, fanship (sports fans) and fandom (other pop-culture fans) are similar in terms of
ingroup identification but different in the definition of self, based on either personal or
social membership.

**Fanaticism**

Fanatic or fanaticism has religious origins, coming from the Latin word fanum,
meaning “temple or sacred place” (Taylor, 1991, p.13). Rudin (1969) and Haynal,
Molnar, and Puymege (1983) addressed a difficulty in studying fanaticism because of the
paucity of research and the lack of clarity regarding the concept which can be defined in
numerous ways from negative to positive perspectives, depending on the situation and
contexts. The term fanatic, for example, is defined as “behavior which is excessive and
inappropriately enthusiastic and/or inappropriately concerned with something, implying a
focused and highly personalized interpretation of the world” (Taylor, 1991, p.33). On the
other hand, Cayne and Lechner (1993) defined fanaticism as “an inordinately zealous
adherent or supporter, especially in politics or religion” (p.340), which is a positive view
of fanatic. In addition, Milgram (1977) and Haynal et al. (1983) considered fanaticism as
“an extension of normal feelings and behavior,” “normality,” or “ordinary.”
However, general perspectives of fanaticism tend to take a more negative view. Much of the work characterized fanaticism negatively in terms of a terrorist, violence, and politics (e.g., Rudin, 1969; Taylor, 1991). In particular, the media reports on violent fanatics rather than non-violent fans’ behaviors, which influences general audience perceptions of fans in a more negative stand.

Taylor (1991) noted that the center of fanaticism lies in the concept of inconsistency or uncertainty, particularly in his political violence research. He discussed fanaticism in political and religious groups with such fanatic features as egocentrism, insensitivity, lack of concern for others, inconsistency of tolerance, high level of centrality, simplification, resistance to change, and contextual facilitation. Later, Redden and Steiner (2000) summarized the character of fanaticism in four words: enthusiasm, zeal, excess, and intolerance. Enthusiasm is referred to as inspiration or possession from the Greek word, which evokes committed interest and activity. Zeal is expressed as an enthusiastic devotion to a belief or object, originated from the word zealot, meaning absolute certainty in belief. Excess suggests the extremes beyond enthusiasm and zeal. Lastly, intolerance indicates an extreme form reflected in words like biased, or a closed-mind.

In addition, Redden and Steiner (2000) stressed two features of intensity and intolerance in understanding fanaticism. Intensity is defined as “the degree of energy with which one lives, feels, thinks, wills, works, and in general confronts the objective world combining the meaning of enthusiasm and zeal” (Rudin, 1969, p.19). Intensity comprises three characteristics of excitement, passion or commitment, and rage of will. On the other hand, intolerance is a fanatics’ excessiveness, characterized by a focused, personalized view of the world, resistance to change, disdain/dismissal, and certainty.
(Taylor, 1991). Additionally, context facilitation was discussed as another feature of fanatics in relations to social contexts, friends, media, events, and entertainment (Taylor, 1991).

Redden and Steiner (2000) provided a conceptual framework to understand fanatics as consumers, introducing another feature of “incoherence” among cognition, attitude, and behavior. They viewed incoherence as a result of intensity and intolerance. They argued that incoherence is a key construct to understand fanatics because fanatics may display abnormality and incoherence in decision-making, thinking, and behavior. Fanatics are not normal, but extremely focused and committed to the point of dysfunction. However, fanatics can become truly loyal customers to a product or service and in this sense that they are deeply engaged, involved, attached, and committed. And this is what marketers want; truly loyal customers. Therefore, practitioners and scholars should not ignore fanatics, but rather recognize them as potential significant figures and treat them in a more positive perspective.

Redden and Steiner (2000) argued that the meaning of fandom is different from fanaticism because fanaticism exists only when the object of fanatical devotion dominates behavior or even if they react violently on their support. A fanatic is regarded as an extreme fan at the highest level of fandom (Reysen, 2005). Fans can become fanatics (Reysen, 2005), however, not all fans are fanatics. That is, fans are viewed in a broader context that includes fanatics. Jenkins (2006) pointed out “the connotation of excessive worship is still stuck to ‘fan’ in a certain way” (p. 17). Therefore, this study adopts the perspective of Reysen (2005) that the term fan is no longer an abbreviation of
the word fanatic. Accordingly pop-star’s fans are characterized on the basis of fandom, not fanaticism.

**Levels of Fandom**

Many scholars have attempted to define different types and levels of fans. Tulloch and Jenkins (1995) differentiated between the *fan* and the *follower*. *Fans* claim social identity with a fan group, whereas *followers* (i.e., consistent watchers or attendees) do not. Hills (2002) used the term *cult fan* for genres that embrace that term. Because terms like *cult* and *fan* are contested, both inside and outside of academe, rigorous definitions are difficult.

As mentioned above, the majority of existing fan studies deals with sport fans (Reysen, 2005). As a result, sport fan studies introduced a variety of scales to measure sport fandom, for example, Wann and Branscombe (1993)’s Sport Spectator Identification Scale (SSIS). The scale consists of seven items and measures an individual’s level of identification with a sport team and devotion to the team on 1 to 8 on a Likert scale. Additionally, the Sport Fan Motivation Scale (SFMS) was developed to examine sport fandom by Wann (1995). This scale has 23 items within eight factors: self-esteem, escape, entertainment, family, group affiliation, aesthetic, excitement, and economic. The SSIS and SFMS have been used in a number of sport studies. Recent research has raised the question of whether those scales are suitable to measure other interest groups such as celebrity fans or science fiction fans (Reysen, 2005).

The term *celebrity worship* was introduced to identify people who have become addicted to their interest in a celebrity, using a 5-point Likert-type scale with 17 items, called the Celebrity Worship Scale (CWS) (McCutcheon, Lange, & Houran, 2002).
CWS aims to be applied to such areas as acting, music, sports, and other celebrities. The scale was developed based on the SFMS as a starting point, and included measurements for entertainment, social or group affiliation motives, self-esteem, escape, and pathological over-identification. Two types of research perspectives have investigated the celebrity worship scale: pathological and nonpathological.

McCutcheon, Lange, and Houran (2002) argued that celebrity worship consists of three stages: 1) low worship that includes behaviors such as watching or reading about a celebrity at an individual level, 2) slightly higher worship that shows a social character, and 3) the highest stage that is distinguished by a mixture of empathy with the celebrity’s success or failure, over-identification, compulsive behaviors, and obsession with the celebrity’s life. The first two stages are considered to be nonpathological while the highest level is called borderline pathological. McCutcheon et al. (2002) suggested that celebrity worship is a progressive phenomenon as lower levels of celebrity worship could lead to pathological celebrity worship. Based on CWS, some studies have discussed fans and celebrity worshipers while using the two terms interchangeably to describe fan behavior and fan communities (Maltby, Day, McCutcheon, Gillett, Houran, & Ashe, 2004; McCutcheon et al., 2002).

However, Stever (2011) offered a number of criticisms of the CWS in studying fandom and celebrity worship. First, the term celebrity worship is not conceptually defined in its usage, which leads researchers to some confusion between fan and celebrity worshiper and how these two concepts are associated with one another. As celebrity worshipers are a type or level of fan at the high or obsessive end of the CWS according to McCutcheon et al. (2002), it is fundamentally flawed to assume that being a fan and
being a celebrity worshiper are identical (Stever, 2011). In addition, previous studies have not administered the CWS to fans of a celebrity or celebrities but only to general population samples of either available students or community members (i.e.; Maltby et al., 2004; Maltby et al., 2006). In addition, Stever (2011) argued that CWS has failed to identify any kind of threshold score to distinguish people among the three levels.

Stever (2011) tested the CWS by categorizing celebrity worship into three subscales: Entertainment–Social (ES), Intense–Personal (IP), and Borderline–Pathological (BP). By selecting two actual fan club members of Star Trek and Josh Groban, the study increased its credibility. The author argued that fans and celebrities are different study groups and further research needs to be cautious to use the scale to understand fandom. However, the author used unequal items for the three subscales of six-item ES, three IP, and two BP, which may result in biased responses.

Reysen (2005) recently attempted to create a measure of fandom by including fans in other interests such as media and religion as well as sport fans. He generated a generic measure of fandom, considering not only sport fans but also fans in the other contexts. The measure was developed on the basis of the concepts: identity, emotions, and behaviors in terms of time, energy, and expenses. Out of 72 original items, a factor analysis solution retained 11 items representing a unidimensional scale with a total of 46.6% of variance explained and named the Reysen Fan scale (Reysen, 2005).

The Reysen fan scale has an important meaning because it is the first attempt to measure the level of fandom, by expanding the area of fandom from only sport fans. However, the scale was based on only a few fan characteristics of identity, emotion, and behavior while failing to consider the other unique essential core of fans such as
involvement, commitment, attachment, and loyalty. In addition, the variance explained (46.6%) below the general rule of 50% (despite the ongoing debating for an adequate criterion). And, a multi-dimensional scale would be appropriate in this context since fandom is influenced by various factors. Therefore, the Reysen’s Fan Scale provides a basic starting point to measure fandom levels in addressing the broader meanings of fans, but has limitations in its scope; hence, further research needs to further develop the scale by including more constructs related to fans’ characteristics with both attitudinal and behavioral perspectives.

Thorne (2011) pointed out that there is a need to categorize and identify fans within different levels of intensity and activities because fans show different behaviors at different levels of involvement. The process of fandom development has been studied by Andes (1998), Fiske (1992), and Hunt, Bristol, and Bashaw (1999), however, empirical studies have not been conducted to support their models (Thorne, 2011). On the basis of previous research, Thorne (2011) clustered fans by the intensity of their involvement into four generalized levels: Dilettante, Dedicated, Devoted, and Dysfunctional (Table 1).

First, Dilettante refers to fan behavior constrained by time and social impetus. Thorne (2011) noted that the majority of the population never becomes fans that are involved beyond the dilettante level. The fan may show behaviors and characteristics of all the other levels of fandom but only temporarily. Fan behavior is influenced by external factors and continues only if there is exposure to the primary material or involvement with fan activities. Typical behaviors include: 1) viewing television programs (Chamberlain & Rustin, 2007); 2) reading articles related to the interest area (Grossberg, 1992); 3) increased enthusiasm when others are also enthused (Hunt et al., 1999); and 4)
loss of interest without additional stimulation or the guidance of a more experienced fan (Hyatt, 2007). The fans may remain at the dillettante level or progress into deeper levels of fanaticism only if additional stimuli are given (Bacon-Smith, 1992; Hunt et al., 1999).

Table 1

Activities Illustrative of Fandom Levels

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Level</th>
<th>Harry Potter</th>
<th>St Louis cardinals</th>
<th>Soap operas</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Dilettante</td>
<td>Read the series of novels once</td>
<td>Watch games when convenient</td>
<td>Watch one life to live</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dedicated</td>
<td>Regularly discuss the movies with friends</td>
<td>Attend games when played in city of residence</td>
<td>Subscribe to soap opera digest</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Devoted</td>
<td>Write Harry Potter fan fiction</td>
<td>Space in home displays Cardinals’ memorabilia and greet</td>
<td>Attend soap opera meet</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dysfunctional</td>
<td>talk a Harry Potter actor</td>
<td>Storm the stadium field</td>
<td>Refer to activities on soap operas as real happenings</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


Second, at the *Dedicated* level, fans are self-driven by activities that are common to the primary and secondary levels of fan behavior, but with deeper levels than in the dillettante fan (Thorne, 2011). At this level, fans generally 1) adjust their lifestyle to watch a program; 2) collect items related to the area of interest; 3) seek out others with the same interest for conversation and interaction; 4) subscribe to magazines focusing on the area of interest; 5) find a fan-based community; and 6) seek out information about a person or area of interest (Bacon-Smith, 1992; Belk & Sharon, 1992).
Next, when fans reach the *Devoted* level, their behavior continues to be self-driven, manifesting itself through all three levels of activities with a stronger desire for acquisition and deeper levels of fandom than the *Dedicated* fan. The *Devoted* fans exhibit the following behaviors: 1) making major changes to their lifestyles in order to actively pursue the area of interest; 2) devoting their free time mostly to expanding involvement in their interest to the enjoyment or pleasure of what others would view as a more rounded social life; 3) attending or organize conventions or meetings related to the subject; 4) attempting to become as a recognized expert on the area of involvement; and 5) taking leadership positions in reviving or rescuing the source material from obscurity or in expanding fan-created materials beyond the material through fan fiction (Bacon-Smith, 1992; Christian, 2007). The devoted fan can be considered to be an opinion leader for the marketing practitioner (Thorne, 2011).

Lastly, the *Dysfunctional* fan engages in behaviors that violate social norms and conventions in addition to exhibiting characteristics of all three levels of fan behavior. Thorne (2011) posits that only a minute percentage of fans belong to this category. At this level, fans 1) are so involved with the subject of interest that they do antisocial activities and may even separate themselves from family; and 2) perform socially-unaccepted behaviors such as violence, hysteria, talking, and activities not characterized in the other three levels. Faber, O’Guinn, and Krych (1987) suggested that fans may become dysfunctional when the activities take on a compulsive quality. Celebrity worship (McCutcheon et al., 2002) is an extreme, pathological phenomenon and can be equivalent to this dysfunctional stage.
Much of the literature on fans is not scholarly and focuses on only one area of interest, such as sports, soap operas, or special activities. Thorne (2011), however, incorporated fan members of different fan cultures from science fiction, movies (e.g., Star Trek), gaming, and sports, using both qualitative and quantitative methods. Categorizing the fanatic levels, Thorne (2011) presented a fan development model with empirical support to determine the fanaticism process from a behavioral perspective. The findings confirm that fandom exists at different levels (from Dilettante to Devoted) on the basis of their behaviors related to involvement and intensity. However, a relatively small sample size (n=51) limits to the generalizability of his findings. Furthermore, the fanatic levels were clustered solely on the basis of activities or behaviors, not considering psychological perspectives such as involvement, commitment, and attitudinal loyalty. Therefore, future studies need to include both perspectives for developing fandom levels.

As shown in the discussion on fandom, fanaticism, and its levels, a growing number of scholars are concerned with the role of celebrities and their fans. They have been attempting to define the relationship between fans and celebrities by proposing different ways of determining this relationship. However, no agreement has been met to determine clearly the meanings of fandom and fanaticism, and the levels of fandom. This study aims at operationalizing fandom based on fans’ characteristics, fandom, and fanaticism.

Factors to Influence Fandom

Involvement

Involvement has been recognized as an important element in marketing to understand consumer behavior (Havitz & Dimanche 1997; Jamrozy, Backman, & Backman, 1996; McIntyre, 1989). Tourism and leisure research has recently studied the role of
involvement in the field of recreation and leisure. Mitchell (1979) considered involvement as “potentially an important mediator of consumer behavior (p. 195).” Zaichkowsky (1985) argued involvement was “A person’s perceived relevance of the object based on inherent needs, values, and interests” (p. 342), dividing involvement in two levels of high and low, which shows different degrees of motivation for interest searching in the information process. Havits and Dimanche (1997) referred to the concept of involvement as an “unobservable state of motivation, arousal or interest toward a recreational activity or associated product” (p. 256). Antil (1984) addressed the issues of lack of consistency in defining the term of involvement and developed the concept by integrating divergent views. The author defined the concept as the level of perceived importance and/or interest evoked by a stimulus within a specific situation and viewed it as a function of the type of information processing and decision-making process employed by the individual (Antil, 1984).

Houston and Rothschild (1978) classified involvement into two categories: (1) enduring involvement, representing a continuous concern with an object that transcends situational influences (2) situational involvement, occurring only in specific situation. Divine and Page (1994) categorized the level of involvement by the degree of arousal (involvement intensity), process of involvement (involvement with products, consumption of products, purchase decision, and promotion) and duration of involvement (enduring vs. situational involvement). Selin and Howard (1988) viewed the general concept of involvement as enduring involvement (McIntyre 1989), affective attachment (McIntyre & Pigram, 1992), and commitment (Buchanan, 1985). In addition, the concepts of involvement can be viewed in two perspectives: psychological and
behavioral (Lascu, Giese, Toolan, Guehring, & Mercer, 1995; Zaichkowsky, 1985).

Psychological involvement (or social psychological) is a state of motivation arousal or interest with regard to a product, an activity, or an object (Mittal, 1982) while behavioral involvement was defined as time and intensity of effort expended in pursuing a particular activity. In the leisure context, the perceived interest or personal importance are considered a psychological construct (Mitchell, 1979) whereas frequency of participation, attendance at events, money spent, miles traveled, length of planning time, amount and type of information sources used, television watching, newspaper or magazine readership, ability or skill, ownership of equipment/books, and number of membership are treated as behavioral properties (Fesenmaier & Johnson, 1989; Stone, 1984). In sport studies, Shank and Beasley (1998) developed a scale to specifically assess sport involvement from a psychological rather than a purely behavioral perspective. Their scale captured sports involvement by exploring the relationship between sports involvement and behaviors.

Among the various concepts of involvement, leisure and recreation studies have mostly focused on the concept of enduring involvement because enduring involvement is considered to be a powerful explanatory variable for the antecedents of leisure and recreation participation and engagement (Selin & Howard, 1988). Enduring involvement has been defined as “the personal meaning or affective attachment an individual has for an activity” (Schuett, 1993, p. 206). The concept of enduring involvement stresses long-term attachments or enduring levels rather than a situational state (Havitz & Dimanche, 1997; McIntyre, 1989; Schuett 1993), while the concept is associated with self-concept, specific attachment or attitude to a certain activity (Havitz & Dimanche, 1997; McIntyre,
Others also have argued that personal meanings of participation could be appropriately represented by the concept of enduring involvement (McIntyre, 1989).

Most involvement studies have used Laurent and Kepferer’s (1985) Involvement Profile (IP) and/or Zaichkowsky’s (1985) Personal Involvement Inventory (PII). The IP is multidimensional with 15 items in five dimensions (importance, pleasure, sign/self-expression, risk probability, risk consequence) while the PII is unidimensional with 20 items. Among the IP’s dimensions, the complex notion of risk is found to be difficult to adequately capture with a limited number of items in leisure studies. McQuarrie and Munson (1987) modified the PII resulting in a multidimensional measure. However, the validity of this revised measure has been debated (Mittal, 1989).

McIntyre and Pigram (1992) claimed that enduring involvement was one of the most significant variables in explaining why and how leisure participants promoted their interests, advanced skill levels and, thus, became specialized experts. McIntyre and Pigram (1992) extended Laurent and Kepferer’s (1985) involvement profile (IP) in developing three dimensions of leisure involvement: attraction, centrality, and self-expression. These three factors have been applied to measure involvement within tourism and leisure studies. By dividing the construct of attraction into pleasure/interest and perceived importance, however, scholars also have measured enduring involvement with four underlying dimensions: pleasure/interest, perceived importance, centrality to lifestyle, and self-expression (Dimanche, Havitz, & Howard, 1991; McIntyre, 1989; Selin & Howard, 1988). The pleasure/interest item is viewed as an essential primary indicator of leisure involvement. Perceived importance refers to an individual’s rating of their involvement in the activity. The centrality to lifestyle is an important factor to measure.
the level of significance a certain leisure activity has within a person’s life. Finally, self-expression is regarded as the symbolic meanings such as status, class, or prestige that people have for certain leisure activities.

A number of authors have investigated the relationship between a consumer’s level of involvement and behavior (Iwasaki & Havitz, 2004; Kyle, Absher, Hammitt, & Cavin, 2006; Zillman, Bryant, & Sapolsky, 1989). Iwasaki and Havitz (2004) examined the relationship between enduring involvement and behavioral loyalty and their findings indicated that a number of factors including motivation had a direct impact on involvement. In the sport sector, Zillman et al. (1989) revealed that fans become loyal to a particular team and were affected by the enjoyment associated with participating in events. More recently, Kyle et al. (2006) investigated the relationship between motivation and involvement and their results indicated that specific dimensions of motivation initiated and maintained levels of involvement and that motivation was an antecedent of enduring involvement. In addition, Josiam, Smeaton, and Clements (1999) revealed that people who are motivated by the push and pull factors of a destination are likely to be highly involved with the destination activity.

In recent studies, opinion leaders have started to receive attention in the areas associated with the concept of involvement. Rogers (1962) defined opinion leadership as “the degree to which an individual is able to influence other individuals’ opinions or behavior in a preferred way with relative frequency” (p. 300). Considerable research in the marketing field deals with the concept of opinion leaders, identifying their characteristics from various perspectives such as sociodemographic, psychological, and behavioral.
Involvement studies indicated that particularly enduring involvement is an important antecedent of opinion leadership in diverse contexts such as movie viewing (Venkatraman, 1990), automobiles (Richins & Root-Shaffer, 1988), and wine (Chan & Misra, 1990). The general concept of enduring involvement suggests that highly involved consumers tend to be opinion leaders (Chan & Misra, 1990). In sport contexts, for example, Bloch, Black and Lichtenstein (1989) revealed that both attraction (perceived importance/interest) and knowledge were significant factors in predicting opinion leadership for sport products.

For opinion leadership measurements, King and Summers (1970) proposed a seven-item measure of opinion leadership. Riecken and Yavas (1983) conducted a measurement study of the measure and found it to be valid and reliable. A modified six-item scale with a 5-point Likert response format, was later introduced by Childers (1986). This version has been empirically tested across product and service areas as well as with personal involvement, product familiarity, and risk preference (Goldsmith & Desborde, 1991).

Destination research has paid little attention to opinion leaders related to involvement. As a result, there is very little literature on this topic despite the importance of opinion leaders in the tourism context. Jamrozy et al. (1996) suggested that a special-interest domain, such as nature-based tourism could benefit from this concept in identifying motivations and behaviors of opinion leaders. The concept of opinion leaders will be applied to understand fans’ involvement and behaviors. This notion is expected to help destination marketers in recognizing fans’ influence on the tourism industry, properly targeting specialized groups, and implementing effective marketing strategies.
The enduring involvement concept offers a valuable theoretical framework for understanding pop-star fandom, in particular, in terms of fans’ psychological states (Lee, Scott, & Kim, 2008). Most involvement research in consumer behavior has investigated only products or brands as stimuli of involvement. This study regards pop-stars as a source of leisure activity or tourism demand to understand the impact of a pop-star on tourism. This study used enduring involvement with both psychological and behavioral perspectives and also with cognitive, affective, and behavioral dimensions.

**Commitment**

The concepts of involvement and commitment have some similarities in their nature and usage. Hence, sociologist and psychologists have been debating the conceptualization and operationalization of the two constructs, but have not reached agreement. However, the majority of scholars concur that the nature of the two constructs is similar, but not the same (e.g. Bloch et al., 1989; Iwakasi & Havitz, 1998; Kim, Scott, & Crompton, 1997). A number of branding studies have shown that involvement plays an antecedent role in forming psychological commitment to a brand (e.g., Bloch et al., 1989; Buchanan, 1985). Hence, this study regards involvement as a different and formative construct of commitment.

Generally, commitment refers to consistent or focused behavior and is based on dedication, inner conviction, centrality, costs, and social consideration. Buchanan (1985) defines commitment as “the pledging or binding of an individual to behavior acts which result in some degree of affective attachment to behavior or the role associated with the behavior and which produce side bets as a result of that behavior” (p.402). More simply,
Crosby and Taylor (1983) refer to commitment as a “tendency to resist changing preferences” as the principle evidence of commitment.

The construct of commitment has been defined differently between the fields of sociology and psychology. Sociological aspects focus on the social factors of an individual’s constraints or commitment to a consistent behavior (Becker, 1960), while psychologists reflect an interest in personal decisions or cognitions, binding to an action (Festinger, 1954; Kiesler, 1971). The concept has expanded into the social psychological field to study how social and cognitive commitment affects actions and behavioral disposition such as marriage and jobs (Buchanan, 1985; Pritchard, Havitz, & Howard, 1999).

Johnson (1973) classified commitment in leisure studies into two categories: personal and behavioral. Personal commitment, also called affective attachment, is referred to as an affirmation of a leisure activity as it is personally pleasing and intuitively worthwhile (Godbey, 1985). On the other hand, behavioral commitment is explained by consistent behavior, consisting of social and cost commitment. Social commitment is determined by others’ expectations within their life while cost commitment is shaped by the cost related to discontinuing a particular activity. Continuous personal and behavioral commitment may indicate the activity’s centrality in one’s life. Centrality means the extent to which a participant’s lifestyle and social networks are connected to his or her pursuit in a given activity. In this regard, the notion of centrality is shared by both involvement and commitment (McIntyre, 1989).

Allen and Meyer (1990) developed and tested a three-dimensional model of commitment: affective, continuance, and normative. Affective commitment refers to a
desire-based attachment to target strong affective feelings toward an organization; continuance (also called “calculative”) commitment is the perception of the costs of leaving an organization or interest as opposed to the benefits of staying; and normative commitment is a responsibility or obligation for correct things because they are loyal.

The model was originally applied to an organization, and afterwards adopted to various areas such as a customer retention context (Kim & Ok, 2009) and sustaining behaviors (Pimentel & Reynolds, 2004).

In addition, some researchers view psychological commitment as a type of commitment within cognitive consistency theories. Iwaseki and Havitz (1998) discussed commitment based on five facets: (1) informational consistency, (2) the degree of informational complexity of an individual’s cognitive structure, (3) confidence, (4) position involvement, and (5) volitional choice. Crosby and Taylor (1983) suggested that cognitive structure (consistent informational processes) and personal attachment (identification processes) were two antecedents of commitment. Along with these components of commitment, Pritchard et al. (1999) determined that “information, identification, and volition as antecedent processes of commitment that facilitate its root tendency, resistance to change” (p. 3) based on the works of Salancik (1977) and Crosby and Taylor (1983).

Buchanan (1985) argued that the construct of commitment requires three necessary conditions: behavioral consistency, affective attachment, and side bets. First, behavioral consistency explains consistent goal-oriented behaviors with a willingness to dedicate time and effort to an object or person. The consistent behavior leads to a rejection of alternative behaviors, which results in living up to promises and sacrifices. Second,
affective attachment is regarded as “a process through which individual’s interests become attached to carrying out socially organized patterns of behavior which express the needs of the individual” (Buchanan, 1985, p. 405). The attachment evolves through a continuum of continuation, cohesion, and control stage. Lastly, side bets are additional investments or financial costs resulting from non-participation.

Many researchers have further recognized psychological commitment as a significant component of the loyalty construct (e.g., Beatty et al., 1988; Kyle et al., 2004; Pritchard et al., 1999). The concept of psychological commitment, in particular, is employed to evaluate the attitudinal aspect of loyalty (Iwasaki & Havitz, 1998; Kyle et al., 2004) and to predict brand loyalty or revisit intention (Beatty et al., 1988; Kyle, Graefe, Manning, & Bacon, 2004). Hence, it is regarded as an essential component to distinguish true loyal customers from those who make inconsistent choices due to situational factors such as availability of other options or volitional conditions (Pritchard et al., 1999).

Commitment has been understood as a key construct in mediating the relationship between satisfaction and loyalty (Bloemer & Odekerken-Schroder, 2002; Pritchard et al., 1999). It has been suggested that perceived positive evaluation (or satisfaction) of products and services develops commitment to a brand (i.e., resistance to change), which, in turn, leads to consumer loyalty (Pritchard et al., 1999; Bloemer & Odekerken-Schroder, 2002). Further, satisfaction positively influenced commitment through trust, which, in turn, predicted store loyalty such as word-of-mouth, purchase intentions, and price sensitivity.
Attachment

The concept of attachment has been interchangeably used with involvement and commitment in many different disciplines. Just as the differences between involvement and commitment have been presented, attachment should also be treated as a related but distinctive construct from the two. Attachment is an emotional bond to another person (Bowlby, 1980). Originally, attachment theory was developed to understand individual differences in the infant and caregiver relationship. Applied as a relevant framework toward broader settings, attachment has been studied in a number of contexts, including attachment to a multinational corporation (Reade, 2001), attachment to a work team (Richards & Schat, 2010), attachment to a sport team (Funk & James, 2006), and consumers’ attachment to a brand (Thomson, MacInnis, & Park, 2005).

Attachment is considered to be a critical construct in marketing as it impacts consumer’s commitment to a brand or an object (Fourier, 1998). Marketing researchers appreciate the importance of consumer’s attachment to a brand (Park et al., 2009). Highly-attached consumers are comparatively more motivated and able to categorize the extension of the parent brand because they simultaneously possess a desire to maintain a brand-self relationship and an enduring resistance to brand change (Feeney & Noller, 1996).

In particular, the term emotional attachment and psychological attachment are interchangeably used to denote how closely an individual identifies with a group (Paxton & Moody, 2003). In an organization, for example, emotional attachment is significant because the more employees are psychologically emotionally attached to an organization, the more they are likely to provide supports, and the less likely they are to leave the
organization (Smith, Organ, & Near, 1983). According to O’Reilly and Chatman (1986), psychological attachment to organizations is predicated on three perspectives: (1) active involvement for a specific and extrinsic reward; (2) identification or involvement on the basis of a desire for affiliation; and (3) internalization or involvement predicated on congruence between individual and organizational values. Their study showed that intimate relationships existed between attachment and involvement. Paxton and Moody (2003) indicated that the individuals’ emotional attachment to a group consisted of two dimensions: identity (how strongly individuals see themselves as members of the group) and affective (how happy they are to be members of the group). Identification is regarded as affective commitment, which is resistant to change.

Almost all of the research has focused on fans’ attachment toward teams and events within the sport area (e.g., Funk & James, 2006). Hence, relatively few studies have investigated the notion regarding pop-star fans. This indicates a lack of pop-star fan attachment research and the need for developing sound measurement in this context. The existence of a valid and reliable measure of attachment allows researchers to test hypotheses regarding other outcomes of attachment (Park et al., 2009). Thus, this study examined the role of attachment in determining fandom, considering affection and identification as two indicators of emotional attachment to the pop-star. As attachment to pop-stars have become an ordinary social practice, it is important to understand how pop-star attachment influences tourism behavior (Lee et al., 2008).
Group identity

Along with the importance of identification, many studies have examined the role and impact of fan identification. Two theories of social identity and intergroup emotions will be discussed to understand fandom at the group level.

Social identity theory

Social Identity Theory, also called Self-Identification Theory, originated from the symbolic interaction tradition and focuses on the link between self, role, and society (Stryker, 1980). Tajfel and Turner (1979) introduced Social Identity Theory, originally to understand the psychological aspect of intergroup discrimination. Tajfel (1978) defined social identity as “part of an individual's self-concept which derives from his knowledge of his membership of a social group together with the value and emotional significance attached to that membership” (p. 63). In the Social Identity Theory, a person has not one, “personal self,” but rather several selves that correspond to widening circles of group membership. This conceptualization is in contrast to the traditional social psychological view of the global self as a single identity. The concept of Social Identity Theory is similar to self-categorization theory, developed by Turner et al. (1987), in the sense that different social contexts may trigger an individual to think, feel, and act on the basis of his personal, family or national level of self. Both social identity (Tajfel, 1978) and self-categorization (Turner et al., 1987) theories suggest that different psychological and social behaviors result when people define themselves as a member of a group (social identity) compared to when the self is defined as an individual (personal identity). However, an individual has multiple “social identities,” considered as the individual’s self-concept derived from social group memberships (Hogg & Vaughan, 2002). The
foundation of social identity is distinctive from personal identity that is referred to as self-knowledge driven from the individual’s unique attributes (Turner et al., 1987).

Social Identity Theory asserts that group membership creates ingroup / self-categorization and development in favoring the ingroup from the out-group. The theory suggests that membership in a social group is an important mediator of an individual’s cognitive, affective, and behavioral processes (Jones, 2000). These processes, in turn, have important implications for an individual’s self-concept and self-esteem (Brown, 1986, 1988; Tajfel, 1972, 1981, 1982; Turner, 1975, 1982). An individual is likely to show favoritism when an ingroup is central to the self-definition. Thus, the individual’s sense of ‘who you are’ and how you subjectively educate that self-image is affected by the social groups that one is a member of, and how one believes others see oneself as a group member (Mead, 1968).

The sport fan studies have considered fans as either a group or as individuals. Sandvoss (2005) suggested that fans perceive themselves as members of groups, even when they do not belong to an organized fan club. The notion is similar to an "imagined collective," defined as "a collection of individuals who do not interact synchronously with each other, and who presuppose the existence of the collection of individuals who share a common ground" (Kashima, Klein, & Clark, 2007, p. 35). Fans become loyal to a particular team and are influenced by the sense of identity felt by associating themselves with a particular group (Wann & Branscombe, 1993). In a study of science fiction fans, Obst, Zinkiewicz, and Smith (2002a; 2002b) revealed that science fiction fans have high levels of belongingness, emotional connection, identification, shared values, and overall sense of a community compared to general audiences.
According to the definition of social identity (Tajfel, 1978), one's social identity can be viewed with three dimensions: a cognitive component (a cognitive awareness of one's membership in a social group, called self-categorization), an evaluative perspective (a positive or negative value of a group membership in group self-esteem), and an emotional element (a sense of emotional involvement with the group - affective commitment). The distinctive dimensions reflect that self-categorization (the cognitive component) as well as affective commitment to a specific group (the emotional component) can be distinguished from the value of group self-esteem derived from group membership (the evaluative component). This distinction enables researchers to understand how they are affected differentially by specific characteristics of the group or the social context.

Social identification has been traditionally treated as a unidimensional construct (e.g., Ellemers, 1993). However, recent researchers argued that the measurement scales of social identification should reflect the conceptual framework proposed by Tajfel (1978) by incorporating the three components. Hinkle, Taylor, Fox-Cardamone and Crook (1989) attempted to distinguish three factors in the group identification scale developed by Brown, Condor, Mathew, Wade and Williams (1986). However, the findings revealed that the components were substantially inter-correlated, indicating that a unidimensional measurement scale that may be acceptable for practical applications. This indicates that the three dimensions may not be distinctively differentiated for measurement purposes. This study will use this social identification theory to identify fans and the three components to determine fans group identities.
Intergroup emotion theory

The lack of research support for the social identity components requires further approaches to conceptualize and measure the construct in more concrete sophisticated ways. Expanding Social Identity Theory, Intergroup Emotion Theory was developed on the principle of personally significant group memberships (Smith, 1993; Smith & Mackie, 2008). The theory emphasizes the importance of emotion in identifying the self in social group relationships. Intergroup emotion is described as “one specific class of social emotions that arise when people identify with a social group and respond emotionally to events or objects that influence on the group” (Smith & Mackie, 2008, p 428).

Socially derived identity requires self-expression and positive feelings (emotions) that affirm the identity (McCall & Simmons, 1996). Intergroup Emotion Theory examines how emotion can influence intergroup interactions and behaviors. In this theory, intergroup relations can best be understood in terms of the motivating forces elicited by emotions that group members feel about their own and other groups. Smith and Mackie (2008) argued that self-categorization determines these emotional responses, especially for highly identified group members, and in turn those emotions determine their behaviors.

Whether the emotion is individual or intergroup, if repeated encounters with members of a particular group consistently give rise to feelings, the emotion then becomes associated with the mental representation of the group in general (Smith & Mackie, 2008). Smith and Mackie (2008) found a strong relationship between positive group emotions and ingroup identification. Positive intergroup emotions such as pride and satisfaction are likely to reward and encourage strong identification with a particular group.
A pop-star’s fan is an individual, not a group. Therefore, research starts with individual based emotions. However, when they become a member of the fan club, a more appropriate focus is to understand the fans at the group-level because fan members act together (e.g., participation in events) at the group-level. The present research will examine pop-star’s fans’ attitudes and behavior in terms of involvement, commitment, attachment, loyalty, group identity to the pop-star at the group-level.

**Fans’ Attitudes and Behaviors toward a Destination**

**Motivation**

Motivation is an elusive concept with theories emerging from different intellectual traditions (Eccles & Wigfield, 2002). Early models of tourism motivation emphasized the role of push-pull factors in guiding and directing behavior (Crompton, 1979; Dann, 1981). Empirical studies examining push and pull factors have proliferated (Klenosky, 2002) with a variety of multivariate techniques generating similar dimensions of both push and pull factors. Gnoth (1997) proposed an elaborate process model of motivation and expectation formation by incorporating drive theory, expectancy theory, and theories related to values and attitudes. The process described by Gnoth perhaps best represents a model of consumer behavior rather than motivation per se (White & Thompson, 2009).

A stream of work on tourism motivation has drawn on Maslow’s hierarchy of motivation to categorize and explain the reasons why people tour (Onome, 2004; Pearce & Caltabiano, 1983; Pearce & Lee, 2005).

Over the last three decades, self-determination theory has developed both conceptually and empirically. The theory has been applied in relation to personality, environmental activism, health care, work, emotions, sports, and cross-cultural contexts.
(White & Thompson, 2009). Self-determination theory represents a broad framework for the study of human motivation and personality. The basic premise of the theory is that people are active organisms, with innate tendencies toward psychological growth and development, seeking to master ongoing challenges and maintain an optimal level of stimulation (Eccles & Wigfield, 2002). This body of applied research has led to considerable specification of techniques, including goal structures and ways of communicating that have proven effective at promoting maintained, volitional motivation.

Self-determination theory asserts that three basic psychological needs of autonomy, competence, and relatedness are essential to underlie growth and development (Deci & Ryan, 2000; Ryan & Deci, 2000). Autonomy literally refers to “self-rule,” meaning self-initiation, volition, and willing endorsement of one’s activity (Deci, 1975). Competence is defined as the propensity to experience challenge and mastery in one’s behavior (White, 1959). Lastly, relatedness, or the “desire to belong,” means the tendency to be concerned with forming strong and stable interpersonal bonds (Baumeister & Leary, 1995; Ryan & Deci, 2000).

Self-determinantion theory distinguishes between intrinsic and extrinsic motivation; intrinsic motivation refers to doing an activity for the inherent satisfaction of the activity itself, and extrinsic motivation refers to the performance of an activity in order to attain some separable outcome development (Deci & Ryan, 2000; Ryan & Deci, 2000). Additionally, extrinsic motivation is divided into four types: identified, introjected, integrated, and external regulation, representing the different reasons why people engage in activities (Standage, Duda, & Ntoumanis, 2005). In this sense, motivation is not as a
single concept (Deci, 1992) but rather a complicated set of motivated behaviors under various circumstances in which people are self-determined versus controlled.

A study by Alexandris, Zahariadis, Tsorbatzoudis, and Grouios (2002) used a scale that captured intrinsic and extrinsic motivation that had been adapted for a sporting context (Pelletier, Tuson, Fortier, Vallerand, Briere, & Blais, 1995). The results supported a significant positive relationship between frequency of participation and intrinsic and extrinsic motivation. Another study used self-determination theory to examine the role of product and purchasing involvement in mediating the relationship between motivational orientations of attribute preferences (White & Thompson, 2009). The study found that motivational orientations had a direct impact on preferences and was mediated by levels of product and purchasing involvement.

The majority of the literature on self-determination theory focuses on the relationships between nonreciprocal partnerships (e.g., physician-patient, parent–child, teacher-student, manager-worker) (La Guardia & Patrick, 2008). The theory shows the interrelation between the dynamic organism and the social context that allows for predictions about behavior (White & Thompson, 2009). Self-determination theory is based on a continuum from low to high levels of motivation or a process for the integration of external motivation into intrinsic motivation. Thus, this theory can provide different perspectives to understand tourists’ motivation.

**Satisfaction**

Satisfaction is one of the most important concepts in consumer research (Kozak, 2001). Customer satisfaction is identified as a critical factor to differentiate products or services among competitors. Satisfaction is referred to as “a judgment that a product, or
service feature, or the product or service itself, provides a pleasurable level of consumption-related fulfillment, including levels of under or over fulfillment” (Oliver, 1997, p. 13). Or satisfaction can be simply defined as a post-purchase attitude (Swan & Combs, 1976).

Various studies have explored consumer satisfaction by adopting different models of expectation/disconfirmation (Oliver, 1980), norm (Latour & Peat, 1979), perceived overall performance (Tse & Wilton, 1988), and equity (Oliver & Swan, 1989). First, the expectancy-disconfirmation theory has been most widely accepted in the studies of customer satisfaction since Oliver (1980) presented it. The approach determines the level of satisfaction through a cognitive comparison based on four elements of customer’s service experiences: prepurchase expectation, perceived performance, disconfirmation, and satisfaction. Another approach, known as norm theory was introduced as a theoretical framework to evaluate consumer satisfaction (Latour & Peat, 1979). This approach is similar to the expectation-disconfirmation theory in the sense that it considers norms as reference points to determine satisfaction by comparing a specific product with the norms.

Next, the model of perceived overall performance proposes to assess satisfaction by using only perceived actual performance while disregarding customers’ expectations that have been constructed by various factors (Tse & Wilton, 1988). The application of the performance-only approach can be effective when a consumer has no knowledge or previous experience about a product or service (Yoon & Uysal, 2005). Lastly, equity theory suggests that individuals tend to assess the proportion of their inputs and outputs in comparison with those of their counterparts in an exchange situation (Oliver & Swan,
1989). This approach is used to determine satisfaction by comparing the benefits individuals receive with the costs they spend (e.g., time, value, and efforts).

Customer satisfaction and service quality have been interchangeably used in many studies (Cronin & Taylor, 1992; Oliver, 1980; Tian-Cole et al., 2002) although the two constructs are distinct concepts. Service quality is referred to as the “quality of performance” that a consumer perceived from the physical attributes of products and services. On the other hand, satisfaction is defined as “quality of experience” or “visitors’ perceived benefits they obtain from the experience” (Baker & Crompton, 2000; Mackay & Crompton, 1988; Tian-Cole, Crompton, & Willson, 2002). Customer satisfaction is considered to be specific and subjective experience, while service quality is not (Oliver, 1993, 1997). In addition, satisfaction is considered to be more affective or emotional, whereas quality is more cognitive-oriented (Bowen, 2001). Furthermore, satisfaction is found to be a more comprehensive concept than quality (Tian-Cole et al., 2002). Satisfaction appears to have a stronger and more consistent affect on behavioral intentions than does quality (Cronin & Taylor, 1992).

Satisfaction can be evaluated from two perspectives: cognitive and affective value. Satisfaction was traditionally considered to be a cognitive state, influenced by cognitive antecedents (Oliver, 1980). However, recent studies argued that the affective approach should be more focused to understand satisfaction (Wirtz & Bateson, 1999). Oliver (1997) suggested that satisfaction be recognized as level of emotional affect, but be more specifically described by its formative process, as a function of confirmation or disconfirmation.
In the destination context, many studies have looked at destination satisfaction by introducing theoretical and methodological frameworks of customer satisfaction (e.g., Baker & Crompton, 2000; Severt, Wang, Chen, & Breiter, 2007; Yuksel & Yuksel, 2007). Along with the traditional satisfaction studies in consumer behavior, destination research in its early stage also focused on cognitive aspects, excluding emotional attachment. However, several studies have suggested that destination can stimulate the consumer’s emotional experience by maximizing satisfaction (McMullan & O’Neill, 2010; Menon & Dude, 2000; Yu & Dean, 2001).

Liljander and Strandvik (1997) and Cronin, Brady, and Hult (2000) stressed that the satisfaction construct can be better understood if emotion was included. Emphasizing the importance of the affective construct in satisfaction, Lee, Yeung, and Dewald (2010) presented the process from satisfaction to behavioral intentions; cognitive responses impact emotional responses and, in turn, perceived service quality and value influence satisfaction. Yuan and Jang (2008) argued that the affective response plays a role in maintaining or increasing the level of satisfaction, which can lead to purchase intention.

There has been much debate on the measurement of customer and destination satisfaction. The classic theory of perceived overall performance suggests to measure the overall level of satisfaction with experiences in particular destinations (e.g., Kozak, 2001; Qu & Ping, 1999; Severt et al., 2007; Yu & Goulden, 2006). As overall satisfaction is referred to as “a summation state of the psychological outcomes they have experienced over time” (Tian-Cole et al., 2002, p. 4), it has been argued that satisfaction with various attributes of products and services leads to overall satisfaction with consumption and
purchasing experience (e.g., Chi & Qu, 2008). Hence, overall satisfaction could assess
the quality of the experiences at different settings (Tian-Cole et al., 2002).

However, the literature addresses some issues of overall satisfaction measures
(Manning, 2003). An overall satisfaction measure is too broad to represent visitors’
satisfaction with their experiences, while ignoring some potential attributes to affect their
satisfaction. Customer satisfaction may vary according to customers’ personality,
socioeconomic status, motivation, and attitudes as well as the value of a particular service
attribute that a customer focuses on. Manning (2003) criticized the unidimensional
construct of overall satisfaction that potentially overpowers other variables that could
significantly influence visitor satisfaction. In this sense, he claimed that the
multidimensional construct with a multi-item scale was stronger than a single-item
measure in assessing consumer experiences.

Along with this argument, Lee, Back and Kim (2009) suggested two different ways to
measure satisfaction: transaction specific and overall satisfaction. Transaction specific
measurement refers to satisfaction with specific objects or encounters, whereas overall
satisfaction measures a cumulative construct summarizing satisfaction with various facets
of the services or products (Prayag & Ryan, 2011). It is suggested that recognizing the
significant service attributes can help improve customer satisfaction in a more concrete
and practical way. Generally, overall satisfaction appears to be more stable than
transaction-specific satisfaction (Parasuraman, Zeithaml, & Berry, 1994).

The tourism industry has recently faced intense competition from a variety of fast
evolving tourism development and destination marketing strategies (Steven, 2000).
Given the competitive environment, the construct of satisfaction can play an important
role in assessing past experiences, performance of products and services, and perceived importance of the physical environments such as recreation settings in the destination context (Ringel & Finkelstein, 1991; Ross & Iso-Ahola, 1991). Tourism research has used satisfaction to connect with destination choice, consumption of tourism products and services, and decision to return (Baker & Crompton, 2000; Bigné, Andreu, & Gnoth, 2005; Kozak & Rimmington, 2000). The perceived quality obtained from motivation factors contributes to purchase intentions, and is mediated by satisfaction (Yuan & Jang, 2008). That is, people are more likely to revisit a destination if they had satisfactory past travel experiences with it; therefore, satisfaction is an excellent predictor of repurchase intentions. The construct of satisfaction should be appreciated as an essential element in determining future behaviors and possibly predicting customer loyalty.

**Place Attachment**

The study of attachment was developed to understand individual differences in the infant and caregiver relationship and has been applied to broader settings in a number of contexts. In the tourism context, a special term, “place attachment” has been used to describe the close connections between tourists and destination (Smith, Siderelis, & Moore, 2010). The construct of place attachment has defined attachment to a place ranging from homes and communities, to societies (e.g., Altman & Low, 1992; McAndrew, 1998). Compared to other disciplines, the significance of the place attachment concept has been only recently been recognized in tourism studies.

Trauer and Ryan (2005) refer to tourism as “service relationships with emotional attachment through the special interest focus (activity and/or destination) and the kind (situational and/or enduring) and level (high/low) of involvement on the part of
participants” (p. 486). The concept of place attachment describes emotional/affective and cultural bonding to places as comprising the relationship of humans and the environment (Altman & Low, 1992). Place attachment can be considered to be an important component in the tourism context by forming a destination relationship through emotional attachment between a traveler and a place.

In an attempt to describe “place attachment,” Schreyer, Jacob, and White (1981) suggested that a place has two meanings: emotional-symbolic and functional. Later, the meanings were translated into two key dimensions: place identity and place dependence. Place identity corresponds to emotional-symbolic meanings, whereas the place dependence is equivalent to the functional meanings proposed by Schreyer et al. (1981).

Place identity refers to “the dimension of the self that defines the individual’s personal identity in relation to the physical environment” (Proshansky, 1978, p. 155). Place identity is developed through positively balanced cognitions (Proshansky, Fabian, & Kaminoff, 1983) and repeated exposure to a place regardless of actual experiences (Zajonc, 2001). On the other hand, the concept of place dependence is developed on the basis of transactional theory (Stokols & Schumaker, 1981), dealing with “the opportunities a setting affords for fulfillment of specific goals or activity needs” (Williams, Anderson, McDonald, & Patterson, 1995). Place dependence provides an evaluation tool for comparing the current setting with other available settings that may have the same attributes (Stokols & Schumaker, 1981). These two dimensions of place attachment have found to be reliable across various contexts (Moore & Graefe, 1994; Moore & Scott, 2003).
Recent studies in environmental psychology and leisure address a need to include additional dimensions such as social bonding in assessing place attachment (Altman & Low, 1992; Kyle, Graefe, & Manning, 2005). Researchers agree that social interactions in a specific setting could be an essential component of place attachment. Furthermore, Campbell, Nicholson, and Kitchen (2006) revealed that social bonding was a significant factor in creating true loyalty among health club members. Similarly, a fan event setting provides the opportunity for social relationships, shared experiences and loyalty.

The literature discusses significant relationships among involvement, commitment, and attachment in various contexts. Likewise, place attachment is significantly associated with involvement and commitment in leisure settings (Kyle, Absher, & Graefe, 2003). Kyle et al. (2003) revealed that involvement in leisure activities has an important effect on developing emotional attachment to particular places. Furthermore, frequency of use and proximity of the destination plays a role in predicting place attachment (Moore & Graefe, 1994).

Kyle et al. (2004) argued that the commitment and place attachment constructs share similarity in the dimensions by exhibiting parallel mechanisms in the relationship between individual attachment with psychological commitment and place attachment with emotional commitment. For example, the identification dimension of “position involvement” in commitment (Pritchard et al., 1999) conceptually corresponds to the place identity dimension in place attachment. Both dimensions are considered as an emotional structure related to self-images of symbolic value. The dimension of place dependence in place attachment is also conceptually equivalent with the informational dimension in commitment (Pritchard et al., 1999). The two dimensions deal with
cognitive consistency and consistent behavior to maximize psychological benefits and reduce economical costs through the complex decision-making process.

Tourism studies also discuss that place attachment has a significant relationship with numerous variables such as destination attractiveness, past experience, satisfaction, type of trip, and tourists’ demographic characteristics (i.e. age) (Hammitt, Backlund, & Bixler, 2006; Lee, 2001; Young, 1999). In particular, destination loyalty studies argue that place attachment can play a critical role in predicting loyalty to a destination as a potential mediator between satisfaction and destination loyalty (Alexandris, Koutouris, & Meligdis, 2006; Hou, Lin, & Morais, 2005; Lee, 2001). However, previous examinations found that the constructs of commitment, attitudinal loyalty, and place attachment share conceptual similarity, which may result in unclear relationships between constructs and empirical limitations in the causal relationship. It is suggested, therefore, to develop a sound research design on the basis of strong foundations from such disciplines as psychology, and sociology (Lee, 2001). The present study included the place attachment construct to understand fans’ attitude and behaviors because place attachment can play a role in predicting destination loyalty such as repeated visits or WOM. Place attachment in this study will represent a pop-star fans attachment, especially emotional bond to a destination, which evolves through interaction and experiences.

**Destination Loyalty**

Loyalty is in general referred to as “a deeply held commitment to re-buy or re-patronize a preferred product/service consistently in the future, thereby causing repetitive same-brand or same brand set purchasing, despite situational influences and marketing efforts having the potential to cause switching behavior” (Oliver, 1999, p. 34). Many
researchers have established the connection between satisfaction and post-purchase behavior (i.e., Hallowell, 1996; LaBarbera & Mazursky, 1983). In the marketing field, a number of studies have also exhibited empirical evidences of a significant positive relationship between customer satisfaction and loyalty (Anderson & Sullivan, 1993; Cronin et al., 2000). It is generally assumed that satisfaction leads to loyalty, which can be measured by repeat purchases and positive word of mouth (WOM). If consumers are satisfied with the product/service, then they are more likely to continue to purchase, and are more willing to spread positive WOM.

Customer loyalty is a function of individual personality traits rather than the characteristics of product or destination performances (Haistrom, Chae, & Cholung, 1992; Mellens, Dekimpe & Steenkamp, 1996). Therefore, it is important to understand individual personality traits to better serve their customers. In order to better understand customers, the emotional components of the relationship are required to draw a comprehensive picture of the consumer attitudes towards a brand, and consequently, of consumer loyalty (Hendler & Latour, 2008). Therefore, there is a need to include emotional influences. Emotional loyalty can be measured by feelings and attitudes in the form of preferences, liking, motivation, trust, as well as behavior patterns such as actual repeat business and positive word of mouth (Backman & Crompton, 1991; Petrick, 2004).

In the tourism context, the model of destination loyalty has been generally developed by applying generic product theory to a destination by exploring the link between destination satisfaction and repeat visit intention and WOM through empirical tests (Kozak, 2001; Kozak & Rimmington, 2000; Ross, 1993; Yoon & Uysal, 2005). It was explained that satisfied tourists are more likely to revisit the destination, and are more
willing to spread positive traveling experiences with their friends, family or relatives\cite{Tomas, Scott, & Crompton, 2002; Yoon & Uysal, 2005}. In particular, positive WOM plays a critical role in facilitating destination marketing because it is considered to be a more reliable information source for potential tourists than induced promotion materials disseminated by destination organization \cite{Yoon & Uysal, 2005}. Therefore, it is assumed that a causal relationship exists between destination satisfaction and destination loyalty, measured by intention to visit and WOM recommendations.

While it is broadly recognized that the construct of loyalty is important to understand consumer behavior, the conditions and variables that indicate consumer loyalty may vary for a specific product or service \cite{Bee & Havitz, 2010}. One of the greatest challenges in destination research is whether loyalty is understood by the concept of “destination as product” \cite{McKercher & Guillet, 2010, p.3}. Although tourism has unique and distinctive features from products in general markets, most destination loyalty research has developed conceptual frameworks and measurements within broader product and service studies. McKercher and Guillet \cite{2010} claim no fundamental theory has been used to explain destination loyalty from the sociological or psychological perspectives. While the relationship between tourist satisfaction and revisit intention has been discussed frequently in the literature, much less attention has been paid to the relationship between tourist satisfaction and tourist attitudes. The issues of destination loyalty construction have led to a need to develop measurements suitable for the tourism context.

Loyalty has been explored in three different perspectives: behavioral, attitudinal, and combined ways. First, behavioral approach has mostly dominated consumer and destination loyalty research. In the behavioral approach, loyalty is defined as the act of a
consumer repeatedly buying the same brand (Croes, Shani, & Walls, 2010). As the behavioral approach is considered to be relatively easy and practical to measure the level of loyalty, most research on loyalty was typically based on consumer behavior by focusing only on outputs/results such as intentions to repeat visitation or repeat visitation intention (e.g., Chen & Gursoy, 2001; Yuksel & Yuksel, 2007). However, there have been some criticisms; for example, the approach does not consider the reasons or causes (as attitudinal perspectives) leading to repeat behavior.

Another concept, the attitudinal approach, aims at understanding the psychological attachment of customers, focusing more on causes than outputs from consumer behavior. Dick and Basu (1994) regard this psychological commitment as a different construct from attitudinal loyalty by explaining that psychological commitment leads to attitudinal loyalty. Attitudinal loyalty can be appreciated as a preference toward objects, while commitment refers to connections and willingness of affection (Mechinda, Serirat, & Gulid, 2009). Attitudinal approaches further argue that researchers need to recognize differences between customers’ intentional and spurious loyalty; the former is considered true loyalty on the basis of their preference and commitment whereas the latter refers to simply repeat purchase not because of their commitment and loyalty but because of time, convenience, monetary rewards or lack of substitutes (Oppermann, 2000). That is, brand commitment reflects the degree to which a brand is the only acceptable choice within a product category, while brand loyalty is the repeated purchase of a single brand over time (Warrington & Shim, 2000). James (2001) demonstrates significant relationships between psychological commitment, resistance to change, and some loyal behaviors.
In addition, Park (1996) suggested that “involvement and attitudinal loyalty contribute independently to the prediction of different measure of behavioral loyalty” (p. 246), describing that involvement better predicts intensity and frequency of participation, whereas attitudinal loyalty better predicts duration of participation. The research of Iwasaki and Havitz (2004) indicated that involvement did not have a direct effect on behavioral loyalty. However, involvement was found to indirectly influence behavioral loyalty through psychological commitment and resistance to change. Other researchers have also identified involvement as a precursor to psychological commitment (Backman & Crompton, 1991). Therefore, a positive attitude toward a brand or destination can be considered to be a significant indicator of loyalty.

However, this approach has been criticized for its lack of clarity in regards to its conceptual framework and inability to explain the factors that influence customer loyalty (Yoon & Uysal, 2005). It has been further reported to have difficulties in designing research instruments such as long questionnaires, in having respondents complete the long survey within limited time, and in predicting loyalty due to less consistency in attitudes over time (Croes et al., 2010). In addition, a customer may take several years to have such a stable attitude to develop loyalty. As a practical point, marketers tend to be more interested in actual behaviors and outputs than unstable attitudes (Oppermann, 1999). In regard to those reasons, current attitudinal measurements lack full development on the basis of the psychological approach in the tourism context (Pritchard, Howard, & Havitz, 1992).

Finally, combining behavior and attitudinal dimensions, an integrated approach has been developed to better understand loyalty (Backman & Crompton, 1991; Oliver, 1999;
Petrick, 2004; Shoemaker & Lewis, 1999). This measure enables researchers to suggest more meaningful interpretations and implications in a practical way by examining both behaviors and attitudes towards a destination. However, as there are criticisms on attitudinal measurement, recent research still tends to adopt only the behavioral approach due to easy assessment and obvious results (e.g., Croes et al., 2010).

Despite the criticisms of attitudinal and combined approaches, the behavioral approach alone seems to be insufficient in fully understanding consumer loyalty because the attitudinal component plays a crucial role in distinguishing true loyalty from simply repeat buying behavior (Mellens et al., 1996; Oliver, 1999). Several studies have suggested that satisfied visitors tend to recommend a destination to other people (e.g., Kozak & Rimmington, 2000; Yoon & Uysal, 2005), which may mean that satisfied visitors hold positive attitudes toward the destination. In measuring true loyalty, therefore, it is necessary to include attitudinal dimensions as well as behavioral instruments even though it will be difficult to develop a valid measure and implement the questionnaire.

**Conceptual Framework**

Researchers have investigated the evolution and popularity of pop-stars in light of the cultural characteristics of modernism, such as narcissism and the newly emerged society (Lasch, 1979). Lee et al. (2008) claimed that a narcissistic culture enables pop-stars to become an iconic symbol that people attempt to identify with. However, fans seeking to identify with pop-stars may exhibit different behaviors at varying degrees of fandom (Thorne, 2011). In order to better understand fans’ attitudes and behaviors, the self-expansion theory is reviewed to offer the connection between fandom and tourism.
Self-Expansion Theory

Self-expansion theory originated from a conceptual framework to understand people’s cognition, affection, and behaviors in close relationships between persons (Aron & Aron, 1986). The model integrates Eastern psychological aspects on the evolution of the self and the nature of love with Western psychology’s perspectives on motivation and cognition. The self-expansion model mainly discusses the human motive for the desire to expand the self through the acquisition of resources, perspectives, and identities that help one’s ability to achieve goals in conscious and unconscious processes (Aron, Aron, & Norman, 2001; Aron, Fisher, Mashek, Strong, & Brown, 2005).

The self-expansion model has two key dimensions: (1) self-expansion motivation and, (2) inclusion of close others in the self. Self-expansion motivation implies a central human motive for the desire to expand one’s ability for goal achievement while inclusion of close others in the self means that each impacts the other’s resources, perspectives, and identities to some extent as one’s own in a close relationship (Aron & Aron, 1986). Between persons, rapid expansion of the self, as often occurs when forming a new romantic relationship, is posited to result in high levels of excited, positive affect.

Self-expansion theory has been applied to understand brand relationships between a company and consumers (Reimann & Aron, 2009). This approach provides insights into brand management and the development of strong relationships between brands and consumers. Reimann and Aron (2009) argued that between brands and consumers, rapid self-expansion takes place for newly acquired brands, which leads to the formation of a new and close relationship between consumer and brand. Self-expansion is explained by
enduring involvement and the degree of involvement that can be further divided into low and high involvement (Houston & Rothschild, 1978).

Reimann and Aron (2009) argued that the rate of self-expansion, positive affect, and value associated with the brand decreases over time with brands that have been repeatedly purchased, owned, and used. For lower-involvement products, the decline may be even more rapid than for high-involvement products. In addition, the intensity of the interaction with the brand is another aspect that influences the decrease in self-expansion. Interaction intensity with a brand reduces the rate of rapid self-expansion (Reiman & Aron, 2009). However, while maintaining brand relationships, a high level of self-expansion toward a brand results in brand loyalty, particularly, psychological loyalty (i.e., commitment to a long-term brand relationship) (Carroll & Ahuvia, 2006).

Regarding the inclusion of close brands, a brand’s resources can translate into part of the owner’s self; a perspective of seeing the world from the brand’s point of view; and identity viewed as a brand’s identity becoming part of the cognitive structure of the owner’s self (Reiman & Aron, 2009). The researchers argued that for brands of high-involvement products, the effect of increasing inclusion in the self is steeper than for brands of low-involvement products although the rate of increase in inclusion in the self continues to decrease over time. On the other hand, the decreasing rate of inclusion in the self is higher for brands of low-involvement products than for brands of high-involvement products.

Self-expansion theory suggests that brand management needs to understand the difference between low- and high-involvement products in regards to the decreasing rate, length, and interaction intensity of a relationship associated with the degree of self-
expansion. Consumers tend to expand themselves more with brands of high-involvement products than low-involvement products. In addition, inclusion in itself also differs between the two involvement groups. For brands of low-involvement products, Reimann and Aron (2009) recommended that companies identify appropriate strategies to seek out higher levels of self-expansion and a slower decrease of additional utility by introducing new offers or additional features before expansion levels drop too much.

In addition to involvement, attachment is another perspective that can be explained by self-expansion theory. Attachment has been recognized as an important construct in understanding relationships between people (Bowlby, 1980; Hazan & Shaver, 1987). The theory is extended to broader settings; for example, the relationship between consumers and brand is explained by attachment theory (i.e., Reade, 2001; Richards & Schat, 2010; Thomso et al., 2005). Hazan and Shaver (1994) argued that different kinds of attachments exist and different attachments satisfy different types of desires and needs. People develop another attachment to the person or object for enhancing the existing relationship through the self-expansion process. The newly formed attachment for developing the engaged relationship can be explained by self-expansion theory, which compensates the attachment theory (Patwardhan & Balasubramanian, 2011).

Along with the application of brand relationships, it was suggested that the theory be applied into broader areas in which there are significant person-object relationships, such as political psychology, social psychology, health psychology, and environmental psychology (Reimann & Aron, 2009). Harris (2011), for example, explored adults over the age of 50 on self-expansion in volunteering (role-identity, commitment, volunteer functions) by applying the approach into social psychology. The results revealed that
aging is a process of continued psychological development those over 50, supporting the notion that the self-expansion model was a framework to provide a perspective of personal growth and continued development. In particular, environmental psychology is a good area to apply the approach because it studies the relation of a person with nature and in particular natural locales (Reimann & Aron, 2009). With this perspective, self-expansion theory can play a role in providing a link between fans (person) and a destination (nature).

Adopting self-expansion theory, this research considers that fans who are attached to the pop-star and involved in his activities are not just recipients of the pop-star’s creative resource, such as music, film and television; they also actively invest their own resources in the pop-star so as to maintain their close relationship with the pop-star. Such resources consist of (1) social resources, such as defending the pop-star to others (e.g., Johnson & Rusbult, 1989), (2) financial resources, as illustrated by a fan’s willingness to pay a higher price for the pop-star (Thomson et al., 2005) and (3) time resources, as evidenced by a fan’s involvement in fan club activities and fan promotion through social media (Muñiz & O’Guinn, 2001). Fans who are highly attached to a pop-star are more motivated to use their own resources for a more reciprocal relationship with the pop-star (Aron, Aron, & Smollan, 1992).

In addition, fans who are highly attached to a pop-star are also motivated to form another type of attachment to develop even stronger relationships by using a pop-star’s resources to expand themselves (Patwardhan & Balasubramanian, 2011). One of the key resources is the pop-star’s native country, which provides fans with direct access to the pop-star’s events or activities and the opportunity to experience the pop-star’s culture.
Ultimately, highly attached fans are also motivated to expand themselves by visiting the pop-star’s country in order to enhance a seemingly close relationship with the pop-star.

**Proposed Model**

Applying self-expansion theory, this research proposed a model (Figure 1). As discussed, the study combined disparate streams of research in order to develop a model of fan attitudes and behaviors toward a destination. The proposed model illustrates that fandom is influenced by a fan’s involvement, commitment, attachment, and group identity. Depending on different degrees of fandom, fans are assumed to show different travel motivation, satisfaction, place attachment, and destination loyalty.

![Figure 1. A proposed model.](image)

In the model, self-expansion theory is applied to investigate two perspectives: the relationship between fans and their favorite pop-star and the relationship between fans
and the pop-star’s native country. First, fans are motivated to expand themselves to achieve the goal of establishing a closer relationship with their favorite pop-stars. Fans immerse themselves in fan-related activities, committing their time and adhering themselves to the pop-star while gaining group identity through fan-club membership. Second, fans are motivated to visit the pop-star’s country in order to enhance their fandom and gain a closer relationship to a particular celebrity by acquiring more resources and experiences related to a particular pop-star in their home country.

**Research Hypotheses**

This research posits that fans that exhibit emotional ties to particular pop-stars will be highly involved in their activities and related events. In addition to a fan’s degree of involvement, other components such as commitment, attachment, and group identity are considered essential influences to fans’ characteristics and overall level of fandom (Fiske, 1992). Thus, this study assumes that the degrees of involvement, commitment, attachment and group identity that individuals experience regarding a pop-star significantly influence their fandom.

At the of relationship between fans and pop-stars, fans with a higher self-expansion had higher fandom in order to achieve their objective of establishing a closer relationship with the pop-star. Depending on the degree of self-expansion, the degree of fandom and degree of positive affect are different (Reimann & Aron, 2009). The following hypothesis is proposed:

H1: Fans who experience a higher self-expansion exhibit a higher degree of fandom.
Depending on the degree of fandom, their travel attitudes and behaviors toward a destination assume to be different. The study therefore offers the following main hypothesis that includes four sub-hypotheses:

H2: Fans with a higher degree of fandom have more favorable attitudes and behaviors toward a destination.

H2-1: Fans with a higher degree of fandom have a higher motivation to visit a destination.

H2-2: Fans with a higher degree of fandom experience greater satisfaction with their travel.

H2-3: Fans with a higher degree of fandom show stronger place attachment.

H2-4: Fans with a higher degree of fandom show greater destination loyalty.

At the destination level, fans that are highly motivated to expand themselves for goal achievement are assumed to be motivated to travel to the pop-star’s native country. The high degree of fans self-expansion establishes a positive affect on the pop-star’s country, and strong motivation to travel to enhance the relationship between fans and the pop-star. Fans who experience a higher degree of self-expansion by immersing themselves in the native country and culture of a particular pop star will establish a significantly higher positive notion regarding the destination. Ultimately, an individual’s positive reinforcement regarding the country eventually results in strong desire to visit the pop-star’s country (destination). Based on the self-expansion-theory, the following hypothesis is formulated.

H3: Fans who experience a higher self-expansion have a higher motivation to visit a destination. (Self-expansion has a direct effect on travel motivation)
In addition, this assumes that differences in self-expansion would indicate different degrees of attitudes and behaviors toward a destination, influenced by different degrees of fandom by fans’ lives and activities related to a particular pop star. That is, fans who experience higher self-expansion exhibit higher fandom, which in turn have more favorable attitudes and behaviors toward a destination. The following main hypothesis with four sub-hypotheses is constructed below:

H4: Fans who experience a higher self-expansion have more favorable attitudes and behaviors toward a destination through a higher degree of fandom. (Self-expansion has an indirect effect on their attitudes and behaviors toward a destination through the mediator of fandom).

H4-1: Fans who experience a higher self-expansion have a higher motivation to visit a destination through a higher fandom.

H4-2: Fans who experience a higher self-expansion experience greater satisfaction with their travel through a higher fandom.

H4-3: Fans who experience a higher self-expansion experience show stronger place attachment through a higher fandom.

H4-4: Fans who experience a higher self-expansion experience show greater destination loyalty through a higher fandom.
CHAPTER 3

RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY

This chapter describes the research design, data collection, and data analysis that were used to examine the relationships among self-expansion, fandom, and travel attitudes and behaviors. The research design and methodology consist of four main sections. This chapter first starts by presenting the research design including sampling, and survey instruments. The second section presents pilot study procedures and results to assess survey instruments by employing exploratory factor analysis. The third section describes data collection procedures. The last section of this chapter provides a series of data analysis procedures including data screening, item parceling, and structural equation modeling.

Research Design

This study utilized a quantitative approach to investigate the influence of self-expansion and fandom on loyalty to a destination via motivation, satisfaction, and place attachment. Involvement, commitment, attachment, and identity were selected as factors that influence the degree of fandom. One open-ended question was included to further understand the respondents’ reasons in detail toward their attitudes and behaviors.

Sampling

The context for this study is Korean pop-culture. To represent Korean pop-culture, particular Korean pop-stars and their fans were sampled. Two criteria were used for sampling: subjects should have a favorite Korean pop-star(s), and they should have visited South Korea. To understand fans’ travel attitudes and behaviors, their visitation
to South Korea was necessary to measure motivation, satisfaction, place attachment, and destination loyalty.

Fans represent not only members of the official pop-star fan club but also non-registered fans. This extensive sampling aims at recruiting fans at diverse fandom levels as well as including a greater pool of participants. Hence, the survey population consisted entirely of fans who are interested in or like the particular pop-star.

The study mainly targeted fans of three pop-stars including Ahn, Jae-Wook, TVQX/JYJ, and Rain. Ahn Jae-Wook, a Korean pop-star, and his fans, was selected as an example of Korean pop-culture or “K-POP” as it is commonly referred. Ahn Jae-Wook is both an actor and singer. Since 1997 when his drama aired on Asian television, he has commanded unrivaled popularity in China, surpassing Leonardo Di Caprio as the most popular international celebrity (Choe, 2001). Currently, his fan-club, Forever, is active in ten countries and regions including Korea, China, Japan, Malaysia, Philippines, Taiwan, Hong Kong, Singapore, Mexico, and USA, and has over 10,000 registered members as of May, 2011.

Survey Instrument

The questionnaire consisted of six parts: self-expansion, fandom, motivation, satisfaction, place attachment, and destination loyalty. Demographic information such as gender, income, age, education, and ethnic background were included in the last section of the questionnaire. In addition, one open-ended question was included to further understand the respondents’ reasons in detail toward their attitudes and behaviors. Each individual’s degree of self-expansion was measured with Self-Expansion Questions (SEQ). The degree of fandom was determined by his or her involvement, commitment,
attachment, and group identity. And fans’ attitudes and behaviors toward a destination were examined in terms of motivation, satisfaction, place attachment, and destination loyalty. Measurements for all variables consisted of multiple items that were developed on the basis of previous studies and modified to fit the context of this study.

**General self-expansion**

General self-expansion (GSE) was adapted from the Self-Expansion Questions (SEQ) (Lewandowski, Aron, & Bassis, 2006; Appendix E). The SEQ presents 14 questions and instructs respondents to rate each question on a 7-point Likert scale ranging from 1 (not very much) to 7 (very much). The format of the SEQ was modified from questions to statements. Examples of items include *I have a larger perspective on things because of this person/thing* and *This person/thing helps to expand my sense of the kind of person I am*. Instructions were slightly modified to respond to each SEQ statement on a 7-point Likert scale ranging from 1 (not very much) to 7 (very much) based on their experience of self-expansion.

**Variables for fandom**

Involvement with a pop-star was measured by adopting the frequently involvement profile (IP) developed by Laurent and Kepferer’s (1985) and modified by McIntyre and Pigram (1992). A 9-item measure structured on a 7-point Likert type scale that ranged from 1 (Strongly disagree) to 7 (Strongly disagree) was used to evaluate involvement in four underlying perspectives: pleasure/interest, perceived importance, centrality to lifestyle, and self-expression (Dimanche, Havitz, & Howard, 1991).

The commitment measure was developed by adopting psychological commitment in two perspectives; psychological and behavioral (Johnson, 1973; Iwasaki & Havitz, 1998,
Fan’s commitment was measured with a 10-item scale structured on a 7-point Likert type scale that ranged from 1 (Strongly disagree) to 7 (Strongly disagree).

Attachment was measured with an adaptation of Ball and Tasaki’s (1992) 9-item scale that was used in the sports context. With slight modifications, a total of 7 items was used to measure attachment structured on a 7-point Likert type scale that ranged from 1 (Strongly disagree) to 7 (Strongly disagree).

Group identity was measured by the group identity scale, suggested by Cameron (2004) and validated by Obst and White (2005). This scale originally consisted of 12 items in 3 dimensions: centrality, evaluation (ingroup affect in the Cameron’s scale), and group attachment (ingroup ties, in Cameron’s scale). Reducing the items, a total of 8 items were used on a 7-point Likert-type scale, ranging from 1 (Strongly disagree) to 7 (Strongly agree). A higher score on the measure indicated stronger group identity.

**Variables for fans’ travel attitudes and behaviors**

Fans’ travel attitudes and behaviors were measured to determine their motivation to travel, satisfaction with travel, place attachment, and destination loyalty. Motivation to travel was measured in two perspectives: intrinsic and extrinsic dimensions on the basis of self-determination theory (Deci & Ryan, 2000; Ryan & Deci, 2000). Four items were developed to measure intrinsic motivation such as travel for exploration and arousal, and three items were used to evaluate extrinsic motivation of pop-star related activities. Each items used on a 7-point Likert response scale ranging from 1 (not very much) to 7 (very much).

Satisfaction with travel was measured in two ways: specific and overall satisfaction based on the visitor satisfaction instrument that was developed by McMullan and O’Neill
(2010). Overall satisfaction was evaluated with a 16-item scale. Specific satisfaction consisted of 20 items that measured both products and services. Instruments of the two types of satisfaction were structured on a 7-point Likert type scale ranging from 1 to 7 (1= strongly disagree; 7= strongly agree).

The scale of place attachment was adapted from Williams and Vaska (2003). A modified version of the 14-item scale aimed to measure two dimensions of attachment: place identity and place dependence. In addition, a third dimension of social bonding was included with 4-items that measures fans’ group membership through social relationships which can play a role in forming place attachment (Kyle et al., 2005). The Likert response scale ranged from 1 (strongly disagree) to 7 (strongly agree).

Destination loyalty was measured from a psychological perspective in two ways: future intentions and attitude (Backman & Crompton, 1991; Oliver, 1999; Petrick, 2004; Shoemaker & Lewis, 1999). Future intentions were measured in two aspects of revisit intention (five items) and word of mouth (recommendation) (two items). The attitude component of destination loyalty was measured by commitment (two items). A total of nine items were developed with a 7-point Likert response scale ranging from 1 (very unlikely) to 7 (very likely).

**Survey translations**

The developed questionnaire was translated into Japanese and Chinese as the majority of Korean pop-star fans are expected to be non-English speakers. A previous study by the author indicated that a Korean pop-star’s fans were able to respond to a survey in one of the three languages of English, Japanese, and Chinese. Three Japanese and Chinese people validated the translated versions of the survey. The translated surveys in Japanese
and Chinese were re-translated two times into English to ensure the instrument reflects the original meanings.

**Pilot test**

In general, existing measurement scales do not require a pretest because they provide considerable certainty with some degree of validity and reliability (Babbie, 2001). However, a pilot study is necessary to check the wording and ensure validity and reliability of the proposed constructs. This research employed a pilot study approach to ensure internal consistency of the measurement scales as well as to detect wording and response errors prior to the final data collection.

The pilot study included two steps. First the developed questionnaire was reviewed by two Chinese and Japanese fans and two faculty members at University of Nevada, Las Vegas. This first step required a thorough review, resulting in a few modifications of item wordings. In addition, this step ensured that the surveys in different languages were correctly translated.

The second step in the pilot test was conducted with the modified survey on October 30, 2011 at a Korean pop-star’s event in which approximately 400 fan club members participated. The self-administrated survey questionnaire was distributed to event participants while they were waiting for the event in three languages: English, Japanese, and Chinese. A previous study conducted with fan club members indicated that all respondents were able to complete the survey in one of the three languages. Out of 400 fans, a total of 123 participated in the pilot survey.

Measurement subscales of this pretest were checked by Cronbach’s alpha values for internal consistency across the items in respective constructs. All measurement subscales
had an acceptable Cronbach’s alpha score with a range between .76 and .97. However, the wording of some items was modified when a question was expressed in a negative way because there was an issue of reliability. In the attachment measure, for example, the item *I really don’t have too many feelings about him* was modified into the positive sentence *I have lots of feelings about him*. In the same way, one commitment item *I don’t really know much about him* was modified to *I know much about my STAR*.

Some items were removed if meanings of items were similar. For example, the reliability for the 14 items of self-expansion scale was .98. However, the response rate was only 70% (i.e., out of 145 subjects, 106 completed the scale). Based on the reliability results, means, and meanings of items, five items were removed, including *I feel that I have a larger perspective on things because of this person*, *This person increases my ability to accomplish new things*, *This person makes me more appealing to other people*, *This person helps to expand my sense of the kind of person I am*, and *This person has resulted in my learning new things*. Another variable, overall satisfaction also had similar concerns. Respondents pointed out that those questions were very similar to each other and some questions were duplicated in the specific satisfaction scale. Through a careful review, seven items were deleted, including *It has good evening entertainment*, *It is too crowded for sightseeing*, *There are lots of good restaurants*, *There are a good variety of attractions*, *It has a rich cultural heritage*, *My overall evaluation on the experience of visiting South Korea is favorable*, *I am satisfied with my past experience of visiting South Korea*. The remaining nine items were used for substantial data analysis.
Exploratory Factor Analysis

Items belonging to each construct were subjected to exploratory factor analysis (EFA) to determine whether the items represented the corresponding factor and whether the factor loadings were acceptable. This procedure was indicated to decrease error variance of indicator correlations prior to confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) to test the measurement model (Yoon & Uysal, 2005). Based on data obtained from the pilot study, two factor analysis extraction methods - Principal Axis Factoring (PAF) and Maximum Likelihood (ML) along with two rotations - orthogonal (varimax) and oblique (direct oblimin) - were chosen to determine whether the solutions were stable across each method and whether there were sizable correlations between the extracted factors (Costello & Osborne, 2005).

Item inclusion decisions were based on factor loadings with a cut-off value of 0.40, eigen-values greater than 1, Scree plot, and variance explained. The reliability of each dimension was assessed by Cronbach’s Alpha coefficient to evaluate internal consistency. Generally, Cronbach’s alpha of .70 and higher are considered acceptable values (Nunnally, 1978). If a factor has fewer than 6 items, however, .60 may be acceptable (Cortina, 1993). The EFA results of each latent construct are shown in Table 2 through 7. These tables include only the remaining items after removing items that were either cross-loaded or their factor loadings were less than .4.

Self-expansion was initially comprised of 14 items. After deleting five items as a result of the pilot study, the remaining nine items still had high internal consistency (Cronbach’s α = .97) and the EFA results indicated that all items loaded on only one factor (Table 2).
Table 2

*Factor Loadings, Reliabilities, and Means of Indicators for Self-Expansion*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Indicators / Items</th>
<th>loadings</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Self-expansion</strong> <em>(Cronbach’s α = .97, M = 5.40)</em></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>This person/activity increases my ability to accomplish new things.</td>
<td>.940</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>This person/activity increases my knowledge.</td>
<td>.937</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Knowing this person/doing the activity has made me a better person.</td>
<td>.931</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I often learn new things about this person/activity.</td>
<td>.927</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Being with this person/doing the activity results in my having new experiences.</td>
<td>.911</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>This person/activity allows me to compensate for some of my own weaknesses.</td>
<td>.874</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>This person/activity provides a source of exciting experiences.</td>
<td>.819</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>When I am with this person, I feel a greater awareness of things because of this person.</td>
<td>.797</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(When I am doing the activity, I feel a greater awareness of things because of it).</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>This person/activity increases the respect other people have for me.</td>
<td>.718</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Note.* KMO = .95; 85.08% Explained.

Fandom was designed with four indicators - involvement, attachment, commitment, and group identity. An EFA was conducted separately on each indicator of fandom (Table 3). The EFA results for the four indicators showed that the items with one exception loaded on one dimension with no cross factor loadings. The commitment item, “Most of my friends are in some way connected with my favorite pop-star” loaded on a different factor. After removing the item, all remaining items loaded on one dimension. The coefficient value of each indicator – Involvement, attachment, commitment, and group identity was .89, .81, .83 and .93, respectively. The variance explained by each indicator was over 60%.
Table 3

Factor Loadings, Reliabilities, and Means of Indicators for Fandom

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Indicators / Items</th>
<th>loadings</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Involvement (Cronbach's $\alpha = .89$, $M = 5.58$)</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Participating in my STAR’s activities is one of the most satisfying things I do.</td>
<td>.82</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>My STAR’s activities offer me relaxation when pressures build up.</td>
<td>.79</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>When I participate in my STAR’s activities, I can really be myself.</td>
<td>.79</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>My STAR is very important to me.</td>
<td>.78</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I really enjoy participating in my STAR’s activities.</td>
<td>.74</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I find a lot of my life is organized around my STAR and STAR’s activities.</td>
<td>.70</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Participating in my STAR’s activities says a lot about who I am.</td>
<td>.62</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I can tell a lot about people by seeing them participating in my STAR’s activities.</td>
<td>.58</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>When I participate in my STAR’s events, others see me the way I want them to see me.</td>
<td>.56</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Attachment (Cronbach's $\alpha = .81$, $M = 4.94$)</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>If someone praised my STAR, I would feel somewhat praised myself.</td>
<td>.73</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>If I couldn't participate in my STAR’s events, I would feel a little less like myself.</td>
<td>.69</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>People who know me might sometimes think of my STAR when they think of me.</td>
<td>.65</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>If someone verbally attacked my STAR, I would feel a little bit personally attacked.</td>
<td>.63</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>If my STAR was disbanded, I would feel like I had lost a little bit of myself.</td>
<td>.61</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>If I were describing myself, my STAR would likely be something I would mention.</td>
<td>.54</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I have lots of feelings about my STAR.</td>
<td>.43</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Commitment (Cronbach's $\alpha = .83$, $M = 5.73$)</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>My STAR means a lot to me.</td>
<td>.85</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>My STAR means more to me than any other pop-star I can think of.</td>
<td>.83</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Changing my preference from my STAR to another would require major thinking.</td>
<td>.75</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>It would be difficult to change my beliefs about my STAR.</td>
<td>.74</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The decision to participate in my STAR’s events was primarily my own.</td>
<td>.65</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I consider myself an educated fan regarding my STAR.</td>
<td>.51</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I enjoy discussing my STAR with my friends.</td>
<td>.50</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Even if friends recommend someone else, I would not change my preference for my STAR.</td>
<td>.49</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I know much about my STAR.</td>
<td>.40</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Group Identity (Cronbach's $\alpha = .93$, $M = 5.41$)</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I feel good about myself when I think about being a member / fan.</td>
<td>.88</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>In general I’m glad to be a member or fan.</td>
<td>.87</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I feel strong ties to other members / fans.</td>
<td>.81</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I would like to continue working with other members / fans.</td>
<td>.76</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I often think about being a member of my STAR fan-club.</td>
<td>.75</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Being a member is an important part of myself image.</td>
<td>.75</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I have a lot in common with other members / fans.</td>
<td>.72</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I identify with other members/fans toward my STAR.</td>
<td>.71</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Motivation was initially comprised of a 7-item instrument. The EFA results showed that one item, “To show others how often I travel to South Korea” loaded to another factor. After deleting the item, the remaining six items were loaded into one factor with the coefficient values of .87 (Table 4).

Table 4

*Factor Loadings, Reliability, and Mean of Motivation*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Indicators / Items</th>
<th>loadings</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Motivation (Cronbach's $\alpha = .87$, $M = 5.01$)</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>For the satisfaction I experience while I am visiting South Korea.</td>
<td>.88</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>For the excitement I feel when I am traveling in South Korea</td>
<td>.87</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>For pleasure of meeting people in South Korea.</td>
<td>.77</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>For the pleasure of discovering South Korea.</td>
<td>.76</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>For the enjoyment of visiting my STAR’s related venues in South Korea.</td>
<td>.55</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Because I want to participate in my STAR’s events, I must do travel to Korea</td>
<td>.48</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Note. KMO = .81; 60.91% Explained.*

Satisfaction was designed to measure two perspectives: overall and specific satisfaction. Out of nine overall satisfaction items, the EFA results showed that two items loaded on another factor. The two items of “It is a clean state” and “There are things to do on weekends” were removed. The EFA showed that the remaining seven items were loaded in one factor (Table 5). Specific satisfaction initially consisted of an 18-item measure. The EFA results indicated that two items, “physical conditions” and “hours operation” were cross-loaded and/or their factor loading was less than .4. Therefore the two items were deleted. The remaining 16 items loaded clearly into two factors of product (destination features) and service (environment), which is consistent with the
original dimensions (Table 5). The coefficient values of overall and specific product, and service satisfaction were .92, .95, and .92, respectively.

Table 5

*Factor Loadings, Reliabilities, and Means of Indicators for Satisfaction*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Indicators / Items</th>
<th>Loadings</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Overall satisfaction (Cronbach's α = .92, M = 5.29)</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I am pleased with my past experience of visiting South Korea.</td>
<td>.90</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>South Korea is a good place to visit.</td>
<td>.89</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I think that I did the right decision to visit South Korea</td>
<td>.86</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>South Korea offers good value for money.</td>
<td>.84</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>My overall evaluation on the experience of visiting South Korea is positive.</td>
<td>.81</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>South Korea was better than I expected.</td>
<td>.79</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>South Korea is easy to get around.</td>
<td>.49</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Specific satisfaction</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Product (Cronbach's α = .95, M= 4.65)</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tourism information centers</td>
<td>.90</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cultural Heritage</td>
<td>.84</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Festivals and Events</td>
<td>.82</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Parks and beaches</td>
<td>.82</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Visitor attractions</td>
<td>.80</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Signage</td>
<td>.79</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Drama featured venues</td>
<td>.78</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Shopping</td>
<td>.77</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Restaurants</td>
<td>.77</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Public transportation</td>
<td>.76</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Evening entertainment</td>
<td>.58</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Service (Cronbach's α = .92, M=4.71)</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Access to location/attraction</td>
<td>.94</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cleanliness of location/site</td>
<td>.91</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tourism information centers</td>
<td>.90</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Safety at location/site</td>
<td>.73</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Roads and highways</td>
<td>.67</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Note.* Overall Satisfaction KMO = .90; 69.47% Explained. Specific Satisfaction KMO = .94; 71.91% Explained.

Place attachment was initially comprised of an 18-item instrument. The EFA revealed that cross-loadings and/or a loading value less than .4 occurred for four items, “If I were to stop visiting South Korea, I would lose contact with friends,” “I have a
special connection to the people who visit (or live in) South Korea,” “I have little, if any, emotional attachment to South Korea,” and “I am very attached to South Korea.” After removing the items, the remaining 14 items loaded clearly into three dimensions: place identity, place dependence, and social bonding (Table 6), which is consistent with previous findings (Kyle, Graefe, & Manning, 2005; Williams & Vaska, 2003). The Cronbach’s alpha values for those dimensions were .93, .91, and .84, respectively, thereby indicating a good internal consistency of the place attachment subscales.

Table 6

Factor Loadings, Reliabilities, and Means of Indicators for Place Attachment

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Indicators / Items</th>
<th>Loadings</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Place Identity (Cronbach’s α = .93, M=4.42)</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I identify strongly with South Korea.</td>
<td>.81</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I feel that I can be myself when I visit/am in South Korea.</td>
<td>.80</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I feel a strong sense of belonging to South Korea.</td>
<td>.80</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I feel my personal values are reflected in South Korea.</td>
<td>.64</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>South Korea means a lot to me.</td>
<td>.43</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Visiting South Korea means a lot about who I am.</td>
<td>.47</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Place Dependence (Cronbach's α = .91, M=4.6)</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I get more satisfaction out of visiting Korea than from visiting any other country.</td>
<td>.81</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Doing leisure activities in South Korea is more important than in any other place.</td>
<td>.73</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>For the recreation/leisure activities that I enjoy, South Korea is the best.</td>
<td>.68</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>For what I like to travel, I could not imagine anything better setting than Korea.</td>
<td>.65</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I enjoy traveling to Korea more than any other country.</td>
<td>.63</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Social Bonding (Cronbach's α = .84, M=4.38)</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I have a lot of fond memories with friends/family in South Korea</td>
<td>.81</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Many of my friends/family prefer South Korea over other places.</td>
<td>.73</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Visiting in South Korea allows me to spend time with my friends.</td>
<td>.64</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Note. KMO = .91; 76.16% Explained.*
Destination loyalty was initially comprised of a 9-item measure. The EFA results showed two items *I would like to participate in his activities in South Korea within the next year* and *I would like to visit South Korea again* loaded at less than .4. After removing the items, the remaining seven items loaded clearly into three dimensions: revisit intention, word of mouth (WOM), and attitudinal loyalty. Cronbach’s alpha values of revisit intention, WOM, and attitudinal loyalty were .81, .82, and .61, respectively.

Table 7

*Factor Loadings, Reliabilities, and Means of Indicators for Destination Loyalty*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Indicators / Items</th>
<th>Loadings</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Revisit Intention (Cronbach's α = .81, M=4.59)</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I would like to visit South Korea for traveling purpose within the next year.</td>
<td>.93</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I would like to have come to South Korea even if you had not come for my STAR’s events.</td>
<td>.66</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I would like to still visit South Korea even if my STAR wouldn’t live in South Korea.</td>
<td>.63</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Word of Mouth (Cronbach's α = .82, M=5.41)</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I would like to recommend South Korea to people who seek my advice for their future travels.</td>
<td>.88</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I would like to tell other positive things about South Korea.</td>
<td>.77</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Attitudinal Loyalty (Cronbach's α = .61, M=4.99)</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>For me, no country could substitute for South Korea</td>
<td>.69</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I consider myself a loyal visitor of South Korea.</td>
<td>.51</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Note.* KMO = .78; 79.58% Explained.

In summary, the EFA results determined whether the items represented the corresponding factors and whether the factor loadings were acceptable. On the basis of the EFA results, the final questionnaire was modified to use for data collection with a total of 74 items in six variables, including 7-self-expansion, 34-fandom (9-involvement, 7-attachment, 9-commitment, and 8-group identity), 6-motivation, 21-satisfaction, and 7-destination loyalty items. These items, representing the corresponding variables were used for the subsequent data collection and analysis.
Data Collection

Data was collected through an online survey targeting Korean pop-stars’ fans from January 16 to March 3, 2012. An online survey tool, Qualtrics was employed for data collection. The surveys were prepared in three languages: English, Japanese, and Chinese. The list of Forever fan club members’ emails were obtained through representatives in each country with the support of fan club agencies. Non-fan club members were recruited with the help of current fan club members by contacting users of pop-stars official and unofficial websites.

The first survey announcement was on January 16, 2012. The survey announcement, including the survey link, was emailed to fan club members. In addition, the survey was announced on official and nonofficial websites for non-registered fans as well as fan club members. The websites include http://www.ahnjaewook.co.kr (Korean official website), http://www.ahn-jaewook.com (Japanese official website), http://www.anjaewook.org and http://www.jaewookie.net (Korea), http://www.jemisama.net (Japan), http://allforajw9.w3.dvbbs.net, http://www.krdrama.com/bbs/, and www.baidu.com (China), www.anjaewookhkhouse.com (Hong Kong), www.worldforevetaiwan.com (Taiwan), http://ahnjaewook71.multiply.com (Malaysia), sina.com, http://ahnjaewook-peru.mforos.com (Peru), and worldforeverusa.org (U.S.). In addition, with the help of Japanese and Chinese translators, the survey message was left in more than 50 fan-related blogs of fans for JYJ, TVXO, Rain, Super Junior, SHINee, 2 pm, 2 am, CN blue, FTIsland, Big Bang, Beast, M Black, Infinite, Teentop, Girls’ Generation, f(x), Kara, T-ARA, 2NE1 and MissA.
To recruit various fans over the world, the announcement was also sent to about 2,000 students at a university in the United States and 550 students at a campus in Singapore. A reminder email was sent on February 1, 2012 and a second reminder on February 15, 2012. An additional email was sent on February 22, 2012 to those who participated in but not yet completed the survey. The survey was closed on March 3, 2012.

**Data Analysis**

**Data Screening and Preparation**

Data screening and preparation consisted of three steps: (1) dealing with missing observations in the data file; (2) checking the data set for errors and outliers; and (3) screening the data to check the normality, linearity, homoscedasticity, and multicollinearity of observed variables. It is critical to deal with missing data because they can produce biased results and jeopardize the accuracy, statistical power, and validity of the results (Sinha, Stern, & Russell, 2001). In this study, no missing data was found because the online survey approach ensured participants did not miss any questions in order to complete the survey.

SPSS 18 was employed to detect any errors of observed variables in the data file. Outliers were detected at the two levels: univariate and multivariate. First, skewness and kurtosis and distributions of $z$ scores for variables were examined for univariate outliers (Kline, 2005). At the univariate level, skewness and kurtosis boundaries are greatly disputed on indicators for self-expansion, fandom (i.e., involvement, commitment), and motivation (i.e., pop-star events), ranging from .11 to 2.64 while the rest variables are not skewed. These skewed variables are those that measure fans’ attitudes toward their
favorite pop-stars, which are expected to be relatively high in nature. An examination of Z-scores for those variables showed that six cases were considered extreme with z scores larger than 3.

Influential analyses were performed to detect outliers at the multivariate level by checking Mahalanobis distance statistic, standardized difference in fit value (SDF), standardized difference in beta (SDB), and Cooks’ distance (COO). The multivariate results indicated that six cases were outliers, which was consistent with the univariate results. In addition, EQS normality test Z-statistic revealed the same results. Therefore, the six cases were removed from the data set for subsequent data analyses.

Linearity and homoscedasticity assumptions were largely met. Muticollinearity (tolerance value and variance inflation factor (VIF)) was tested among variables of the latent factors to ensure variables were not highly correlated. The results showed that all VIFs among the indicators were less than 10, ranging from 1.72 to 3.98; thereby the variables were not highly correlated.

**Item Parceling**

A parcel refers to an observed variable, which is a simple sum or mean of several items assumed to be conceptually similar, unidimensional, and assesses the same construct (Kishton & Widaman, 1994). The ratio of the number of cases to the number of free parameters has to be at least 5:1. A complex model with a great deal of parameters requires larger samples than a parsimonious model in order to obtain comparable stable estimates (Kline, 2005). Thus a model with fewer parameters is desirable for the statistical precision of results. Researchers have noted that using item parceling, instead of items, can be beneficial for substantial improvement of the ratio of sample size to the
number of variables, particularly when dealing with large numbers of measured variables (e.g., Hau & Marsh, 2004). Marsh, Hau, Balla, and Grayson (1998) demonstrated there were no differences between item parcels and items in regard to proper solution convergence and parameter estimates. This procedure was used to simplify the structural model while maintaining its theoretical integrity (West, Finch, & Curran, 1995).

Item parceling has been constructed by several approaches. Cattell and Burdsal (1975) used EFA to categorize items into parcels based on congruence coefficients. Kishton and Widaman (1994) examined the differences in the model fit of CFA between unidimensional parceling of items and domain representative parceling of items. Nasser, Takahashi, and Benson (1997) categorized items into parcels on the basis of similar item content and factor structure. These approaches found that parcels constructed using this approach produced a better model fit than did individual items.

Given the presence of the small cases/parameters ratio (less than 5:1) due to the limited sample size ($N = 219$) in this study, item parceling was employed to yield more robust CFA results (Kline, 2005). On the basis of the EFA results and similar item content and factor structure, the items designed to measure the conceptually similar subscale in the previous analysis were grouped into parcels, and averaged to create score aggregates for further analyses. Those parcels served as the indicator variables for the respective latent constructs in the subsequent data analysis.

**Structural Equation Modeling**

Structural equation modeling (SEM) was used to examine the hypothesized relationships among the constructs in the study. The causal relationships among theoretical constructs can be presented visually in an effective way to analyze the model
(Byrne, 1998). SEM simultaneously tests the entire constructs of a hypothesized model in order to determine its consistency with the data and the pattern of relations with variables. In particular, the hypothesized model was tested with the EQS program (Bentler, 1995) by imposing the structure of direct and indirect effects on the data.

SEM deals with exogenous and endogenous variables (Hair, Black, Babin, Anderson, & Tatham, 2006). These variables consist of unobserved constructs that are derived from theory and indicators that can be measured from direct observation of the data (Byrne, 1998). The unobserved construct is generally called a latent variable, and the indicator variable a manifest variable. In the current study, there are two exogenous variables including four latent variables (i.e., self-expansion, fandom) and four endogenous variables (i.e., motivation, satisfaction, place attachment, and destination loyalty). Each latent construct has multiple indicator variables.

SEM involved a two-step approach: (1) examination of a measurement model; and (2) examination of a structural model (Byrne, 1998). First the measurement model was examined through confirmatory factor analysis. The fit of a measurement model was tested to determine whether the observed variables (indicators of the latent constructs) were generated by the corresponding latent constructs. The overall fit and the regression paths were analyzed in this endeavor. Second, the hypothesized model (the full SEM model) was tested to validate specified casual linkages among constructs. This subsequent analysis is associated with simultaneously examining the hypothetical relationships among the constructs. The indices of the goodness of fit between the hypothesized model and the data were examined to determine if the model explains the data. In addition, a modification process was applied to the selected model, to determine
if the model could be further improved to represent a good fit to the data and adequately describe the meaningful relationships among the constructs.

Within the EQS framework, the relationships among the constructs were tested, by imposing the structure of direct and indirect effects. The evaluation of model adequacy was based on the Chi-square statistic ($\chi^2$), comparative fit index (CFI), Non-normed fit index (NNFI), root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA), and its confidence interval (CI). The results of Lagrange Multiplier (LM) tests and Wald tests were used to determine misspecification parameters in the model modification process (Byrne, 1998). In addition, the investigator’s knowledge of the data and theoretical and conceptual aspects (Jöreskog, 1971) of research on emotion, attachment, and loyalty were also considered in evaluating the model adequacy. The covariances and correlations among the indicators were also examined. Skewness, kurtosis (univariate and multivariate), and the normality test $Z$-statistic indicated that the samples were not normally distributed. Therefore, Satorra and Bentler’s robust method ($S-B\chi^2$) was used for this study (Bentler, 2008).
CHAPTER IV

RESULTS

The objective of this chapter is to present results of the study. First, a description of respondent characteristics including sociodemographic information, favorite pop-stars and fan memberships, and travel experiences are presented. Second, the descriptive statistics of the indicators for each factor in terms of means, reliabilities, and correlations are provided. The final section includes the results from the measurement and structural equation modeling. The structural model was evaluated in both direct and indirect effects.

Respondent Characteristics

Response Rate

Out of 932 participants, a total of 535 people completed the survey for a response rate of 57.4%. Among the 535 respondents, 275 had visited South Korea, meeting the criteria for inclusion in the study. However, out of the 275 past visitors, 56 cases were determined to be invalid because their surveys were either duplicates or non-Korean pop star fans. Thus, these cases were eliminated. Six additional cases were outliers based on data screening. Therefore, a total of 213 responses were used for data analysis.

Demographics of Respondents

The sociodemographic characteristics of respondents are presented in Table 8. Overall, respondents were predominantly female (84%) with males representing only 16% of the sample. The average age of respondents was 38 years old and ranged from 18 to 76 years old, representing a normal distribution. The majority of all respondents (75.6%) indicated that they had earned a higher education degree from 2-year (23%), 4-
year College (46%), or Graduate school (6%). The remaining participants had completed high school (17.8%) or other education levels such as a certificate program (6.6%).

Table 8

Sociodemographic Characteristics of Respondents

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Characteristics of respondents</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Percent (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Gender</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td>179</td>
<td>84.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>16.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Age</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20 years old or less</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>2.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>21-30 years old</td>
<td>74</td>
<td>34.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>31-40 years old</td>
<td>46</td>
<td>21.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>41-50 years old</td>
<td>48</td>
<td>22.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>51-60 years old</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>15.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>61 years old or older</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>2.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Education</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>High School</td>
<td>38</td>
<td>17.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2-year College</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>23.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4-year College</td>
<td>98</td>
<td>46.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Graduate</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>6.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Others</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>6.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Income</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$1-19,999</td>
<td>45</td>
<td>21.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$20,000-$39,999</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>10.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$40,000-$59,999</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>15.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$60,000-$79,999</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>12.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$80,000-$99,000</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>13.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$100,000-$119,000</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>12.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$120,000-$139,000</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>5.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$140,000 or more</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>9.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Nationality</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>U.S.</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>15.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>China</td>
<td>43</td>
<td>20.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Japan</td>
<td>113</td>
<td>53.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Taiwan</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>6.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Malaysia</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Singapore</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hong Kong</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>1.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Others</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>2.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Ethnicity</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Caucasian</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>4.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Asian</td>
<td>194</td>
<td>91.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hispanic</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>2.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>African American</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Native American</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>1.4</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Respondents’ income for 2011 was almost evenly distributed across the range of categories from a low of $20,000 to more than $140,000. About thirty-two percent of respondents earned less than $40,000; 27.2 % made between $40,000 and $79,999; 25.8% earned $80,000 and $119,999, and the rest (12.1%) earned $120,000.

The majority of subjects were Japanese (53%), followed by Chinese (20%), American (15%), Taiwanese (6%), and other nationalities and regions (6%) such as Hong Kong, Malaysian, Singaporean, Thai, and Pilipino. By ethnicity, the majority of participants were Asian (91%) with 9% representing Caucasian, Hispanic, Native American and African American.

**Fan’s Characteristics and Membership**

Respondents’ favorite pop-stars and their related memberships are presented in Table 9. The majority of respondents were fans of five different pop-stars including Ahn, Jae-Wook (31%), TVQX/JYJ (23.9%), Rain (7.5%), Lee, Ji-Hoon (6.1%), and others (31.5%). There were 15 other favorite pop-stars such as Bigbang, SuperJunior, FT island, 2PM, Shinee, Girl’s generation, and Wonder girls, Tiara, etc. More than half of all respondents (60.6%) had a membership to their favorite pop-stars fan club.

Table 9

*Fans’ Favorite Pop-Stars and Memberships*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Favorite Pop-star</th>
<th>Membership</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>No</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ahn, Jae-Wook</td>
<td>62</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TVQX and/or JYJ</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rain</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lee, Ji-Hoon</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Others</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>49</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>129</strong></td>
<td><strong>84</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
**Travel Experiences of Respondents**

Fan’s travel experiences to South Korea are presented in Table 10. The majority of respondents (59.6%) have been to Korea between 1 and 5 times while the remaining people (40.4%) visited six or more times. A small number of respondents (n=6) visited South Korea more than 50 times. Regarding the reasons to visit Korea, respondents reported that the major reason was to participate in their pop-star’s events or activities (57.3%), followed by traveling (29.1%), and for other reasons such as business (13.6%). When fans visited Korea for their pop-star-related activities, the majority (68.4%) reported that they extended their stay to visit attractions or go shopping.

Table 10

**Travel Characteristics of Respondents**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Travel Experiences</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Percent (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Number of travels to Korea</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1 time</td>
<td>39</td>
<td>18.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2 times</td>
<td>36</td>
<td>16.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3 times</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>13.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4 times</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>11.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5 times</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>8.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6-10 times</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>13.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10-20 times</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>11.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>21 or more times</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>7.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Reasons to travel to Korea</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pop-star related activities</td>
<td></td>
<td>57.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Travel purpose</td>
<td></td>
<td>29.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Others (i.e. Business)</td>
<td></td>
<td>13.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Frequency to travel before or after pop-star events</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Never</td>
<td></td>
<td>17.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rarely</td>
<td></td>
<td>14.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sometimes</td>
<td></td>
<td>15.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Often</td>
<td></td>
<td>20.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Always</td>
<td></td>
<td>32.3</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Descriptive Statistics

Indicators of Constructs

On the basis of the previous tests from the pilot study EFA, indicators for the latent constructs were determined to analyze the current data. Prior to testing the measurement model, item parceling was conducted for the two variables of self-expansion and motivation. As indicated in the EFA results, self-expansion was considered to be a unidimensional construct. Based on the similarity of means, reliability, and factor loadings, the nine items of self-expansion were parcelled into three subscales of expansion, new experience, and development with three items each as presented in Table 11. Cronbach’s alpha values for the three were .82, .89, and 73, respectively, which was above the suggested level of .70 (Nunnally & Bernstein, 1994).

Table 11
Parceled Items and the Corresponding Indicators for Self-expansion

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Indicators / Items</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>SE1 – Expansion (Cronbach's α = .82, M = 5.85)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>When I am with this person, I feel a greater awareness of things because of this person.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(When I am doing the activity, I feel a greater awareness of things because of it).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I often learn new things about this person/activity.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Knowing this person/doing the activity has made me a better person.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SE2 - New experience (Cronbach's α = .89, M = 6.19)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>This person/activity increases my ability to accomplish new things.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Being with this person/doing the activity results in my having new experiences.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>This person/activity provides a source of exciting experiences.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SE3 – Development (Cronbach's α = .73, M = 5.42)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>This person/activity allows me to compensate for some of my own weaknesses.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>This person/activity increases my knowledge.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>This person/activity increases the respect other people have for me.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The motivation variable consisting of six items also appeared to be unidimensional, which was also confirmed by the EFA pretest. However, the motivation construct can be divided into two types: intrinsic motivation for travel benefits and extrinsic motivation for pop-star related activities (Deci & Ryan, 2000; Ryan & Deci, 2000). By checking the reliability, means, and inter-correlations and balancing the number of items for each subscale, the six items were classified into three subgroups: two intrinsic motivations of “exploration” and “arousal,” and one extrinsic motivation of “pop-star activities” with two items each (Table 12). The reliability for each was .67, .83, and .71, respectively, which is an acceptable internal consistency (Cortina, 1993).

Table 12

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Indicators / Items</th>
<th>MO1- Exploration (Cronbach's α = .67, M=5.49)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>For the pleasure of discovering South Korea.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Because it is one of the best ways to meet people in South Korea.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MO2- Arousal (Cronbach's α = .83, M=5.83)</td>
<td>For the excitement I feel when I am traveling in South Korea</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>For the satisfaction I experience while I am visiting South Korea.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MO3-Pop-star activities (Cronbach’s α = .71, M=5.63)</td>
<td>For the enjoyment of visiting my STAR’s related venues in South Korea.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Because I want to participate in my STAR’s events, I must do travel to Korea</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Based on the item parceling and the EFA, the initial variables included 19 indicators in six latent constructs, including three indicators for self-expansion (expansion, new
experience, development), four for fandom (involvement, commitment, attachment, and group-identity), three for travel motivation (exploration, arousal, and pop-star events), three for satisfaction (overall, product, and service), three for place attachment (place identity, place dependence, and social bonding), and two destination loyalty (Revisit, WOM, and attitudinal loyalty).

Prior to conducting a CFA, initial reliability tests were performed to determine which and how many indicators to use in measuring each construct. The results showed a relatively low inter-item correlation among three constructs of self-expansion, satisfaction, and destination loyalty. An examination of the inter-correlations among variables within each construct revealed that development in self-expansion, overall satisfaction in satisfaction, and revisit in destination loyalty had relatively low correlations ($R^2 < .5$) with the other variables in each construct, compared to the correlations between the other two. This implied that the variables might be something other than representing its respective underlying construct. Therefore, the three indicators were dropped from the corresponding construct, resulting in a total of 16 indicators remaining for further analysis.

Table 13 presents the means, standard deviations, and reliabilities of the indicators corresponding to each construct. Reliabilities represent internal consistency estimates using Cronbach’s $\alpha$ values. The mean for new experience (SE2) was the highest ($M = 6.19$), followed by word of mouth (DL1) ($M = 5.92$), commitment (FAN1) ($M = 5.86$), and expansion (SE1) ($M = 5.85$). All indicators had Cronbach’s $\alpha$ values greater than .65, indicating acceptable levels of internal consistency for every scale. The three highest
reliabilities included group identity (FAN4) ($\alpha = .94$), commitment (FAN3) ($\alpha = .92$) and involvement (FAN1) ($\alpha = .92$), which are fandom indicators.

Table 13

*Means, Standard Deviations, and Reliabilities of Indicators*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Cronbach’s $\alpha$</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>S.D.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Self-Expansion (SE)</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SE1 Expansion</td>
<td>.82</td>
<td>5.85</td>
<td>1.07</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SE2 New experience</td>
<td>.89</td>
<td>6.19</td>
<td>1.02</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Fandom (FAN)</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FAN1 Involvement</td>
<td>.92</td>
<td>5.63</td>
<td>1.05</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FAN2 Attachment</td>
<td>.89</td>
<td>5.36</td>
<td>1.24</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FAN3 Commitment</td>
<td>.92</td>
<td>5.86</td>
<td>1.04</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FAN4 Group Identity</td>
<td>.94</td>
<td>5.18</td>
<td>1.43</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Travel Motivation (MO)</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MO1 Exploration</td>
<td>.66</td>
<td>5.49</td>
<td>1.34</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MO2 Arousal</td>
<td>.83</td>
<td>5.83</td>
<td>1.19</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MO3 Pop-star activities</td>
<td>.70</td>
<td>5.63</td>
<td>1.53</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Travel Satisfaction (SA)</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SA1 Product</td>
<td>.91</td>
<td>5.30</td>
<td>0.91</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SA2 Service</td>
<td>.87</td>
<td>5.10</td>
<td>1.19</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Place Attachment (PA)</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PA1 Place Identity</td>
<td>.89</td>
<td>4.90</td>
<td>1.19</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PA2 Place Dependence</td>
<td>.88</td>
<td>4.93</td>
<td>1.31</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PA3 Social bonding</td>
<td>.76</td>
<td>4.82</td>
<td>1.36</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Destination loyalty (DL)</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DL1 Word of Mouth</td>
<td>.86</td>
<td>5.92</td>
<td>1.05</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DL2 Attitudinal loyalty</td>
<td>.67</td>
<td>5.41</td>
<td>1.39</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 14 presents the covariances and correlations among the 16 indicators examined in the study. The correlations among the indicators of self-expansion, fandom, travel motivation, travel satisfaction, place attachment, and destination loyalty were statistically significant, \( ps < .05 \), except for three correlations between SE2 and PA1, between SE2 and PA3, between MO3 and PA3.

Table 14.

Covariance and Correlation Matrix of the 16 Indicators

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Indicators</th>
<th>1</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>3</th>
<th>4</th>
<th>5</th>
<th>6</th>
<th>7</th>
<th>8</th>
<th>9</th>
<th>10</th>
<th>11</th>
<th>12</th>
<th>13</th>
<th>14</th>
<th>15</th>
<th>16</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Self-Expansion</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1. SE1</td>
<td>.15</td>
<td>.75</td>
<td>.50</td>
<td>.46</td>
<td>.46</td>
<td>.39</td>
<td>.23</td>
<td>.35</td>
<td>.29</td>
<td>.43</td>
<td>.33</td>
<td>.28</td>
<td>.34</td>
<td>.21</td>
<td>.41</td>
<td>.31</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. SE2</td>
<td>.83</td>
<td>1.05</td>
<td>.50</td>
<td>.40</td>
<td>.51</td>
<td>.37</td>
<td>.27</td>
<td>.41</td>
<td>.34</td>
<td>.31</td>
<td>.15</td>
<td>.11</td>
<td>.24</td>
<td>.13</td>
<td>.41</td>
<td>.19</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Fandom</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. FAN1</td>
<td>.56</td>
<td>.54</td>
<td>1.10</td>
<td>.78</td>
<td>.80</td>
<td>.66</td>
<td>.24</td>
<td>.29</td>
<td>.56</td>
<td>.26</td>
<td>.20</td>
<td>.30</td>
<td>.40</td>
<td>.15</td>
<td>.33</td>
<td>.32</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. FAN2</td>
<td>.61</td>
<td>.51</td>
<td>1.01</td>
<td>.54</td>
<td>.77</td>
<td>.65</td>
<td>.16</td>
<td>.26</td>
<td>.54</td>
<td>.35</td>
<td>.30</td>
<td>.38</td>
<td>.43</td>
<td>.23</td>
<td>.35</td>
<td>.40</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. FAN3</td>
<td>.52</td>
<td>.54</td>
<td>.88</td>
<td>1.00</td>
<td>1.09</td>
<td>.62</td>
<td>.28</td>
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<td>.59</td>
<td>.33</td>
<td>.26</td>
<td>.26</td>
<td>.38</td>
<td>.15</td>
<td>.43</td>
<td>.32</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. FAN4</td>
<td>.60</td>
<td>.55</td>
<td>.99</td>
<td>1.15</td>
<td>.92</td>
<td>2.04</td>
<td>.26</td>
<td>.26</td>
<td>.50</td>
<td>.36</td>
<td>.25</td>
<td>.29</td>
<td>.34</td>
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<td>.27</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Motivation</strong></td>
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<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. MO1</td>
<td>.32</td>
<td>.38</td>
<td>.34</td>
<td>.26</td>
<td>.40</td>
<td>.50</td>
<td>1.81</td>
<td>.74</td>
<td>.31</td>
<td>.46</td>
<td>.31</td>
<td>.51</td>
<td>.46</td>
<td>.42</td>
<td>.50</td>
<td>.34</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8. MO2</td>
<td>.45</td>
<td>.50</td>
<td>.36</td>
<td>.39</td>
<td>.46</td>
<td>.44</td>
<td>.19</td>
<td>1.43</td>
<td>.31</td>
<td>.44</td>
<td>.29</td>
<td>.43</td>
<td>.40</td>
<td>.27</td>
<td>.52</td>
<td>.33</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9. MO3</td>
<td>.48</td>
<td>.53</td>
<td>.90</td>
<td>1.01</td>
<td>.94</td>
<td>1.10</td>
<td>.64</td>
<td>.56</td>
<td>2.34</td>
<td>.27</td>
<td>.24</td>
<td>.17</td>
<td>.33</td>
<td>.12</td>
<td>.33</td>
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<td><strong>Satisfaction</strong></td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10. SA1</td>
<td>.42</td>
<td>.28</td>
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<td><strong>Place Attachment</strong></td>
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<td>12. PA1</td>
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<tr>
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<td><strong>Destination loyalty</strong></td>
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<td>15. DL1</td>
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<td>16. DL2</td>
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<td>.94</td>
<td>1.13</td>
<td>.83</td>
<td>.83</td>
<td>1.92</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Note.* Covariances, correlations and variances are presented in the lower left, upper right triangle, and diagonal, respectively.
Testing the Hypothesized Model

The Measurement Model

The measurement model specified six factors: self-expansion, fandom, motivation, satisfaction, place attachment, and destination loyalty. In testing the model, each indicator was constrained to load only on the factor it was designated to measure; the residual terms for all indicators fixed to be uncorrelated; no equality constraints on the factor loadings were imposed; and the factor covariances were free to be estimated. Goodness-of-fit indices indicated a marginal fit to the data, $S-B\chi^2(89, N = 213) = 249.25, p < .0005$, NNFI = .88, CFI = .91, and RMSEA = .09 (CI: .078-.105). The LM statistics identified two parameters that were not included in the earlier model as those contributed to a marginal model fit (motivation to travel for pop-star’s events loaded on fandom; place dependence loaded on destination loyalty). Given the findings, the two parameters were added. The fit indices of the modified model indicated that the model fit the data reasonably well, $S-B\chi^2(87, N = 213) = 174.79, p < .0005$, NNFI = .93, CFI = .95, and RMSEA = .069 (90% CI: .054-.083).

Given the reasonable fit indices, reliability coefficients of the latent constructs, and adequate size of parameter estimates, the measurement model was considered statistically valid. Subsequent data analysis involved assessing construct validity and reliability of the latent constructs.

Construct Validity and Reliability

Construct validity refers to the extent to which the measurements in a study represent the corresponding theoretical constructs, which provides confidence regarding the findings. Construct validity can be determined through tests of convergent and
discriminant validity. Convergent validity is the extent to which measures within one construct are similar and related to each other, converging on the respective construct which should be moderately high. Discriminant validity refers to the extent to which measures in different constructs are dissimilar and diverge (Byrne, 1998; Trochim, 2006). Reliability represents the degree to which the measurement items yield consistent results over repeated testing (Hair et al., 2006).

Construct validity was determined by the strength of factor loadings, the significance of $t$-values, and estimates of the average variance extracted (AVE) (Fornell & Larcker, 1981; Kyle, Absher, Norman, Hammit, & Jodice, 2007). The strength of factor loadings is determined by the size of a standardized loading in accordance with shared variances (i.e., squared multiple correlations [$R^2$]). A small value of shared variances indicates a weak relationship between an indicator and its underlying construct due to an increase in measurement error (Fornell & Larcker, 1981). That is, the validity of the items can be questionable if, due to error, the variance is greater than the variance being explained by the indicators. The factor loading value – where $R^2$ is close to .50 – is the threshold that each observed variable effectively explains 50% of the variation of its respective latent construct. The $R^2$ values of standardized factor loadings are presented in Table 15. One factor loading of MO3 (travel motivation for pop-star activity) was relatively low ($R^2 = .42$), falling below the threshold. However, inspection of the standardized factor loadings revealed that all loadings were statistically significant ($p < .05$).

The statistical significance of the $t$-values of each indicator was also examined for convergent validity (Anderson & Gerbing, 1988; Byrne, 1998). Byrne has suggested that statistically significant indicators’ estimated factor loading ($t$-values $\geq \pm 1.96$) indicates
the rejection of the null hypothesis that those loadings are equal to zero. All factor loadings on their underlying construct were statistically significant, \(ps<.05\).

Table 15

*Standardized Factor Loadings and Variance in Each Indicator for by Corresponding Factors in the CFA Measurement Model*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Indicators</th>
<th>SE</th>
<th>FAN</th>
<th>MO</th>
<th>SA</th>
<th>PA</th>
<th>DL</th>
<th>(R^2)</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. SE1</td>
<td>.86**</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<td>.74</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. SE2</td>
<td>.87**</td>
<td></td>
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<td>.76</td>
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<tr>
<td>3. INV</td>
<td>.90**</td>
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<td>.81</td>
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<td>4. ATT</td>
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<td>5. COM</td>
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<td></td>
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<td></td>
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<td>.79</td>
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<tr>
<td>6. GRI</td>
<td>.73**</td>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
<td>.53</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. MO1</td>
<td>.88**</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>.77</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8. MO2</td>
<td>.84**</td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>.71</td>
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<td>9. MO3</td>
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<td>.79**</td>
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<td>.63</td>
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<tr>
<td>12. PA1</td>
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<td>13. PA2</td>
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<td>.70</td>
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<tr>
<td>14. PA3</td>
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<td>16. DL2</td>
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<td>.74**</td>
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<td>.55</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

*Note.* *p <.05.* ** p <.001.

Another test for convergent validity is the estimates of the average variance extracted (AVE). The AVE measures the amount of variance that is accounted for by the construct in relation to the amount of variance due to measurement error (Fornell & Larcker, 1981).
Fornell and Larcker have suggested that the construct with AVE values less than .50 is considered questionable in terms of its validity. As presented in Table 16, all AVEs were above the recommended cutoff of .50, resulting in empirical evidence of convergent validity.

Discriminant validity is achieved when measures for different constructs are not strongly correlated among themselves. Discrimination is examined based on the correlations among latent constructs. The discriminant validity was measured by comparing the AVE and the squared latent factor correlation between a pair of constructs (Fornell & Lacker, 1981). Table 16 presents the correlations among the six latent constructs ranging from .24 to .77 (Mdn=.53), and the AVE greater than the squared correlations between two constructs. Therefore, the results confirmed that the measurement model had discriminant validity, which indicates that constructs do not share a substantial portion of their variance. That is, each construct was mutually distinctive from each other.

Table 16

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Factor</th>
<th>1</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>3</th>
<th>4</th>
<th>5</th>
<th>6</th>
<th>α</th>
<th>CR</th>
<th>AVE</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Self-Expansion</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>.61**</td>
<td>.41**</td>
<td>.43**</td>
<td>.24**</td>
<td>.51**</td>
<td>.86</td>
<td>.75</td>
<td>.60</td>
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<tr>
<td>2. Fandom</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>.35**</td>
<td>.37**</td>
<td>.37**</td>
<td>.57**</td>
<td>.90</td>
<td>.86</td>
<td>.60</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Motivation</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>.53**</td>
<td>.58**</td>
<td>.64**</td>
<td>.71</td>
<td>.74</td>
<td>.55</td>
<td></td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Satisfaction</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>.68**</td>
<td>.63**</td>
<td>.85</td>
<td>.73</td>
<td>.58</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>5. Place Attachment</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>.77**</td>
<td>.86</td>
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<tr>
<td>6. Destination Loyalty</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>.71</td>
<td>.77</td>
<td>.62</td>
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</table>

Note. ** p < .001.
Reliability was determined by Cronbach’s (1951) Alpha (α), composite reliability (CR), and Rho reliability. Cronbach’s Alpha (α) coefficient is the mostly widely used index for internal consistency reliability. As shown in Table 16, Cronbach’s Alpha (α) ranged from .71 to .90, which were all greater than the recommended level of .70 (Nunnally, 1978) which indicates satisfactory internal consistency. However, this approach has been criticized because it has a weakness of rarely meeting its underlying assumption that all items are equally weighted in the formation of a scale, which may result in underestimates of scale reliability (Raykov, 1997, 1998). Therefore, composite reliability was also used to measure the degree to which items were free from random error and yielded consistent results. Table 16 presents composite reliabilities in the measurement model that ranged from .73 to .86 and above the recommended cutoff of .70 (Fornell & Larcker, 1981; Nunnally & Bernstein, 1994). This confirms that the measures are internally consistent. Finally, Rho coefficient was employed as another indicator of internal consistency (Bentler, 2005). A Rho reliability coefficient of .95 indicated that the overall measurement model had sufficient internal consistency.

In summary, the results of various analyses provide empirical evidence in support of construct validity and reliability. Overall the measures revealed good convergent and discriminant validity, and reasonable construct reliability. These results show that the proposed measurement model is appropriate for further analysis. The relationships among these six latent constructs with 16 indicators were tested in the full structural models presented in the following section.
The Structural Model

To investigate the goodness of fit of the hypothesized model, the measurement was respecified to include the structural regression paths in place of factor covariances (Figure 2). The structural model represented a poor fit to the data, S-By$^2$ (96, N = 213) = 365.67, p < .0005, NNFI = .83, CFI = .85, and RMSEA = .12 (90% CI: .102-.127). The multivariate LM tests indicated that structural regression coefficients for the three paths from motivation to satisfaction, from satisfaction to place attachment, from place attachment to destination loyalty were statistically significant. The fit indices of the modified model revealed a significant improvement, representing a marginal fit to the data, S-By$^2$ (93, N = 213) = 209.16, p < .0005, NNFI = .92, CFI = .94, and RMSEA = .077 (90% CI: .063-.090).

The multivariate Wald test indicated that two parameters hypothesized to be significant were not statistically significant. The nonsignificant relationships included fandom with motivation and with place attachment. These relationships represented those that were not well established in the literature requiring more investigation. When nonsignificant paths were removed multivariately, the model fit improved slightly, S-By$^2$ (95, N = 213) = 212.35, p < .0005, NNFI = .92, CFI = .94, and RMSEA = .076 (90% CI: .062-.090). Standardized residuals were smaller than .29 and all structural regression coefficients were statistically significant. This model, along with the estimates of standardized regression coefficients, factor loadings, and residual variances are presented in Figure 2.
Effects of self-expansion

Fans’ self-expansion had a significant direct effect on fandom ($\beta = .63$) and motivation to travel ($\beta = .46$), $ps < .001$. The results supported the two hypotheses that posit fans who experience a higher self-expansion exhibit a higher degree of fandom (H1) and have a higher motivation to visit a destination (H3). In addition, fans’ self-expansion had a significant indirect effect on satisfaction through the mediation of fandom and motivation ($\beta = .36$) and on place attachment through the mediation of motivation and satisfaction ($\beta = .26$), and on destination loyalty through the mediation of fandom,
motivation, satisfaction, and place attachment ($\beta = .39$), $ps < .001$. Therefore, the findings provided empirical evidence for the three hypotheses (H4-2, H4-3, H4-4) that self-expansion has an indirect effect on satisfaction, place attachment, and destination loyalty through fandom and destination variables. However, the hypothesis (H4-1) that suggested the indirect effect of self-expansion on motivation through fandom was not supported in this study.

Effects of fandom

Participants’ fandom had a significant direct effect on travel satisfaction ($\beta = .23$) and destination loyalty ($\beta = .34$), $ps < .001$. On the other hand, fandom did not have a direct effect on motivation and place attachment. Thus, these findings provided empirical support for two sub-hypotheses (H2-2, H2-4) that fans with a higher degree of fandom experience greater satisfaction with their travel and show greater destination loyalty whereas the two hypotheses (H2-1, H2-3) which suggested the direct effect of fandom on motivation and place attachment each were not supported in this study.

In addition, indirect effects of fandom on destination variables were tested. Fandom had an indirect effect on place attachment through the mediator of satisfaction ($\beta = .16$) and on destination loyalty through the mediators of satisfaction and place attachment ($\beta = .11$), $ps < .01$.

Effects of destination factors

A hypothesis to test the relationships among destination variables in the initial model was not proposed. However, the results revealed that significant relationships exist among the destination variables. Fans’ motivation had a significant direct effect on travel satisfaction ($\beta = .47$) and a significant indirect effect on place attachment through the
mediator of satisfaction (β = .34) and on destination loyalty through the mediators of satisfaction and place attachment (β = .24). $p < .001$. In addition, participant’s travel satisfaction had a significant effect on place attachment (β = .72), which in turn influenced significantly destination loyalty (β = .69), $p < .001$. Furthermore, satisfaction had an indirect effect on destination loyalty through the mediation of place attachment (β = .50).

In the structural model, self-expansion explained 39.1% of the variance ($R^2$) in fandom and 21% of the variance in motivation. Fandom and motivation accounted 33.7% of the variance in satisfaction. In addition, satisfaction explained 51.7% of the variance in place attachment. Lastly, place attachment and fandom accounted 72.4% of the variance in destination loyalty. Overall, the analyses revealed that self-expansion was an important factor to predict fandom and travel motivation. Fandom significantly influenced travel satisfaction, and destination loyalty. In addition, motivation was an important factor influencing travel satisfaction, which in turn resulted in positive place attachment. Furthermore, place attachment was an important antecedent of destination loyalty.

**Qualitative Findings**

Participants reported their attitudes and behaviors toward South Korea in responding to an open-ended question of “how has your favorite pop-star influenced the image of South Korea and your attitudes and behaviors toward South Korea as a travel destination?” Out of the sample of 213 fans, 195 responded to the question. The pop-stars influences were categorized into three themes: positive image, new experiences with different culture, and travel opportunities based on their responses.
First, most people reported that their pop-star had affected their image of South Korea more positively. For example, “My favorite pop-star has made a positive influence on creating a favorable image of South Korea.” “My Korean pop-star changed my view on South Korea, making it more positive.” “My star promotes a favorable image of South Korea because he embodies pure talent that South Korea has to offer.” “He sets a great and strong image of Korea, which includes determined, passionate, caring and polite. I was very impressed by the politeness from Korean people.” “His image of being warm hearted and charitable portrays and influences my overall image of South Korea.” As these examples indicate, respondents showed a favorable image and positive attitude toward South Korea as a result of fandom toward their favorite pop-star.

Second, the majority of fans answered that their favorite pop-star motivated them to learn more about South Korea and to explore new experiences within the country. Some examples are presented as follows. “My pop-star as a world star had a huge influence on me and my friends to become interested in and learn about not only Korean pop-culture, but also the country.” “Before I liked my pop-star I did not know even where South Korea was. But now I know this country a lot!” “Since I became a big fan for him, I started to learn Korean language, to eat Korean foods, to learn Korean history, and to know other genres of Korean pop-culture, such as musicals and soap operas.” “Pop-star provided new experiences of different cultures that South Korea has.” “I started to change my fashion style, as a result of Korean pop-culture.” These responses represent that pop-stars offered their fans a chance to become interested in South Korea and learn about Korean culture, and the county.
Third, fans fandom toward their favorite pop-star led to increased motivation to visit South Korea. For instance, “His style of music and fashion is so wonderful to attract me to visit South Korea.” “Many friends who like Korean pop-star have recommended South Korea for travel.” “I have more motivation to visit Korea since I liked him.” “Because of my favorite Korean pop star, I have traveled often to South Korea particularly to attend his activities during Summer time.” These answers indicate that Korean pop-stars affected fans travel attitudes and behaviors in a more positive way.

In summary, the qualitative results supported the quantitative findings that pop-stars positively influenced their fans’ attitudes and behaviors with regard to perceptions of South Korea, new experiences, and travel opportunities. Fans’ responses to the open-ended question provided specific and richer descriptions that further provide an understanding and support of the results driven from the measurement and structural models. The findings from the quantitative and qualitative approaches will be discussed in the next chapter.
CHAPTER V

DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

This chapter discusses the findings of the study and draws some conclusions based on the results. The discussion and conclusion consists of three main sections. This chapter first starts by revisiting the results and summarizing the findings of the study. The second section discusses the theoretical and practical implications. The last section addresses the limitations of this study, suggests recommendations for future research, and provides an overall conclusion regarding the research.

Review of the Study Results

This study investigated the relationships among fans’ self-expansion, fandom, and destination constructs (motivation, satisfaction, place attachment, and destination loyalty). Particularly, this study examined the impact of fandom on travel attitudes and behaviors, by applying self-expansion theory. Given past studies supporting the relationships among motivation, satisfaction, place attachment, and destination loyalty, the present study sought to extend these premises into the context of pop-culture tourism. The hypothesized model fit the data well, supporting for the effects of self-expansion and fandom on destination variables, except for a few hypothesized relationships between fandom and motivation and fandom and place attachment.

Effects of Self-Expansion

This study investigated the role of self-expansion in bridging the link between fandom and tourism at two levels: 1) the relationship between a pop-star and the pop-star’s fans, and 2) the relationship between fans and the pop-star’s country. Self-
expansion theory (Aron & Aron, 1986; Aron., Fisher, Mashek, Strong, & Brown, 2005) posits that individuals have an inherent motivation for self-expansion; a desire to immerse others (here pop-stars and/or destination) into one’s conception of “self.” Thus, this study considered self-expansion as an individual’s trait rather than a state.

The first relationship, pop-star and pop-stars fans, was successfully supported by the significant impact of self-expansion on fandom. Fans with a higher self-expansion had higher fandom. This is, fans that have a tendency to experience higher self-expansion in general are likely to have a higher degree of fandom. This indicates a fan’s high motive of the desire to expand the self-played a role in forming strong fandom. Respondents showed very high self-expansion scores on both new experience (M=6.19), and expansion (enhancement) (M=5.85). In addition, participants reported that they discovered an opportunity to have new experiences with the country’s culture through their pop-star’s related activities. Fans were generally those who highly sought to expand themselves by enhancing their ability to accomplish goals, leading to greater goals or life purposes (Reimann & Aron, 2009). The respondents’ general high self-expansion positively influenced their fandom toward their respective pop-star in order to achieve their objective of establishing a strong relationship with their favorite pop-star.

Second, the current study successfully discovered a significant role of self-expansion on bridging the link between fans and the respective pop-star’s country. Fans’ self-expansion had a significant direct effect on motivation to travel. Fans who were highly motivated to expand themselves in general were also motivated to travel to the pop-star’s native country. That is, fans’ high self-expansion played a role in motivating them to travel to the pop-star’s homeland not only for pop-star’s related activities, but also for
travel purpose to pursue positive benefits such as exploration and positive emotional experience. This finding shows a stark difference between self-expansion and fandom in affecting motivation. Self-expansion had a considerably strong effect on overall travel motivation while fandom had a partial impact on motivation only for pop-star activities. In addition, there was a significant indirect effect of self-expansion on: satisfaction through the mediation of motivation, place attachment through the mediation of motivation and satisfaction, and destination loyalty through the mediation of motivation, satisfaction, and place attachment. A high degree of self-expansion motivated fans to visit the pop-star’s country, which in turn resulted in a positive evaluation regarding the destination, strong place attachment, and destination loyalty. That is, by involvement in the native country and culture of a particular pop star, fans established a significantly higher positive attitude regarding the destination, which in turn led to a sense of satisfaction with the destination. Ultimately, a fan’s positive affect regarding the country eventually resulted in destination loyalty, particularly, attitudinal loyalty (i.e., word of mouth, commitment). The results reveal that self-expansion plays a critical role in bridging the link between a fan and a country and provides a determinant opportunity for him/her to be a potential loyal tourist over time.

**Effects of Fandom on Destination**

The results of this study revealed that fandom had significant impacts on fan’s travel attitudes and behavior toward a destination. Fandom was assessed based on the factors of involvement, commitment, attachment, and group identity. The measurement model showed that all factor loadings of the indicators on fandom were statistically significant, ranging from .73 to .90. This result implies that all of the indicators are important
elements to measure fandom. Among the indicators, commitment had the highest mean (M=5.86) and the second highest factor loading on fandom (.89). This indicates that commitment should be considered one of the significant indicators to evaluate the degree of fandom. On the other hand, group identity loaded relatively low (.73) on fandom. This result can be traced back to fan’s respondent’s demographics, particularly fan’s membership. Since 40% of fans did not have a fan club membership to their respective pop-star, group identity among them would be lower than those who had a membership. However, this relatively low factor loading did not influence the overall model fit because item-inter correlations between group identity and other fandom measures was significant.

The full model revealed participants’ fandom had a significant direct effect on travel satisfaction (β = .23) and destination loyalty (β = .34). That is, fans with a higher degree of fandom experience greater satisfaction with their travel and show stronger destination loyalty. In addition, fandom had an indirect effect on place attachment through the mediator of satisfaction (β = .16) and on destination loyalty through the mediators of satisfaction and place attachment (β = .46). Although fandom did not directly influence place attachment, fandom was still a significant factor in influencing place attachment through travel satisfaction. This implies that fans do not instantly feel attached to the destination because of their higher level of fandom. Instead, fans’ attachment to a destination is gradually established through their travel experiences and satisfaction that is influenced by fandom. As attachment develops over time relationships between the self and the entity evolve (Park et al., 2010). This implies that fans travel experiences and
positive evaluations during their visits can play an important role in forming place attachment.

On the other hand, destination loyalty was influenced directly and indirectly by fandom. This finding is interesting; while fandom had a direct impact on destination loyalty fandom did not impact place attachment even though place attachment is considered to be an important antecedent of destination loyalty. In other words, fans at a higher level of fandom were more likely to recommend the country as a loyalty visitor. This finding highlights the relevance of fandom to influence destination loyalty. Since fandom toward a respective pop-star was very high, fans at this level may have a tendency to like anything related to the pop-star. This can be explained by brand extension (Park et al., 2009). Open-ended responses supported for the finding in the sense that fans find similar positive images between pop-stars and people in the country and an intimate relationship between fans favorite pop-stars and the pop-star’s homeland. As a result, fans at a high degree of fandom establish a close link with their pop-star and are more likely to also establish a close link with the country as an extension of the pop-star relationship. In addition, their travel satisfaction and place attachment played a mediating role in increasing the degree of destination loyalty.

This study failed to provide empirical evidence on the link between fandom and travel motivation. Travel motivation was measured by two types of travel benefits (exploration and arousal) and one type of purpose for participation in pop-star activities. However, even though there was no impact of fandom on motivation found at the structural model, a significant factor loading was found between fandom and an indicator of motivation to participate in pop-star’s activities at the measurement model. This
indicates that fandom significantly influenced fans’ motivation to participate in the pop-star’s activities held in the pop-star’s country. The factor loading of this indicator was significantly higher on fandom (.59) than on motivation (.14). Also, compared to this motivation to participate in pop-star activities, the other two indicators, exploration and arousal loaded on the motivation construct at .88 and .84, respectively. It might be an indicator of another construct such as experience with pop-star. However, rather than removing the indicator from the latent construct of motivation, by keeping this indicator, the measurement model was able to provide a significant link between fandom and destination, as fandom had a significant impact on motivation to visit the pop-star’s country due to the pop-star’s activities. That is, fandom influenced traveler’s motivation to participate in the pop-star’s country, and actual visitation could be an opportunity not just to attend pop-star’s activities but also to experience the pop-star’s country. This finding was also supported by respondents’ open-ended answers.

**Relationships among Destination Factors**

The initial hypothesized model did not intend to link the relationships among destination variables – motivation, satisfaction, place attachment, and destination loyalty because this study focused on the impact of fandom on travel attitudes and behaviors using the self-expansion concept rather than the relationships among destination factors. Based on the suggestion from the structural model, the hypothesized model was modified as a number of studies have explored and provided significant relationships among destination factors.

The findings supported previous research of significant relationships among destination variables. Particularly, fans’ motivation had a significant direct effect on
travel satisfaction, which in turn significantly influenced place attachment. Finally, place attachment significantly influenced destination loyalty. That is, satisfaction was an important antecedent of place attachment, which was also an important antecedent of destination loyalty. This implies that travel experiences and positive evaluations during fans visits to the destination can play an important role in forming place attachment.

In investigating satisfaction, two types of specific satisfaction were used to measure fans’ travel satisfaction. Satisfaction with destination products such as attractions, cultural heritage, shopping, drama featured venues, and public transportation was rated higher (M=5.3) and had higher factor loadings (.91) than satisfaction with services such as access to attractions, safety, cleanliness, and service personnel (M=5.1; loading=.87). The measures of satisfaction provided an understanding of tourist satisfaction in a more concrete and practical way (Prayag & Ryan, 2011).

In examining place attachment, place identity was found to be the strongest indicator (.89), which is consistent with previous research (Hou, Lin, & Morais, 2005; Prayag & Ryan, 2011). This indicates that fans’ own identification with the country leads to their strong attachment to the country particularly from an emotional perspective. It reflects that the destination’s features that support fans’ specific goals or desired activities are especially important to destination loyalty (Williams & Roggenbuck, 1989). This implies that place dependence may be a plausible indicator of destination loyalty as well. In addition, another dimension of place dependence, social bonding, was significantly related to destination loyalty (.49). Fans’ group membership facilitated social relationships, which played a role in forming place attachment, and is supported by previous findings (Kyle, Graefe, & Manning, 2005). This is also a unique finding; social
bonding was a critical component to understand place attachment especially in the context of fan groups. This suggests that place attachment is also constructed by social interactions and experiences with other people through the events and activities in the destination.

**Theoretical Contribution**

This research represents the initial finding of a significant path from self-expansion to fandom, and to destination loyalty, supporting the combined relationships among the six variables. First, this study successfully applied self-expansion theory as a theoretical foundation to bridge the relationship between fans and pop-stars and between fans and destinations. Most of all, the self-expansion theory enables the study to find fans’ additional characteristics - fans are individuals who have an inherent high motivation for self-expansion, a desire to incorporate others (here pop-stars and/or destination) into self. The respondents’ general high self-expansion positively influenced their fandom toward the respective pop-star. This finding extends the literature on fans, highlighting that fans’ inherent motivation for self-expansion should be recognized as one of the important factors in influencing their fandom.

Furthermore, this is among the first attempt to apply self-expansion into the tourism context to understanding travel motivation. Adopting the theory, this research revealed that fans were motivated to expand themselves to achieve the goal of having a closer relationship with their favorite pop-stars by participating in fan-related activities and visiting the pop-star’s country. As most fans’ activities occur in the pop-star’s native country, usually the best place for resources related to the pop-star, fans want/have to visit the country in order to expand them to achieve their goals. In contrast to the finding
that fandom did not have a significant effect on travel motivation, self-expansion significantly influenced fans’ motivation to travel not only for their pop-star’s activities but also for positive travel experiences. Therefore, self-expansion was found to be a significantly critical factor in compensating for some of the weak impact of fandom on destination while reinforcing the relationships between fans and the destination through its indirect effects on destination variables. Thus, the study confirms that the identified theory can play a significant role in bridging the links among a pop-star, a fan and a destination, expanding self-expansion theory into the two areas of fandom and destination research.

Much of the literature on fans focuses on only one area of interest – sports (i.e., Maltby, Day, McCutcheon, Houran, & Ashe, 2006; Reysen & Branscombe, 2010). These studies have attempted to define the relationship between fans and celebrities by proposing different ways of determining this relationship. For example, Throne (2011) investigated fandom or fanaticism solely on the basis of involvement, activities, or behaviors. Exploring fans’ attitudes toward pop-stars and a destination, the present study successfully expanded the phenomenon of fans that have been traditionally limited to sports to include pop-culture fans. Incorporating fan’s various perspectives such as involvement, commitment, attachment, and group identity into fandom, this study provides a foundation to examine fandom in a more sophisticated and concrete way.

The study revealed that fandom had a strong effect on destination loyalty while having no effect on place attachment. This finding highlights how the strong power of fandom can directly influence destination loyalty directly. This might indicate that since fan’s positive affect toward a pop-star increases, they tend to have a positive attitude.
toward the pop-star’s country as well. Fans may see the pop-star as intimately interrelated with the country. As fans have positive evaluations of the events and travels in the country, their attitude toward the pop-star positively influenced their attitude toward the country, which resulted in positive WOM to friends and family. Thus, this finding adds support to the significant relationship between fandom and destination loyalty.

In addition, the significant paths, between each pair of variables in the hypothesized model, are consistent with previous research. For example, the significant path from motivation to satisfaction is consistent with previous findings (Baker & Crompton, 2000; Bigné, Andreu, & Gnoth 2005; Kozak & Rimmington, 2000; Yuan & Jang, 2008). Fan’s motivation to travel plays a significant role in predicting positive satisfaction with both products and services that a destination provides while bridging the fan and the destination. Also, the result of the significant path from satisfaction to place attachment supports the previous findings that traveler’s positive evaluations play an important role in influencing place attachment (i.e., place identity, place dependence) (Hammitt, Backlund, & Bixler, 2006; Lee, 2001; Young, 1999). Place attachment was found to be a significant mediator in predicting destination loyalty. This finding is consistent with previous research by Hou, Lin, and Morais (2005) and Lee (2001) that place attachment can be a critical mediator/antecedent to assess destination loyalty. This suggests that place attachment can be considered a critical component in forming an intimate relationship with the country, leading to destination loyalty.

This study contributes to the literature by providing a significant connection between the two contexts -fandom and tourism. The findings extend the literature on fandom in pop-culture tourism, by linking fandom and destination loyalty. Furthermore, by
bringing pop-star fans into the tourism context, this study offers researchers the opportunity to further examine pop-culture tourism. With the growing popularity of pop-culture tourism, therefore, this study provides a meaningful approach and a new foundation regarding the perspectives of pop-star fans in the tourism context.

**Practical Implications**

The findings of this study suggest the importance and applicability of fandom and self-expansion for tourist destinations. It is critical for destinations to identify current and potential tourists and their characteristics in order to effectively target them with marketing strategies. This study discovered an important characteristic of fans, that is, they are high in self-expansion. Fans tend to have an inherent strong motivation for self-expansion; a desire to incorporate others into self. As one of the factors within the tourism context, fans were found to be highly motivated to travel to the pop-star’s homeland. This finding suggests that destination managers recognize this newly revealed characteristic of potential tourists and utilize this understanding in motivating and attracting fans to visit the destination.

Fans are actively involved in fan clubs in their own country, heavily using the Internet, social media, blogs, and official and unofficial websites related to their favorite pop-star (Seo, Lee, Hong, & Jung, 2012). Destination marketing organizations (DMOs) may use these information search and communication tools as a destination promotion resource. By connecting with pop-star management companies or agencies, DMOs may find opportunities to directly communicate with fans, and provide them with useful information for travel, and promote the features of the destination that correspond to their interests. These intimate marketing efforts could stimulate fans’ strong desire to expand
their abilities in order to meet their needs and goals toward their favorite pop-stars, which in turn results in motivating them to explore their interests in the destination.

This study revealed that pop-culture fans represent an important market segment that has the potential to be loyal tourists. Fans who were highly motivated to visit their pop-star’s homeland were also highly satisfied with their travels in South Korea and exhibited strong place attachment, which resulted in great destination loyalty. This indicates that as a result of a higher degree of fandom, fans have a more positive attitude toward the destination and may be more likely to be loyal tourists through travel satisfaction and place attachment. The Korean National Tourism Organization (KNTO) has recently implemented a tourism marketing strategy through various promotions using pop-culture resources such as entertainment shows, drama, and TV programs. These efforts have resulted in attracting many pop-culture fans and visitors, boosting the 8.5 million tourists in 2010 from 7.81 million in 2009 (Kolesnikov-Jessop, 2010; Yeon, 2011). The growing number provides evidence supporting a significant impact of pop-culture on tourism. However, no reported research or publication has reported results in regards to tourists’ responses to and satisfaction with those marketing efforts. This indicates that DMOs seem to have focused more on how to attract them than on understanding how pop-star fans evaluate their travel experiences with those efforts. As this study found, fans are a group that has a strong potential to be loyal tourists because of their high self-expansion and fandom. Therefore, DMOs should advance their marketing strategy to the next stage, making greater efforts to understand fans’ satisfaction and retain pop-culture fans as loyal tourists.
By bringing their high self-expansion into fandom and tourism, this study revealed that pop-star’s fans are potential pop-culture tourists who are highly motivated to visit the pop-star’s country. Their primary motivation to visit the destination was to participate in their pop-star’s activities or events at the destination. This indicates that fans travel as a group rather than as individuals, particularly for pop-star related activities. This study found that group identity was an important indicator to understand fans’ attitudes and behaviors. Fans have high levels of belongingness, emotional connection, identification, shared values, and overall sense of community compared to general audiences (Obst, Zinkiewicz, & Smith, 2002a; 2002b). Thus, group identity, a characteristic of fans, plays an important role in tying them together and traveling as a group to the pop-star’s country. As a result, this research suggests that destination organizers recognize the important market of pop-star fans as group and target the fan clubs with marketing efforts, rather than focusing on individuals. Targeting these groups represents a more effective approach in implementing tourism marketing strategies for destination marketers (Voci, 2006).

Furthermore, this study revealed that social bonding was an essential component in forming place attachment among fans. Social bonding is a significant factor in impacting true loyalty among fan club members (Campbell, Nicholson, & Kitchen, 2006). This implies that a pop-stars event in their homeland provides fans with the opportunity for social relationships, shared experiences, and loyalty not only to their pop-stars but also to the place where the event is held. This finding suggests that DMOs recognize the importance of pop-stars events to influence fans place attachment by working closely with pop-stars’ management companies. Furthermore, tourism marketers could consider
developing travel packages wherein fan club members have interaction with their respective pop-star, as well as engage in travel. As part of this travel engagement, DMOs could provide other planned destination activities on the basis of the interests, preferences, and characteristics of club members (e.g., shopping, drama-featured venues, and historical sites).

Fans who had a higher degree of self-expansion and fandom were more likely to participate in the pop-star’s events in Korea, which, in turn, led to visitation of the pop-star’s country. This finding supports the study by Lee, Scott, and Kim (2008) who suggested that pop-stars had a significant promotional value for tourism destination marketers. As a result, destination marketers recognize the significant role of pop-stars and their events in connecting fans and the destination. For example, the KNTO have selected famous Korean pop-stars as ambassadors to Asia and the world, which helps the government deliver the country’s positive image, enhance the relationship between countries, and eventually boost its tourism industry (Lee, 2007). Recently, pop-star management agencies have developed tourist attractions for pop-stars’ fans and opened shops to sell products associated with Korean Wave celebrities, targeted at foreign tourists seeking to meet K-pop stars (Kim, C., 2011). By incorporating this recent trend, DMOs should work closely with pop-stars’ management agencies to create synergistic effects, by supporting their events and activities and utilizing tie in advertisements and promotions targeted at their fans. Therefore destination marketing organizations could develop an important promotional potential by incorporating pop-stars into effective strategies. These efforts will deliver more effective and stronger marketing messages to the potential tourists.
The majority (68.4%) of fans reported that they extended their stay to visit attractions or go shopping before or after the pops-stars’ events or activities. That is, this visitation provided them with an opportunity to participate in the event, but also the chance to appreciate Korea’s unique culture such as its cuisine, people, and cultural heritage. This indicates that the opportunity to visit the destination eventually allowed fans to experience the destination and evaluate its physical features and environment. This finding suggests that pop-stars and their related activities can play an important role in offering the chance to visit the county, which results in experiencing the destination and appreciating its culture and unique features.

Prior to their visit, fans have images, general ideas, and expectations about the destination that have been driven by soap operas, TV programs or movies related to their favorite pop-stars. Satisfaction occurs when customers’ experiences meet their expectations (Oliver, 1980). DMOs should be ready to welcome the fans that are highly motivated to travel. However, the Seoul Travel Organization pointed out that it lacks infrastructure such as tourist information centers and tour guides despite the recent increased tourists (Seok, 2011). This indicates that the DMOs should understand the importance of basic but fundamental infrastructure and make efforts to provide satisfactory experiences with specific products and service quality such as transportation, language services, and travel guides in order to meet fan expectations.

The results revealed positive experiences impacted fans emotional attachment to Korea. In addition, their satisfaction with travel and attachment to the destination were influenced more by the destination itself rather than their fandom toward pop-stars. This indicates that once fans visit the destination, their evaluation and satisfaction with travels
were based on the destination’s features and services rather than their degree of fandom. This suggests that DMOs have more responsibilities than pop-stars to provide positive travel experiences that can bond fans to the place. In addition, place attachment appeared to be established through a process from motivation to satisfaction to attachment, rather than directly influenced by fandom. Positive experiences and satisfaction with travel reinforces tourists’ place attachment, thereby affecting future behavior (George & George, 2004). Destination marketers should recognize the importance of travel satisfaction in forming place attachment, which is a critical element for destination loyalty. Therefore, the destination should make efforts to meet fans’ expectations by providing satisfactory products and services such as cultural attractions, facilities, and a safe and clean environment. Furthermore, place dependence was found to be a critical factor directly linked to destination loyalty. This finding suggests that destination marketers continue paying serious attention to the physical features and characteristics of the destination in order to better serve tourists, achieve their expectations, and eventually lead them to retain loyal tourists.

**Limitations and Future Research**

There are several factors that represent limitations to the study. The data for the study was obtained from an online survey. This alone contributes to the inability to generalize the findings in that those who do not use the Internet would be excluded from participating in the survey. In addition, the sample was predominantly women (85%), which may have represented gender effects on the results.

As this study selected Korean pop-stars and their fans with the majority of the sample being Asians (91.1%), caution should be made in generalizing the findings from this
study to other populations. While the subjects in this study represented a number of different nationalities, the high percentage (53.1%) of Japanese fan club members may have introduced cultural influences that affected the findings in this study. In fact, the recent Korean Wave trend is not just limited to Asian countries, but has also expanded around the world, including North America, Latin America, and Europe (Seo et al., 2012). It would be beneficial to broaden the demographic makeup of the sample targeting more pop-star fan clubs from other countries. Therefore, future research should include more diverse contexts with different study populations in order to generalize findings and enhance the external validity of the results.

The study sample consisted of two types of fans: member vs. non-members. This resulted in a relatively low factor loading (.73) for fandom, compared to other indicators. Fan-club membership could lead fans to feel a sense of identity associated with a particular group (Tajfel, 1978). This suggests that future research explore group differences between the fan club members and non-members in their degree of fandom and its effect on attitudes toward the destination.

In addition, the loading for travel motivation to participate pop-star was very low (.14) while the loading for fandom (.59) was relatively high. This indicates that the travel motivation for pop-star’s event might be a plausible indicator to measure fandom. This suggests that future research consider including this motivation indicator into the construct of fandom. Alternatively, the indicator could be separated from travel motivation to understand the relationship between motivations and to investigate the relationships among fandom, motivation, and other destination variables.
Moreover, this study treated pop-star fans as a homogenous group. However, a recent study (Thorne, 2011) argued that fans’ level of fandom might result in different behaviors depending on their level of involvement and intensity. If distinctive levels of fandom exist in a fan group, differences should be recognized and properly measured in order to identify which group is more important and influential in the destination context. Therefore, it is recommended that further research classify fans into subgroups on the basis of their fandom level and investigate group differences in attitudes and behaviors in the fandom and tourism contexts.

In addition, this study measured only specific satisfaction, rather than overall satisfaction. Previous research indicates that measuring the overall level of satisfaction with experiences in particular destinations provides a better understanding of the psychological outcomes they have experienced over time (e.g., Kozak, 2001; Qu & Ping, 1999; Severt, Wang, Chen, & Breiter, 2007; Tian-Cole, Crompton, & Willson, 2002; Yu & Goulden, 2006). In addition, Yuan and Jang (2008) argued that affective responses play a role in maintaining or increasing the level of satisfaction, which can lead to purchase intentions. Therefore, future research needs to consider emotional responses as well as overall satisfaction to better understand the satisfaction construct (Cronin, Brady, & Hult, 2000; Liljander & Strandvik, 1997)

Furthermore, destination loyalty in this study was measured by two indicators of WOM and attitudinal loyalty (i.e., commitment), excluding behavioral loyalty (i.e., revisit intention). Numerous studies suggest that revisit intention is a significant indicator of destination loyalty (i.e., Kozak, 2001; Kozak & Rimmington, 2000; Ross, 1993; Yoon & Uysal, 2005). In addition, an integrated approach that combines behavior
and attitudinal dimensions can suggest more meaningful interpretations as well as practical implications (Backman & Crompton, 1991; Oliver, 1999; Petrick, 2004; Shoemaker & Lewis, 1999). Therefore, it is recommended that further research consider both behaviors and attitudes towards a destination to measure the destination loyalty construct.

Lastly, as this study utilized mainly quantitative methods, it has limitations to revealing deeper and richer meanings. To supplement the shortage of a quantitative approach, this research included one open-ended question related to the survey. However, even the open-ended questions still have limitations in understanding fans’ attitudes and behaviors compared to qualitative approaches such as in-depth interviews. 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 fans attitudes and behaviors within a natural setting.

In summary, this research provided empirical support for the impact of fandom on tourism by adopting the self-expansion theory. This study revealed a new characteristic of fans, a high level of self-expansion. Fans’ self-expansion was significant in influencing their fandom and travel motivation. As a result, a high degree of fandom had a significant effect on travel satisfaction and destination loyalty. In addition, a high degree of travel motivation had a direct effect on satisfaction and indirect effects on place attachment and destination loyalty.

Given the growing importance of pop-culture tourism, this research is among the first studies to investigate the impact of fandom on tourism, providing new insights in
understanding this niche segment from the pop-culture fans’ perspectives. The application of self-expansion theory to fandom and tourism in this study has helped to bridge the link between a fan and a destination, extending the literature on destination studies, and suggesting meaningful implications for destination marketers. The findings of this study suggest that future research continue to investigate destination markets with different and/or broader contexts using diverse research approaches.
APPENDIX I

UNLV
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Social/Behavioral IRB – Expedited Review Approval Notice

NOTICE TO ALL RESEARCHERS:
Please be aware that a protocol violation (e.g., failure to submit a modification for any change) of an IRB approved protocol may result in mandatory remedial education, additional audits, re-consenting subjects, researcher probation, suspension of any research protocol at issue, suspension of additional existing research protocols, invalidation of all research conducted under the research protocol at issue, and further appropriate consequences as determined by the IRB and the Institutional Officer.

DATE: December 6, 2011

TO: Dr. Billy Bai, Tourism and Convention Administration

FROM: Office of Research Integrity - Human Subjects

RE: Notification of IRB Action by /Lori Olafson/ Dr. Lori Olafson, Co-Chair
Protocol Title: From Fandom to Tourism
Protocol #: 1110-39501M
Expiration Date: December 5, 2012

This memorandum is notification that the project referenced above has been reviewed and approved by the UNLV Social/Behavioral Institutional Review Board (IRB) as indicated in Federal regulatory statutes 45 CFR 46 and UNLV Human Research Policies and Procedures.

The protocol is approved for a period of one year and expires December 5, 2012. If the above-referenced project has not been completed by this date you must request renewal by submitting a Continuing Review Request form 30 days before the expiration date.

PLEASE NOTE:
Upon approval, the research team is responsible for conducting the research as stated in the protocol most recently reviewed and approved by the IRB, which shall include using the most recently submitted Informed Consent/Assent forms and recruitment materials. The official versions of these forms are indicated by footer which contains approval and expiration dates.

Should there be any change to the protocol, it will be necessary to submit a Modification Form through ORI - Human Subjects. No changes may be made to the existing protocol until modifications have been approved by the IRB. Modified versions of protocol materials must be used upon review and approval. Unanticipated problems, deviations to protocols, and adverse events must be reported to the ORI – HS within 10 days of occurrence.

If you have questions or require any assistance, please contact the Office of Research Integrity - Human Subjects at IRB@unlv.edu or call 895-2794.
Dear Korean pop-star fans!

You are invited to participate in a research study.

I am SoJung Lee, a Ph.D. student at university of Nevada, Las Vegas. I am doing a research on the impact of fandom on tourism. For this, in particular, I examine how your fandom toward your favorite Korean pop-star is linked to your travels to South Korea. The results will eventually discuss the impact of your favorite Korean pop-star on Korean tourism; therefore, your participation is very important. Your sincere responses will be an indicator of your loyalty to your favorite Korean pop-star.

The survey will include three parts: (A) general self-expansion, (B) your fandom, and (C) your travel attitudes and behaviors. It will take about 30 minutes to complete this survey.

If you complete the survey, you will have an opportunity to win a gift card. The first 100 people will receive a $10 in Amazon gift card when completely finishing the survey. Then the rest of participants will automatically participate in a drawing. The random drawing will award 100 people $10 each in Amazon gift card.

Your participation in this study is voluntary. You may refuse to participate in this study or in any part of this study. You are encouraged to ask questions about this study at the beginning or any time during the study. All information gathered in this study will be kept completely confidential. No reference will be made in written or oral materials that could link you to this study.

If you have any questions or concerns about the study, you may contact me at 1-702-373-0344 (US), 070-4065-9537 (Korea) or kpopsurvey2011@gmail.com.

Lee, So Jung
Ph.D. candidate
University of Nevada, Las Vegas
A. General Self-Expansion The following questions ask about your experience in a particular relationship with someone or in doing something that is important to you. Please answer each question according to the way you personally feel, using the following scale. (1=Not Very Much, 7=Very Much)

1. When I am with this person, I feel a greater awareness of things because of this person. (When I am doing the activity, I feel a greater awareness of things because of it) 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
2. I often learn new things about this person/activity. 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
3. Knowing this person/doing the activity has made me a better person. 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
4. Being with this person/doing the activity results in my having new experiences. 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
5. This person/activity increases my ability to accomplish new things. 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
6. This person/activity provides a source of exciting experiences. 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
7. This person/activity increases the respect other people have for me. 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
8. This person/activity increases my knowledge. 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
9. This person/activity allows me to compensate for some of my own weaknesses. 1 2 3 4 5 6 7

A-1 Describe the nature of your relationship with this person or the activity that generate such experiences when you are involved with them. (ex. partner, spouse, children, STAR, doing activities)

B. Your fandom toward your favorite pop-star (STAR)

[1] Your favorite pop-star and membership

1. Who is your favorite Korean pop-star (individual or group)?
   Name ______________________

2. When was the first year that you became interested in your STAR? ________ year (ex. 2011)

3. How often have you attended STAR’s activities or events over the past 12 months?

4. Do you have a membership of STAR? Yes [fan-club name_________] No (go to 5.)
   a. When was your first time to be a member? ________ Year (ex. 2011)
   b. How many times have you renewed your membership? ________ times
   c. Will you renew your membership in the next year? Yes / No
   d. Will you refer the membership to your friends? Yes / No

5. About how much did you spend on all expenses related to STAR’s activities in your country over the past 12 months? (e.g. watching soap operas, purchasing merchandizes, membership fees, etc)
   [USD($)]

[2] Your fandom toward your STAR

1. Each statement below is about your attitudes toward your STAR. Please check one to indicate the extent to which you agree or disagree. (1=Strongly disagree; 2=Disagree; 3=Somewhat disagree; 4=Neutral; 5=Somewhat agree; 6=Agree 7=Strongly agree)

I-1. Involvement

1. My STAR is very important to me. 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
2. My STAR’s activities offer me relaxation when pressures build up. 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
3. Participating in my STAR’s activities is one of the most satisfying things I do. 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
4. I really enjoy participating in my STAR’s activities. 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
5. I find a lot of my life is organized around my STAR and STAR’s activities. 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
6. Participating in my STAR’s activities says a lot about who I am. 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
7. You can tell a lot about people by seeing them participating in my STAR’s activities. 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
8. When I participate in my STAR’s activities, I can really be myself. 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
9. When I participate in my STAR’s events, others see me the way I want them to see me. 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
1-2. Attachment
1. If I were describing myself, my STAR would likely be something I would mention. 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
2. If someone verbally attacked my STAR, I would feel a little bit personally attacked. 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
3. If my STAR was disbanded, I would feel like I had lost a little bit of myself. 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
4. I have lots of feelings about my STAR. 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
5. If someone praised my STAR, I would feel somewhat praised myself. 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
6. People who know me might sometimes think of my STAR when they think of me. 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
7. If I couldn't participate in my STAR’s events, I would feel a little less like myself. 1 2 3 4 5 6 7

1-3. Commitment
1. I know much about my STAR. 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
2. I consider myself an educated fan regarding my STAR. 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
3. My STAR means a lot to me. 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
4. My STAR means more to me than any other pop-star I can think of. 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
5. The decision to participate in my STAR’s events was primarily my own. 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
6. I enjoy discussing my STAR with my friends. 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
7. Changing my preference from my STAR to another would require major rethinking. 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
8. It would be difficult to change my beliefs about my STAR. 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
9. Even if friends recommend someone else, I would not change my preference for my STAR. 1 2 3 4 5 6 7

1-4. Group Identity
1. I often think about being a member of my STAR-fan-club. 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
2. Being a member is an important part of myself image. 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
3. I identify with other members/fans toward my STAR. 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
4. In general I’m glad to be a member or fan. 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
5. I feel good about myself when I think about being a member/fan. 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
6. I have a lot in common with other members/fans. 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
7. I feel strong ties to other members/fans. 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
8. I would like to continue working with other members/fans. 1 2 3 4 5 6 7

C. This section asks your attitudes and behaviors toward South Korea.
C-1. Travel Motivation – Would you like to visit South Korea in the future?
1. Yes (continue) / 2. No (Go to C-2 Question)
2. If yes, please indicate the number that reflects your extent of your corresponding to each of the following statement regarding the reason to visit South Korea. (1 = not correspond at all; 7 = corresponds exactly)
   1. For the pleasure of discovering South Korea. 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
   2. For the satisfaction I experience while I am visiting South Korea. 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
   3. For the excitement I feel when I am traveling in South Korea. 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
   4. For the enjoyment of visiting my STAR’s related venues in South Korea. 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
   5. For the pleasure of meeting people in South Korea. 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
   6. Because I want to participate in my STAR’s events, I must do travel to Korea. 1 2 3 4 5 6 7

C-2. Travel Experience: Have you ever been to South Korea? Yes (Continue) / No (Skip to D-1)
1. When was your first time to visit South Korea? _____ Year (ex. 1999)
2. How many times have you visited South Korea in your lifetime? 1 2 3 4 5 or more
3. What percentage of your visits are for your STAR activities, travel, and others?
   1. _____ % for my STAR’s activities (including travel after or before my STAR activities)
   2. _____ % only for travel
   3. _____ % for others
4. Have you ever told your experience in South Korea to your friends?
   1 (Yes -Positive) 2 (Yes -Negative) 3 (No)
5. Have you ever recommended South Korea to people for their future travels over the past 12 months?
   1 (Yes) 2 (No)
C-3. Satisfaction
1. Please check one to indicate the extent to which you are satisfied with the each following elements while you are traveling. (1=Very dissatisfied; 7=Very satisfied)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Element</th>
<th>Score</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Accommodation</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5 6 7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Evening entertainment</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5 6 7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Visitor attractions</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5 6 7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Restaurants</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5 6 7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. Roads and highways</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5 6 7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. Shopping</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5 6 7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. Parks and beaches</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5 6 7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8. Public transportation</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5 6 7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9. Festivals and Events</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5 6 7</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

2. For each statement, check one to indicate the extent to which you agree or disagree with your experience while traveling in South Korea.

   (1=Strongly disagree; 2=Disagree; 3=Somewhat disagree; 4=Neutral; 5=Somewhat agree; 6=Agree; 7=Strongly agree)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Statement</th>
<th>Score</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. South Korea is a good place to visit.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. South Korea offers good value for money.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. South Korea is easy to get around.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. My overall evaluation on the experience of visiting South Korea is positive.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. I am pleased with my past experience of visiting South Korea.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. South Korea was better than I expected.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. I think that I did the right decision to visit South Korea.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

C-4. Place attachment

Please check one to indicate the extent to which you agree or disagree. (1=Strongly disagree; 2=Disagree; 3=Somewhat disagree; 4=Neutral; 5=Somewhat agree; 6=Agree; 7=Strongly agree)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Statement</th>
<th>Score</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. I feel my personal values are reflected in South Korea.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. I feel that I can be myself when I visit/am in South Korea.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Visiting South Korea means a lot about who I am.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. South Korea means a lot to me.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. I identify strongly with South Korea.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. I feel a strong sense of belonging to South Korea.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. I enjoy traveling to Korea more than any other country.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8. For the recreation/leisure activities that I enjoy, South Korea is the best.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9. I get more satisfaction out of visiting Korea than from visiting any other country.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10. Doing leisure activities in South Korea is more important than in any other place.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11. For what I like to travel, I could not imagine anything better setting than Korea.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12. Visiting/Being in South Korea allows me to spend time with my family/friends.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13. Many of my friends/family prefers South Korea over other places.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14. I have a lot of fond memories with friends/family in South Korea.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

C-5. Destination loyalty

1. Please choose the number that reflects your future intention within the next year for each of the following statements. (1=Very Unlikely, 7=Very Likely)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Statement</th>
<th>Score</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. I would like to visit South Korea for traveling purpose within the next year.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. I would like to have come to South Korea even if you had not come for my STAR’s events.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. I would like to still visit South Korea even if my STAR wouldn’t live in South Korea.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. I would like to recommend South Korea to people who seek my advice for their future travels.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. I would like to tell other positive things about South Korea.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. I consider myself a loyal visitor of South Korea.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. For me, no country could substitute for South Korea</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
D-1. Please describe how your favorite Korean pop-star has influenced the image of South Korea and your travel attitudes and behaviors to South Korea.

Demographic information

1. Are you? _____ Female ___ Male
2. What year were you born in? ____________ Year (ex.1975)
3. What is your job?

4. What was your total household income (before taxes) in 2010? (unit: USD ($)
    1(1-19,999); 2(20,000-39,999); 3(40,000-59,999);4(60,000-79,999); 5(80,000-99,999); 6(100,000 or more)

5. What is the highest level of education that you have completed? [Please check one]
    1(High School) 2(2-year College) 3(4-year College) 4(Graduate) 5(Others:(Specify__________)

6. Which country / region are you from? [Please check one]
    (Specify_______)

7. What is your ethnic?
REFERENCES


VITA

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 Bachelor of Science, Food and Nutrition, 1999
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