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Second-home owner attachment to a destination: A driver of tourism promotion

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SECOND-HOME OWNER ATTACHMENT TO A DESTINATION:

A DRIVER OF TOURISM PROMOTION

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ABSTRACT

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Second-homes have become common place in many destinations. The visitation to these homes has become known as second-home tourism. Previous literature suggests that these homeowners might possess traits that would be attractive to tourism planners such as repeat visitation, word-of-mouth promotion, and the hosting of other visitors.

The purpose of this study was to explore the presence of these traits in the context of international second-home owners and test a theoretical model that proposes place attachment as a driver of these behaviors. Attachment has been shown as a predictor of visitation and positive word-of-mouth in previous research. Borrowing from the visiting friends and relatives' literature, a new construct known as hosting is developed and tested in the model.

This study expands previous research on place attachment into a cross-cultural context by sampling residents of the United States and Canada that own a second-home in Costa Rica. Using theory and previous research findings, place attachment was

proposed as a driver of homeowner visitation, word-of-mouth promotion, and hosting; data were collected and tested for model fit.

Findings from the study suggest that the relationship between the dimensions of place attachment (place identity and place dependence) do not support the relationship with visitation. Place dependence and visitation were not supported in model. Place identity was supported as a driver of word-of-mouth promotion and hosting. In addition, word-of-mouth promotion was supported as a driver of hosting. Findings from this study provide insight into the behaviors of second-home owners and utilization of their home. Tourism planners should develop strategies to engage these owners by enriching their experiences at the destination to nourish their attachment.

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CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

Tourism is one of the world's largest industries, employing over 230 million people with travel and tourism spending approaching 7 trillion USD annually. (World Tourism Organization, 2007; World Travel & Tourism Council, 2007). A number of destinations, regions, states, and countries have embraced tourism as a strategy for economic development. The underlying premise is that visitors to a region of interest contribute capital to the host community by purchasing goods and services such as lodging accommodations, transportation, food, and entertainment during their visit. The demand for these services creates jobs in the host community and tax revenue for the local government. Some destinations are attractive because of their architecture, history, and culture such as Paris, France while others are popular because of their entertainment and marketing efforts such as Las Vegas, Nevada. However, a number of destinations embrace tourism because of their sheer natural beauty such as Hawaii. Central America and the Caribbean are home to a number of countries that are embracing tourism as an economic development strategy because of their natural beauty. Many of these rural communities and developing countries embrace tourism as a means of economic development as they migrate from extraction based industries such as logging, mining,

and agriculture to tourism. Their proximity to the U.S. makes them attractive destinations for U.S. residents.

For most tourists, lodging accommodations are the primary expenditure during a visit to a destination (Mottiar, 2006). From this service, many other travel and tourism amenities are extended such as dining, transportation, tours, entertainment, and recreational activities. Host community governments realize the economic benefits of tourism through accommodation taxes, rental car taxes, airport taxes, and the employment of residents by a number of organizations providing related services. However, a prevailing type of visitor has crept into mainstream tourism: the non-resident homeowner. This type of visitor owns a home in a destination for purposes of seasonal visits, recreational access, retirement, investment, or a combination of reasons. These types of homes are commonly referred to as vacation homes, summer homes, seasonal homes, summer cottages, recreational housing, and second homes (Gartner, 1987; Go, 1988; Jaakson, 1986; National Association of Realtors [NAR], 2006; Ragatz & Gelb, 1970; Tress, 2002).

An additional home for leisure purposes was once considered a privilege of the elite and considered marginal in the realm of overall visitation to a destination (Jaakson, 1986; Urry, 1995). Second homes are prevalent in rural settings, particularly when amenity rich rural settings such as lakes and mountains are within driving distance of metropolitan areas (Marcouiller, Green, Deller, Sumathi, & Erkkila, 1996; Tress, 2002). However, this appears to be changing as individuals, developers, planners, and hoteliers embrace second-home ownership. Interestingly, the popularity of second homes has expanded beyond the weekend drive. For instance, U.S. and Canadian residents have

purchased second-homes in countries such as Mexico, Panama, and Costa Rica (Kelly, Creekmore, & Hornberger, 2007). In addition, second-homes are common place in urban districts such as Las Vegas, Miami, New York, London, and Paris.

The proliferation of these lodging alternatives, however, could challenge communities that depend on travel and tourism because these self-catering accommodations do not capture revenue from lodging taxes, the expenditures of second-home tourists is unclear, and the overall utilization of the home is unknown. Ironically, developers and hoteliers themselves are creating many of the second-home developments in the form of mixed-used properties comprised of hotels, condominiums, and estates within a resort setting. For example, luxury hotel operators are creating residences in combination with their hotels; these are referred to as condominium hotels or mixed use properties (Mintel International Group Limited, 2006). Even more, many of these homes provide a potential for investment income when not in use by the owner (Karpinski, 2005; Kelly et al., 2007).

Some of the early research on second homes focused on lake houses common in the Great Lakes region of the U.S. and Canada. They served as escapes from the city with easy access to boating, fishing, and hunting (Gartner, 1987; Girard & Gartner, 1993; Jaakson, 1986; Stewart & Stynes, 1994). Researchers were primarily interested in the perceptions of the host community residents as they related to the social, economic and environmental impact of second-home owners and their properties. Ragatz and Gelb (1970) reviewed a number of articles on vacation homes and predicted significant growth in this sector. They recognized and predicted a real potential for customized second-

home products that would migrate ownership of second-homes from the elite to the middle class.

Similar research regarding summer homes and ski cabins was conducted in Europe. Summer homes were prevalent in the 19th Century and provided an escape from Copenhagen, Denmark. This tradition continues today throughout Scandinavia (Müller, 2002; Tress, 2002). This type of second home is commonly referred to as a summer cottage. Cottage tourism is the most popular form of domestic tourism in this region of Europe.

Second homes are not a new phenomenon, but the magnitude and breadth of ownership is certainly generating attention. But why have tourist bureaus failed to engage second-home owners as contributors to overall tourism? Perhaps their prevalence was ignored because of the short-term focus by hoteliers that dominated tourism boards (Gartner, 2004; Plog, 2005). After all, tourism bureaus are typically funded by the taxes on commercial lodging accommodations not second-homes. In addition, many destinations generate the largest portion of their tax revenue and employment from commercial lodging operations (Plog, 2005). Interestingly, there are a number of rural destinations that provide more beds from vacation homes than from commercial lodging operations (Go, 1988). Second homes, particularly homes offered as vacation rentals, are a type of supplementary lodging alternative.

In the U.S., 40% of homes sold in 2005 were second-homes; that equates to 3.3 million homes in just one year (NAR, 2006). More than half of these second homes were located in recreational and tourist destinations. The second-home market, as defined by the NAR, is comprised of investment homes and vacation homes. Although many

consider these high percentages an anomaly because of the recent housing slump in the U.S., the vacation home segment continues to set records (NAR, 2007). Second homes comprised 36% of homes sold in 2006, down 4% from 2005. However, vacation homes rose 4.7% while investment homes fell 28.9%. These numbers from the NAR suggest that classifying second-home tourism as marginal might be inappropriate as these homes seem to comprise a large portion of the overall housing market.

The demand for second homes by U.S. citizens has spread to nearby countries such as Mexico and several countries in Central America as evidenced by the mainstream periodicals such as the travel section of the New York Times and magazines such as Vacation Homes that report on travel and leisure trends related to vacation homes. This demand may be driven by price discrepancies between homes in amenity rich locations in these countries compared to areas in the homeowners' primary country of residence. These great distances between homes are also supported by improvements in mobility (Hall & Müller, 2004; NAR, 2006). Go (1988) suggested that the discrepancy in purchasing power allows middle class individuals in a country with a higher cost of living to live as upper class homeowners in less expensive and developing regions. In addition, the rental potential of these properties also offsets the cost of ownership (Karpinski, 2005; Kelly et al., 2007). Regions wishing to embrace tourism as an economic strategy need to pay attention to recreational housing as a "potential tourism-related economic development strategy" (Deller, Marcouiller, & Green, 1997, p. 688). These recommendations were similar to those made by Ragatz and Gelb (1970) when discussing the product potential of the second-home market.

Go (1988) recognized that developing regions embracing tourism as an economic strategy would need to address second-home ownership because of the economic discrepancies between local residents and potential second-home owners. Costa Rica is a developing country that has embraced tourism as an economic development strategy. The country is migrating from an agriculture-based economy to one based on manufacturing and tourism. The U.S. is the primary source of foreign direct investment in Costa Rica. In addition, Costa Rica is considered one of the most stable democracies in the combined region of Central and South America (Raventos, 2001). The stability is supported by high literacy rates and relatively low rates of poverty and infant mortality. Their stability, an overall respect for the country's natural beauty evidenced by government policy, and foreign direct investment are contributing to a booming second-home market. This attention is highlighted by articles in *Vacation Homes* magazine and travel and leisure television shows such as International House Hunters (Davis, 2007; Home & Garden Television, 2007). Currently, the Costa Rican Tourism Board (Instituto Costarricense de Turismo, ICT) has not embraced second-home owners in their tourism promotion. The government's attempt to control development by reserving large tracts of land has made the country even more appealing to second-home owners and developers because these policies protect the natural beauty of the destination (Davis, 2007).

Statement of the Problem

The long utilized dichotomy of classifying people as either residents or tourists fails to account for the influx of non-residents that own a home in a tourist destination for leisure pursuits. Tourism planners tend not to account for second-home owners; a tourist is supposed to spend a certain number of nights in a commercial lodging operation and

remain dependent on the guest related services provided by locals during their visit. A part-time resident such as a vacation homeowner certainly challenges this notion. Several tourism researchers examined the economic potential of this type of recreational housing as an economic development strategy (Anderson, 2006; Deller et al., 1997, Fritz, 1982; Marcouiller et al., 1996). However, these studies focused on the actual house as the source of the revenue to the local tax base, not the person visiting the home. Therefore, an understanding of second-home owners and the utilization of their homes are important in understanding and identifying their role in tourism promotion (Jaakson, 1986; Jordan, 1980).

Early travel and tourism researchers such as Cohen (1974) omitted visitation of vacation homes because it was considered recurrent and marginal. However, one goal of tourism is recurrence, particularly if it is not marginal, e.g. destination loyalty. The importance of understanding second-home owners has increased with the proportion of second-home owners investing in a community and the social, economic, and environmental impact associated with this migration.

Tourist destinations, such as Costa Rica, are now being dominated by second home development, especially where the economic discrepancies between the potential buyer and host population exist, such as in rural communities within the U.S and developing countries (Beyers & Nelson, 2000; Gartner, 2004; Piga, 2003). These regions are particularly attractive as they transition from extraction-based industries, such as agriculture and mining, to tourism because of the economic disparity between local residents and outsiders (Gartner, 2004; Piga 2003). Some of the driving forces of this phenomenon are globalization, wealth, and mobility.

Many tourist regions do not have an accurate understanding of the second-home phenomenon because the mechanisms for measuring it are not in place. More importantly, very few tourism bureaus have embraced second-home ownership as a contributor to tourism, although the literature has suggested several desirable traits such as repeat visitation, a longer length of stay, and positive word-of-mouth promotion.

Second-home owners create a new dynamic to the destination that alters the flavor of the host community and challenges the way community leaders and residents view tourism. The tourist/resident dichotomy does not adequately capture second-home owners, because they are essentially both a visitor and member of the community. Although they are owners in the community, frequently second-home owners behave like tourists as they make recurring visits to their vacation home. Previous research provides some valuable insight into their behaviors. Many tourist destinations are being altered by the investment made by second-home owners who are blamed for driving up real estate costs, purchasing the premiere properties within a community, and displacing permanent residents (Beyers & Nelson, 2000; Coppock, 1977; Gartner, 2004; Girard & Gartner, 1993; Rothman, 1978). Outside of early research on host community perceptions and second home meaning, much of the research on second homes takes a perspective that these homeowners are outsiders, as evidenced by terms such as part-time resident and seasonal owner (Stedman, 2006). Contradictory to expectations, second-home owners in some regions have stronger levels of attachment to the destination/community than the full-time residents (Stedman, 2006). This finding is supported by seasonal resident attitudes concerning development and environmental issues (Marcouiller et al., 1996). Stedman (2006) found that this attachment was driven by previous experience with the

location and motivations for ownership. The findings coupled with those from Girard and Gartner (1993) and Jaakson (1986) indicate a possible antecedent to place attachment such as involvement or familiarity.

There are undoubtedly consequences of second-home development, especially when full-time residents perceive owners of second homes as outsiders. And although the social, economic, and environmental impacts of second-home ownership are important, this study is concerned about the promotional behaviors of second-home owners. Promotional behaviors include the visitation, promotion, and hosting of other visitors. The mounting evidence regarding the phenomenon's magnitude demonstrates the need for research on the subject.

Much of the research on second home ownership has had a negative connotation, particularly as it relates to host community perception. A small portion of research has addressed the meaning of second homes to their owners and found that second-home owners have a strong attachment to the location of their second-home (Jaakson, 1986; Jorgensen & Stedman, 2001; McCool & Martin, 1994; Stedman, 2006). In addition, residents play a significant role in increasing tourism by hosting visiting friends and relatives (Lehto, Morrison, & O'Leary, 2001; Morrison & O'Leary, 1995; Moscardo, Pearce, Morrison, Green, & O'Leary, 2000; Young, Corson, & Baloglu, 2007). Second-home owners might play a similar role by hosting visiting friends and relatives in the destination and generating positive word-of-mouth about the destination because of their attachment to the destination and visitation patterns. In combination, these outcomes might represent a significant driver of tourism promotion.

Purpose of Study

In this particular study, a behavioral model of second-home owners will be examined. From a tourism perspective, second-home owners are seen as visitors to the destination and their homes are seen as lodging accommodations. Within this research study, second-home ownership is conceptualized as place attachment. A strong attachment to the destination is thus proposed as a catalyst for increased visitation in the form of longer length of stay or more frequent trips, positive word-of-mouth promotion and the hosting of additional visitors. Second-homeowners are expected to have a strong attachment to the destination because of their investment in the destination (Jorgensen & Stedman, 2002; Stedman, 2002; Stedman, 2006).

Place attachment has two dimensions: place dependence and place identity (Williams & Vaske, 2003). Place dependence represents a type of attachment with a particular place because it satisfies needs better than other possible substitutes (Stokols & Shoemaker, 1981; Williams, Patterson, Roggenbuck, & Watson, 1992). Place identity refers to the elements of self that a person shares with the physical environment (Brown, 1990; Korpela, 1989; Proshansky, Fabian, Kaminoff, 1983). Place dependence captures the functional or behavioral aspect of place while place identity captures the affective and cognitive aspect of place.

The purpose of this study is to (1) identify the promotional behaviors of second-home owners to a destination, and (2) propose and test a conceptual model of second-home owner promotional behaviors to a destination that assesses the effects of place attachment on visitation, word-of-mouth promotion, and the hosting of visiting friends

and relatives. This study expands findings from a domestic tourism context into an international setting and tests some of the relationships found in previous research.

Research Questions

The specific research objectives of this study are (1) to develop an integrated conceptual model for testing the promotional behaviors—visitation, promotion, and hosting—of second-home owners to a destination, (2) to examine and test the relationships of place identity and place dependence as drivers of visitation, word-of-mouth promotion and the hosting of visiting friends and relatives. The following research question is explored in this study. Is place attachment among second-home owners a driver of tourism promotion? Based on the conceptual foundation and literature review, a consumer behavior model is proposed to explain the second-home owner's promotion of a destination. The hypotheses in Table 1 were developed to test the structural relationships in the proposed model that were developed from the literature.

Table 1

Hypotheses of Structural Relationships

Hypotheses	Relationships
H1:	Place identity has a positive direct effect on visitation.
H2:	Place identity has a positive direct effect on word-of-mouth.
H3:	Place identity has a positive direct effect on hosting.
H4:	Place dependence has a positive direct effect on visitation.
H5:	Visitation has a positive direct effect on word-of-mouth.
H6:	Visitation has a positive direct effect on hosting.

Research Contribution

This study will test a proposed model that examines the promotional behaviors of second-home owners toward a destination. The findings from this study are important because they will provide insight into the role of non-resident homeowners to tourism promotion. The implications relate to visitation patterns, destination promotion, public policy and taxation regarding second homes, and the marketing of services to second-home owners. The proposed model was developed from literature that suggests second-home owners demonstrate high levels of attachment to a destination. This attachment can be an antecedent to positive outcomes. For the destination, this attachment may act as a driver of visitation, word-of-mouth promotion, and the hosting of visiting friends and relatives. If this model fits the data, tourist organizations need to embrace these second-home owners as the gatekeepers to many of the offerings of the destination. They are thus ambassadors to the destination, influencing the visitation and activities of those visitors. Because of their strong attachment to the destination and increased visitation, tourism marketers might consider building upon the dimensions of place attachment to develop the owners' relationship with the destination.

A very important element of this research is the utilization of the vacation home. These homes certainly provide a lodging alternative to hotels for the homeowners when visiting the destination, but does this extend beyond the homeowners to visiting friends and relatives? The home may even provide a lodging alternative to other visitors if the home is shared with, or rented to, other visitors. Public policy and taxation regarding this type of accommodation will need to be aligned with this practice if tourism is going to provide the economic benefits expected by the host community. One of the most

significant policy transformations in the U.S. occurred when tax legislation was altered to allow local municipalities to tax users of tourist businesses. The bed tax or room tax was the dominant outcome of this legislation in most states (Gartner, 2004). If a significant portion of accommodations falls outside of commercial lodging operations, potential policy changes need to be considered. Otherwise, second homes provide an avenue for circumventing the benefits sought from tourism accommodation expenditures.

A final implication of this study is the marketing of tourism services to second-home owners. The study provides a number of comparisons between second-home owners and traditional tourists since the study is contained within an overall visitor study. These comparisons will reveal whether these homeowners engage in similar activities and expenditures. Previous research has suggested that second-home owners spend more than traditional tourists and participate in different activities as repeat visitors (Lau & McKercher, 2004; Marcouiller et al., 1996; Mottiar, 2006).

Need for this Study

Like many developing regions and countries, Costa Rica has embraced tourism as an economic development strategy. In addition to growth in tourist visits, the country is experiencing a heavy investment in second-homes by U.S. and Canadian residents. This type of tourism was not the intention of tourism planners. Now the need exists to understand the potential contribution of second-homes and their owners to tourism. This study is timely in its exploration of the second-home phenomena in Costa Rica. The proposed study draws from the rural sociology literature that examines a similar development in the rural regions of the U.S. and Canada.

Definition of Key Terms

The defining of key terms is necessary before proceeding. *Tourism*. The definition of tourism is adopted from the Basic References of Tourism Statistics produced by the World Tourism Organization, a division of the United Nations. The organization defines tourism "as the activities of persons traveling to and staying in places outside their usual environment for not more than one consecutive year for leisure, business and other purposes not related to the exercise of an activity remunerated from within the place visited" (World Tourism Organization, 2007). The adoption of this particular definition of tourism allows for a comparative between countries and within a country. Tourism includes all activities of visitors.

Resident; Country of residence; Legal residency. The host community in this research study is Costa Rica. The entire country is being treated as the destination of interest. The term resident includes people that live in Costa Rica and have legal residency status as determined by the Costa Rican government. Because the scope of this study is international, the country of residence is an important element in classifying visitors. The study is limited to visitors to Costa Rica that have a country of residence as either Canada or the United States. The country of residence does not pertain to nationality. For example, a sub-category of Costa Rican residents is foreign nationals. These individuals are typically treated as residents of the host country since they only travel back to their home country for a temporary visit and their income is earned in the host community. The determination of a foreign national is legal residency in the host country represented by issuance of a visa. Even with these precise definitions, there is a strong possibility that many foreign homeowners are able to live like residents of Costa

Rica by returning to their country of residence once every three months to avoid the legal hassle related to attaining legal residency.

Second home. The term second-home is synonymous with vacation home, holiday home, seasonal home, and summer home. This research focuses on second-homeownership that is for personal use, such as vacations, but not homes purchased solely for investment purposes, such as rental income and capital gains. To be determined a second home, it must be used by the owner. Personal use of the home will be a necessary criterion for participation in the study. Although investment might be the major factor in the purchase of a second home for personal use, investment does not serve as the sole purpose for purchasing the property. For example, the owner may let the home to others when the owner does not occupy the home. From this point forward, the term second home refers to residential properties owned in addition to a primary residence and intended for some personal use by the homeowner. The term second home is not intended to identify the number of homes owned by an individual or its preference to the homeowner, but rather to identify the occurrence of more than one home in the owners' possession. It is not unusual for people to own three or more homes. Second-home tourism is defined as the related travel and activities associated with visiting and staying at the home in the host community.

There are generally two types of homes: detached single-family homes and multi-unit homes such as condominiums. The ownership structure of a home can be quite complex. The simplest form is full ownership by an individual or group such as a married couple. Ownership might also be comprised of informal partnerships among family and friends, or formal agreements, such as timeshare and fractional ownership.

For purposes of capturing the occurrence of various ownership schemes, this study allows for the inclusion of timeshare and fractional ownership in the sample. However, these ownership structures will be identified as such.

Definition of Model Variables

The variables in the model include place dependence, place identity, visitation, word-of-mouth, and hosting. Place-dependence represents a type of attachment with a particular place because it satisfies needs better than other possible substitutes (Stokols & Shoemaker, 1981; Williams et al., 1992). Place identity refers to the elements of self that a person shares with the physical environment (Korpela, 1989; Proshansky et al., 1983). Place dependence captures the functional or behavioral aspect of place while place identity captures the affective and cognitive aspect of place. Visitation is a measurement of behavior regarding the frequency of visits, number of trips, length of stay, and total visits. Word-of-mouth advertising refers to any target object (e.g. company, brand, destination) communicated from one individual to another via some communication medium (e.g. voice, email, photos). Hosting is the practice of providing ones home as accommodations for guests.

Chapter Summary

Chapter 1 provided an overview of the research problem, the purpose of the study, the research questions, the research hypotheses, and the definitions of key terms. Chapter 2 provides a review of the literature related to second homes drawn from a diverse set of disciplines such as tourism, marketing, leisure, geography, and sociology. A review of the literature supporting the proposed model and theoretical foundation is developed in Chapter 2. In addition, the hypothesized model for the study is presented.

CHAPTER 2

LITERATURE REVIEW

Attention to second-home ownership appeared with some prevalence in research studies of the late 1960's and mid-1970s. This attention was the result of growth in the second home market in the U.S. (U.S. Census Bureau, 1968; Ragatz & Gelb, 1970). Attention to second homes was also apparent on a global scale. An edited book by Coppock (1977) titled *Second Homes: Curse or Blessing*, provided a collection of research from disciplines such as geography, sociology and environmental studies that addressed second homes from various perspectives and geographic locations around the world. A number of the studies compiled by Coppock were generated by government agencies in regions seeing a growing portion of second homes. The estimated count of second homes by researchers was upwards of 10 million homes globally in the 1970's, while estimates in the U.S. were approximately 3 million such homes during the same period. There were certainly discrepancies in the precise definition of what constituted a second home (Ragatz & Gelb, 1970). These discrepancies are understandable considering the composite nature of these types of homes such as recreational, seasonal, retirement, and investment.

The following discussion reviews the literature across multiple disciplines as it relates to second-home ownership. Tourism provides the overall framework for looking at second-home ownership in this study. In particular, this research is interested in how

second-home owner attachment to a destination drives visitation, promotion, and hosting. A majority of the literature specific to second homes and their owners deals with the economic, social, and environmental impact on the host community.

Second-home owners are an unusual phenomenon when compared to the traditional tourist versus resident dichotomy (Cohen, 1974). Convention and visitor bureaus frequently ignore this growing population, although calls for their inclusion in tourism studies have occurred for decades (Bieger, Beritelli, and Weinert, 2007; Deller et al., 1997; Go, 1988; Ragatz & Gelb, 1970;). After all, second-home owners are recurring visitors.

Second-home owners are an important element in understanding tourism for a region because of their part-time residency, their investment in the community, and the accommodation alternatives that they provide themselves and other visitors. These part-time residents have made an obvious commitment to the community by purchasing a home there, but their connection to the destination and their travel behaviors and expenditures remain unknown, particularly in an international context. The number of nights spent at a second home may be less frequent than a primary residence, but the owner's preferred location may be that of the second home. The primary residence may serve as the means to an end, such as a place of employment that provides the income necessary to own a second home in a desired location. Thus, second-home owners are attached to the destination of their second home. Interestingly, a second-home "may be owned, paid for, and used for as long, or longer" than a primary residence (Stewart & Stynes, 1994, p.73). However, destinations have not seemed to embrace the second-home owner as a tourist.

Second-home Studies

Jaakson (1986) conducted a qualitative study and identified many of the broad themes that described the meaning of the second home to the owner. Many of these themes are similar to community attachment, place attachment, and sense of place constructs. Her findings reveal a deep connection between second-home owners and the host community. Gartner (1987) researched the perception of property owners in regard to the environmental impact of recreational home developments. His research revealed that second-home owners were interested in sustainability in order to preserve the current state of the landscape at the time of purchase, or to reduce future development, thus protecting their investment. On the economic front, Strapp (1988) even found evidence that second homes should be included as a factor in the resort cycle proposed by Butler (1980), because they counteract the stagnation and decline stage common with an aging tourist destination. These studies highlight the broad spectrum of second home research as it relates to the social, environmental, and economic impact. A large portion of this literature comes from rural sociology research because most of the communities impacted by second homes are rural, amenity rich communities. Ragatz and Cordell (1980) created an extensive bibliography of vacation home studies that addressed these three areas: social, economic, and environmental.

Social Impact

The research regarding the social impact of second homes takes a number of different directions because of the various perspectives taken by the researchers. One common perspective is host community perceptions of second-home owners. This perception almost always views second-home owners as outsiders. Stedman (2006)

noted the inherent biases in this type of research and provided evidence that second-home owners are not outsiders in many of the rural regions of the Great Lakes. The seasonal residents of these regions had longer tenure in the region than full-time residents and an extensive history and interaction with the region. However, nearly all second-home research classifies part-time residents as outsiders. This type of tenure is not expected in the context of second-home ownership in Costa Rica. The international makeup of second-home owners in Costa Rica makes them clear outsiders. After all, the freedom to travel to and from the destination requires them to enter through secured borders and customs, a reminder of their outsider status.

The impact of an international setting on place attachment is unclear. There are certainly more risks and hurdles in foreign homeownership as opposed to domestic ownership in the U.S. and Canada. This is evidenced by the numerous guides for buying foreign property in these countries. In addition, the second-home ownership phenomena in Costa Rica is relatively new, so the length of affiliation with the destination is thus shorter than that revealed in much of the place attachment and second-home research addressed in this discussion. Even more, the setting although rural, is different than the domestic lake and mountain regions so frequently studied in the literature. Contrary to many previous studies, newcomers were shown to have strong attachment as revealed in a study by McCool and Martin (1994). According to the authors, this finding suggested that length of residency was not an antecedent to place attachment for newcomers, hinting that people can become attached very rapidly.

Research by Girard and Gartner (1993) suggested that second-home owners influence their host community facilities, services, and socio-cultural traditions. They

further suggested that second-home owners might be as important as permanent residents in shaping the direction of the community. In Costa Rica, some communities are almost entirely comprised of second homes. These findings challenge the goals of sustainable development outlined by Müller (2002).

Reeder and Brown (2005) conducted a study on rural counties in the U.S. that embraced recreation and tourism development. Population, recreation opportunities, and seasonal home counts were used to classify counties as non-metro recreation counties and non-metro counties. Between the 1990 and 2000 census, non-metro recreation counties realized higher population growth, an increase in education level attained, an increase in the numbers of physicians, and an increase in crime. These findings reveal the positive and negative impacts in regard to social issues. The findings also revealed a number of positive and negative economic implications such as increased wages, an increase in low paying service wages, and an increase in the cost of living for non-metro recreation counties.

Environmental Impact

Mottiar (2006) argued that the low occupancy rates coupled with higher expenditures by second-home owners provided evidence that second home development was a possible route to sustainable tourism. A growing number of researchers see a connection between second-home development and sustainability because of the lower occupancy rates of these accommodations (Gartner, 1987; Mottiar, 2006; Strapp, 1988). However, the link between second home development and sustainability is a polarizing issue. As noted by Gartner (1987), second homes are located in some of the most pristine areas and close to water. Although second-home owners remain in the area for shorter

periods of time, second-home owners and their guests stay in more environmentally sensitive areas. These findings reiterate the low occupancy associated with second homes. This availability creates a potential opportunity for growing tourism without additional accommodation development, hence the connection to sustainability.

One important item to consider is that vacation homes are a type of lodging accommodation (Go, 1988). Besides providing accommodation for their owners, vacation homes compete with traditional commercial lodging operations when owners rent them to other visitors. This can result in mixed outcomes for the host community, particularly when a community has a high second home to permanent resident ratio and low second-home utilization. For instance, Bieger, Beritelli, and Weinert (2007) conducted a study on second-home owners that did not let their homes. This study stirred interest because existing second home housing stock could have provided additional accommodations to a mountain resort region of Switzerland without commercial lodging development—a sustainable tourism issue. Their findings revealed that those that purchased a home later in life were less likely to host relatives and lease the home to others. However, home utilization increased with owner age.

Sustainable development was the theme of research by Müller (2002) in a study on second home ownership in Sweden. Frequently, the environmental issues are incorporated into the overall sustainable development research making attempts to create a balance between development and sensitivity to the host community. Müller (2002) provides an excellent summary of the sustainability issues by asserting that second-home development should have an overall positive economic impact on the local economy, minimize the environmental impact, and preserve local socio-cultural traditions. As

indicated by the list above, sustainability is difficult to address without including economic factors. Piga (2003) addressed the importance of land taxation in controlling tourism development through a case study of an enormous coastline project that included numerous hotels and residences. His findings revealed the complex balance necessary to benefit from tourism and minimize the exploitation of natural resources. These issues are highlighted by the negative viewpoint of second-home ownership by tourism bureaus. Many governments of a destination do not have public policy in place to address the impact of second-home development, while policy is in place to address commercial development.

Economic Impact

The economic impact of second homes concerns their impact on the actual communities in which the home resides. These concerns include the expenditures in the local community, the purchase of goods and services locally, the owners' intention of becoming a full-time resident, and the effects of second-homes on property taxes and land value. Second-home owners contribute to the host community economy through property taxes, sales taxes, and expenditures related to construction, retail, transportation, and tourism related activities (Girard & Gartner, 1993; Marcouiller et al., 1996; Ragatz & Gelb, 1970). The tax contribution can be rather large since vacation homeowners do not consume the same amount of public services as full-time residents (Anderson, 2006). In addition, Anderson found that many vacation homeowners pay a premium because of increased tax rates for vacation homes and their ineligibility for property tax credit programs. Other researchers found similar findings in regard to an increase in tax contributions to local governments by second homes (Deller et al., 1997; Fritz, 1982). In

addition, Fritz recognized the negative consequence of increased revenue contribution to local governments. That effect was an increase in the residential tax burden of full-time residents. Torres and Domínguez-Menchero (2006) created a model to measure the economic impact of second homes on local taxes. Their findings suggest that higher taxes in a destination are a result of seaside location, not second homes. This meant demand for the location of homes was driving up prices, not necessarily second-home owners.

There are a number of negative economic impacts on full-time residents that are attributed to the influx of second-home owners. Most of these relate to the financial discrepancies between the two groups. These are commonly realized by an overall increase in the cost of living for full-time residents of the host community. Mobility, aging, and wealth are all frequently cited as driving forces in the prevalence of second-home ownership today (National Association of Realtors, 2006).

Interestingly, the scenarios facing rural communities parallel the issues facing developing countries that are embracing recreation and tourism as a means of economic development. Like rural communities in the U.S., developing countries such as Costa Rica are seeing large numbers of second homes being developed. Residents from the U.S. and Canada are the predominant owners of these homes. Although negative social, economic, and environmental consequences are affiliated with second-home development, these owners and their residences represent a potential contribution to tourism because of repeat visitation and low utilization of their homes.

Second-homes and Tourism

The term second-home tourism captures the notion of tourist-like behaviors related to second-home visitation. This is the viewpoint taken in this particular study. Previous research has certainly addressed the visitation to second-homes as tourism (Go, 1988; Jaakson, 1986). Go recognized the importance of accounting for vacation homes as an alternative to commercial lodging. He noted that many destinations have more second-home bedrooms available than hotel rooms. This has certainly gained attention in Europe as highlighted by a special issue of the *International Journal of Hospitality Management* (2007) focused exclusively on self-catering accommodations such as second-homes.

A tourism view of second homes is prevalent in the literature, especially since the concentration of these homes is common in recreational and resort destinations. Second homes are a well-established phenomenon in coastal and lake regions. Much of the research discussed in previous sections focused on recreational areas in Scandinavia and the Great Lake Regions of the U.S. and Canada (Gartner, 1987; Girard & Gartner, 1993; Jaakson, 1986; Jorgensen & Stedman, 2001; Müller, 2002; Stedman, 2006; Tress, 2002).

One clear outcome of second-home development is controversy. These homes and their owners have positive and negative implications to the host community. These implications expand across economic, social, and environmental platforms. But unlike previous studies, this study chooses to focus on the owners of second-homes and their attachment to the destination as a driver of promotional behaviors. Previous research by Jaakson (1986) provides the starting point for building the theoretical foundation

necessary for proceeding. Most importantly, second homes are located in areas that have meaning to their owners.

Theoretical Foundation

Until recently, the primary shortfall in much of the research discussed above was the lack of a theoretical foundation. One implicit area of agreement across this multi-disciplinary body of research is the meaning of place associated with the location of the second home. Places have meaning. The qualitative research by Jaakson (1986) highlights the meaning of a second-home and its locale to the owners. Environmental psychology has long recognized that the environment impacts humans physically and psychologically (Cuba & Hummon, 1993; Feldman, 1990; Kasarda & Janowitz, 1974; Low & Altman 1992; Proshansky, 1978; Proshansky et al., 1983; Stokols & Shumaker 1981; Theodori, 2000; Tuan 1977; Urry, 1995). Even more, humans attach meaning to places. One approach to understanding second home ownership is through sense of place theory. Tuan (1977) conceptualized that places have meaning because of human experience, social relationships, emotions, and thought. Place thus refers to "the physical setting, human activities, and human social and psychological processes rooted in the setting" (Stedman, 2002, p. 562).

Another theory that contributes to the explanation of the second home phenomenon is attachment theory. Attachment theory suggests that individuals try to remain close to things—people, places, and objects—as they develop a positive connection with them. A negative association often results in creating distance with the people, places, and objects. An important element of attachment is that closeness and distance are not necessarily spatial, but also emotional and functional.

Place Attachment

Attachment constructs such as place attachment, place identity, place dependence, and community attachment have been used to research the meaning of places to humans. Low and Altman (1992) defined place attachment as a positive emotional bond to a particular place. Williams, Patterson, Roggenbuck, and Watson (1992) extended the definition of place attachment to include a functional and cognitive bond with a place, in addition to the emotional bond outlined by Low and Altman. A similar construct related to place is community attachment. McCool and Martin (1994) defined community attachment as the extent and pattern of social participation and integration into a community along with one's sentiment or affect toward the community.

One missing element of this discussion—as it relates to second homes—is ownership. Interestingly, ownership serves as a predictor to attachment. Environmental psychology, geography, and leisure literatures frequently exclude ownership in the studies of attachment because of the focus on places such as parks and natural environments. However, research from sociology and psychology does not exclude ownership and possession, particularly as it relates to objects such as homes. In a study by Ringel and Finkelstein (1991), attachment to a neighborhood was predicted by homeownership and social-networks. Austin and Baba (1990) revealed similar links. Mere ownership presents a more positive outlook about the object of ownership (Beggan, 1992). People that own an object will view that object as more attractive. Ownership might help explain why McCool and Martin (1994) found that people living in tourist destinations have a strong sense of attachment and a short tenure of residency. This finding challenged an opposite perspective that showed length of residency was

positively associated with place attachment, suggesting that people could have strong place attachment without a long tenure with the place (Brown, Perkins, & Brown, 2003; Ringel & Finkelstein, 1991).

In the context of this study, place refers to the region in which the second home resides; thus in a tourism context, that place is referred to as a destination. Ownership of a second-home is therefore conceptualized as an attachment to the destination. This attachment is demonstrated by ownership of the second home itself, since the home serves as an opportunity for the owner to become closer to the meaning associated with the destination. Place attachment is an appropriate way of measuring the connection between a second-home owner and the location of their second home. Owning a home and visiting that home allows the owner and their guests to interact with the destination.

Significant progress has been made over the past two decades in revealing the dimensions of place attachment. Place-dependence (Stokols & Shumaker, 1981) and place identity (Proshansky, 1978) are what researchers currently understand as the construct's two components (Williams & Vaske, 2003). Place-dependence represents a type of attachment with a particular place because it satisfies needs better than other possible substitutes (Stokols & Shoemaker, 1981; Williams et al., 1992). Place identity refers to the elements of self that a person shares with the physical environment (Korpela, 1989; Proshansky et al., 1983). Place dependence captures the functional or behavioral aspect of place while place identity captures the affective and cognitive aspect of place. Although the dimensionality of the place attachment construct is still debated, a two dimensional model is prominent in the literature (Kyle et al., 2004a, 2004b, 2004c; Moore & Graefe, 1994; Stokols & Shumaker, 1981; Williams et al., 1992).

Several researchers have attempted to reveal an additional dimension with limited success. Bricker and Kerstetter (2000) identified lifestyle as a third dimension of place attachment. Lifestyle refers to the deep sense of attachment to a specific place and its connection to an individual's choices. Kyle, Graefe, Manning, and Bacon (2004b) examined involvement's relationship with place attachment. Involvement represents the degree to which an individual commits to an activity or product (Kyle et al., 2004a). Halpenny (2006) made attempts to factor out the emotional element of place attachment referred to as place affect. However, place affect loaded on place identity hindering efforts to distinguish a third dimension.

Jorgensen and Stedman (2001) provide evidence for a single combined scale of place attachment that included measures across conative, affective, and cognitive measures while Williams and Vaske (2003) provide evidence that supports the two-dimensional construct. Halpenny (2006) suggested that the differences between them were a result of the differences in the study settings as Williams and Vaske sampled across distinct regions as opposed to one setting.

Place Attachment and Second-home Ownership

Stedman (2002) suggests that conceptualizing place attachment from a social psychological foundation results in clearer terminology, specifiable relationships between empirical variables, and corresponding research questions that fill gaps in sense of place theory. Prior research reveals a number of important social psychological outcomes—satisfaction, attitude, motivation, and involvement—related to place attachment.

Jorgensen and Stedman (2001), in studying second-home owners, examined sense of place as an attitude toward a place. Their findings revealed that attitudes were an

appropriate method of addressing sense of place. Kyle, Abscher, and Graefe (2003) examined place attachment as a moderator of attitude toward recreation fees and spending preferences. Their findings showed that increases in place identity, a dimension of place attachment, were positively related to stronger positive attitudes toward the spending fee program and the use of that fee revenue. Halpenny (2006) examined place attachment and its relationship with pro-environmental behaviors. The results revealed that place attachment was a strong predictor of pro-environmental intentions for a specific place and a moderate predictor of general pro-environmental intentions. Building off place attachment, there appears to be several outcomes of interest as they relate to tourism promotion in the form of visitation, word-of-mouth, and hosting. The following discussion addresses the relevant literature involving these outcomes.

Visitation

One behavioral outcome of owning a second home is repeat visitation to the locale because it facilitates visitation and represents a commitment to the destination. In addition, repeat visitors were likely to have a longer length of stay (Lau & McKercher, 2004; Oppermann, 1997). Visitation has received a large portion of focus in the tourism literature, especially as it relates to first-timers versus repeat visitors. A good portion of research has also focused on expenditure levels between these two groups. Interestingly, the concept of destination loyalty has not received a significant amount of attention from a second-home perspective although repeat visitation is certainly a component of destination loyalty (Oppermann, 2000). More importantly, second-home owners might demonstrate a positive attitude toward the destination because of investment in a home. This addresses another important dimension of destination loyalty regarding attitude

(Baloglu, 2001). Vacation homeowners potentially represent someone that is loyal to a destination because of repeat visitation and investment in the destination.

Visitation is the goal of tourism promotion. Repeat visitation is an even more desirable outcome. Moore and Graefe (1994) linked length of visit and frequency of visits to place attachment, meaning that someone that has an attachment to a place is more likely to stay longer and visit again. Length of affiliation was also linked to place attachment (Lee, 2001; Lee & Allen, 1999; Williams et al., 1992). This variable represents the time that an individual is associated with a place; it is usually derived by taking the difference between the year of the most recent interaction with the destination and the year of the original interaction with the destination. This finding suggests that the longer an affiliation with a place, the stronger the attachment. However, McCool and Martin (1994) provided evidence that challenged the relationship between length of residency and attachment, suggesting that strong levels of place attachment could occur without a long tenure with the place. Halpenny (2006) supported the relationship between place attachment and visitation. Trip frequency, trip duration, and total number of trips all showed a strong positive relationship with place attachment.

Additional support for the relationship between place attachment and visitation is found in research addressing repeat visitors. First-time visitor versus repeat visitor comparisons have revealed differences in length of stay, expenditures, motivations for travel, tourist activities, and information sources. Interestingly, the longer length of stay does not result in the participation in more activities. Repeat visitors tend to participate in fewer activities but seek more in-depth experiences such as recreational experiences

and visiting friends and relatives (Lau & McKercher, 2004; McKercher, 1996). Repeat visitors were also less likely to visit the iconic attractions.

In regard to second-home owner expenditures, evidence exists that vacation homeowners spend more money at the destination than traditional tourists (Marcouiller et al., 1996; Mottiar, 2006). This finding is important as it relates to tourist expenditures. However, this finding is convoluted by first-time versus repeat visitor studies when a single visit is used as the unit of analysis (Algegre & Juaneda, 2006; Li, Cheng, Kim, & Petrick, 2007), because these studies reveal that first time visitors spend more than repeat visitors. However, these studies do not distinguish between a repeat visitors accommodation type such as vacation home versus commercial lodging establishment or the cumulative stay of a repeat visitor within a given year. Previous research demonstrates that distinguishing by type of accommodation shows clear differences regarding length of stay and overall trip expenditures. Visitation, measured by length of stay and frequency of visits, is important as it relates to expenditures, satisfaction, loyalty, and marketing.

Mottiar (2006) provided a comparison between vacation homeowners and traditional tourists across various accommodation types. Those tourists renting a house and those staying with friends and relatives that were also holidaying there had the highest expenditures. Those owning a holiday home had the lowest expenditures. Furthermore, vacation homeowners had non-tourism expenditures related to household goods and services. These initial comparisons were made across a single visit. But taking into account overall visitation during the year, second-home owners clearly spent more than traditional tourists. The holiday homeowner spent 6 times more than the

traditional tourist when accounting for average nights per year. Thus second-home owners spend more money than traditional tourists because they stay more nights in the destination. Mottiar (2006) was not the only researcher to report these findings (Marcouiller et al., 1996). The general finding is that people that stay longer spend more money in the host community.

The important components of visitation as they relate to second-home ownership include how many days per year an owner visits. Previous research on second-home owners has revealed a longer duration of stay than a traditional tourist. According to the National Association of Realtors (2006), second-home owners in the U.S. stayed a median of 39 nights per year at their second home. In addition, owners frequently make multiple trips per year, especially as they relate to the proximity of their primary residence. There are several factors that relate to visitation frequency and duration of stay such as distance from primary residence and destination type. Greater distance between homes results in longer stays, but less frequent trips.

The visitation patterns of second-home owners make them knowledgeable about the destination. This knowledge of the destination and ownership of an accommodation make them likely promoters of the destination to others. In addition, their previous experience plays an important role in future trips (Lau & McKercher, 2004).

Word-of-mouth

Word-of-mouth advertising refers to any target object (e.g. company, brand, destination) communicated from one individual to another via some communication medium (e.g. voice, email, photos). Research in marketing has sought to identify the antecedents to word-of-mouth advertising because it is the most important determinant in

forming a relationship with a product (Reichheld, 2003). Satisfaction/dissatisfaction with previous purchase experiences has received most of the attention in the marketing literature related to word-of-mouth advertising, but the results are ambiguous (Brown, Barry, Dacin, & Gunst, 2005). The relationship between word-of-mouth and satisfaction/dissatisfaction have not been confirmed as indirect or direct. One area that has seen less ambiguous results is consumer commitment.

According to Brown, Berry, Dacin, and Gunst (2005), commitment is the likely culprit for causing the equivocal findings regarding satisfaction/dissatisfaction. They found that consumer commitment mediates word-of-mouth behaviors based on levels of satisfaction/dissatisfaction. Commitment refers to the desire to maintain a valued relationship. This construct closely resembles the place attachment construct used to conceptualize second-home ownership at the destination and visitation characteristics. Essentially, place attachment and visitation collectively represent the desire to maintain a relationship—commitment—with that particular destination.

Identification serves as another important factor in understanding word-of-mouth behaviors. Saying positive things about a product to others is a means of expressing positive self-identity, particularly if the consumer identifies with the product (Arnett, German, & Hunt, 2003; Brown et al., 2005). Identification is also captured in the place identity dimension of place attachment. The consumer identification conceptualization supports the positive relationship hypothesized between place attachment and word-of-mouth.

Reid and Reid (1993) were some of the earliest researchers to connect visitation, repeat visitation, and word-of-mouth promotion in the context of tourism. Similarly, the

owner of a second-home might promote the destination through word-of-mouth messages. Because the second-home owner has experience and a place of residence at the destination, the information provided by the second-home owner in the form of word-of-mouth advertising has more credibility to a potential visitor. This influence is similar to what a local host might have on visiting friends and relatives. There is instant credibility associated with the messenger because of their experience with the destination. Li, Cheng, Kim, and Petrick (2007) found that repeat visitors were more likely than first timers to provide positive word-of-mouth messages.

Word-of-mouth advertising is repeatedly cited as the most powerful form of advertising (Brown et al., 2005; Taylor, 2005). In addition, senders of word-of-mouth advertising appear to lack a material interest in the promotion of the product because the intention of selling for monetary profit is absent. However, senders of word-of-mouth advertising always get something out of sending their messages, e.g. gratification, self-expression. Although the medium in which messages are sent has changed over the years, the motivations and mechanics of word-of-mouth adverting have not.

Messenger motivations for word-of-mouth communication fall into four main categories according to Dichter (1966). They include product-involvement, self-involvement, other-involvement, and message-involvement. Product-involvement recognizes that experience with the product alone is not enough. The experience must be shared with others or a tension will exist between the experience and the current state of mind. As an example, imagine returning from a vacation without the ability to share the photos and experiences of the trip. Self-involvement captures the fulfilling of personal emotional needs such as the self-identity, self-concept, and self-confirmation. The other-

involvement category includes the rewards from sharing the experience. The word-of mouth message is seen as a gift to the receiver. The final category of sender motivation called message-involvement refers to the resemblance of commercialized advertising into the word-of-mouth message. This category recognizes that advertising has penetrated the mind of the sender and that the word-of-mouth message includes elements of that advertising. Hence, a second-home owner is an appropriate target for promotional messages by a convention and visitors bureau.

The motivation to listen to word-of-mouth messages is particularly important to the organization producing the product because they want the listener to buy the product referred to in the positive word-of-mouth exchange. The findings by Dichter (1966) reveal that the relationship between the speaker and listener as framed by the listener and the relationship between the speaker and product as framed by the listener are the most important in revealing listener intentions. The listener is primarily concerned with whether or not the sender is interested in the well being of the listener and the listener as a person. The importance of this relationship between sender and listener is recognized in the research by focusing on communication with friends and relatives. The outcome of interest is the intention to buy (or visit in this context) after listening to the message. Of the seven influential groups that explained the intention to buy, the sender of the message by people of goodwill (24.5%), sharers of interest (18%), connoisseurs (10%), and bearers of tangible evidence (16.5%) provided the greatest explanation for intentions to buy. These factors could feasibly represent the characteristics of second-home owners regarding their destination.

Perhaps the greatest challenge in word-of-mouth communication is the ability to measure the concept (Taylor, 2005). This challenge might be due to the desire of companies to influence word-of-mouth. The power behind word-of-mouth is its influence in the decision making process. Reichheld (2003) found that the best way to measure word-of-mouth advertising was to ask how likely the existing customer was to recommend the product or service to a friend or colleague. In the context of tourism, the variables of interest include the recommendation of the destination and any related activities and services.

Hosting

Much of the current research on tourism misses a key motivation in that "studies have mostly neglected issues of sociality and copresence and overlooked how much tourism is concerned with (re)producing social relations" (Larsen et al., 2006, 245). Sociality refers to the desire for companionship. Copresence refers to the need for being present in the same place. Under this viewpoint, tourism is a mechanism for meeting the need of humans to be physically together in a social setting, especially with friends and relatives. Tourism is an authentic way of connecting people. Thus, social network theory provides one explanation for the hosting behavior of second-home owners. One way that relationships are rejuvenated is by bringing friends and family members from past experiences together for new experiences.

Second-homes provide the setting for these relationships to be rekindled as the owners host visiting friends and relatives. Previous research has addressed the role that permanent residents play in hosting visiting friends and relatives. Visiting friends and family is a common motivation for travel (Lehto, Morrison, O'Leary, 2001; McKercher,

1996; Moscardo & O'Leary, 1995; Moscardo, Pearce, Morrison, Green, & O'Leary, 2000). Braunlich (1995) found that the visiting friends and relatives (VFR) market was a significant market for hoteliers. Even more, the contribution from hosting visiting friends and relatives was significant to overall tourism as measured by the multiplier effect (Young, Corsun, & Balogul, 2007). This effect was calculated to estimate the contribution hosts and their visiting friends and relatives made to tourism expenditures. Their findings lend support to the argument that second-home owners and their second home may even be a more significant contributor to tourism than year-round residents because hosting does not conflict with typical responsibilities of a primary resident such as employment and other daily activities. After all, the main purpose of a second-home is leisure pursuits. Diminished responsibilities allow second-home owners to host more visitors. The part-time status of the homeowner also allows for the accommodation of guests in the absence of the owner. In the context of this study, hosting means that friends or relatives (1) came to spend time with the second-home owner or stay at their property while visiting the destination, or (2) came to visit the destination for other purposes but extended the stay to spend time with the second-home owner or stay at their property. To recapitulate, the owner and the home can serve as host. The home itself facilitates a less expensive alternative to paid accommodations. Frequently, the second-home is provided at a reduced cost or no cost to the visitor. This type of hosting may be in combination with or without the second-home owner. In some circumstances, the home is not used as an accommodation for the visiting friends and relatives, but the owner still serves as a host to the destination by promoting activities and accompanying them on excursions.

Hypothesized Model

The following discussion provides the hypothesized model for the relationships between the constructs previously discussed. The beginning point in the model is place attachment. Place attachment serves as the independent variable. Stedman (2001) is one of the researchers responsible for using a sociological lens to look at second-home ownership. His recent publications use place attachment as a construct for understanding second-home owners.

Second-home owners are expected to demonstrate high levels of place attachment. This attachment is hypothesized as a driver of positive outcomes –in the form of repeat visitation, word-of-mouth, and the hosting of visiting friends and relatives— for a destination. Home ownership at a destination provides for unique visitation characteristics that resemble both residents and tourists. This attachment to the destination and repeat visitation leads to positive word-of-mouth promotion about the destination. In addition, second-home ownership provides hosting opportunities for other visitors such as friends and relatives. The model suggests that these behaviors are driven by place attachment. Visitation, word-of-mouth promotion, and hosting are desirable behaviors to destination planners. If second-home owners exhibit these behaviors, they would serve as drivers of tourism promotion.

Based on the available literature, the integrated model of Second-home Owner Tourism Promotion shown in the figure below presents the relationships among the related variables including place identity, place dependence, visitation, word-of-mouth, and hosting. The model provides the hypothesized relationships between the constructs (see Figure 1).

The following hypotheses were developed to test the structural relationship in the model. Place identity has a positive direct effect on visitation. Place dependence has a positive direct effect on visitation. Place identity has a positive direct effect on word-of-mouth. Place identity has a positive direct effect on hosting. Visitation has a positive direct effect on word-of-mouth. Visitation has a positive direct effect on hosting. Place identity has a positive indirect effect on word-of-mouth mediated by visitation. Place dependence has a positive indirect effect on word-of-mouth mediated by visitation. Place identity has an indirect effect on hosting mediated by visitation. Place dependence has an indirect effect on hosting mediated by visitation.

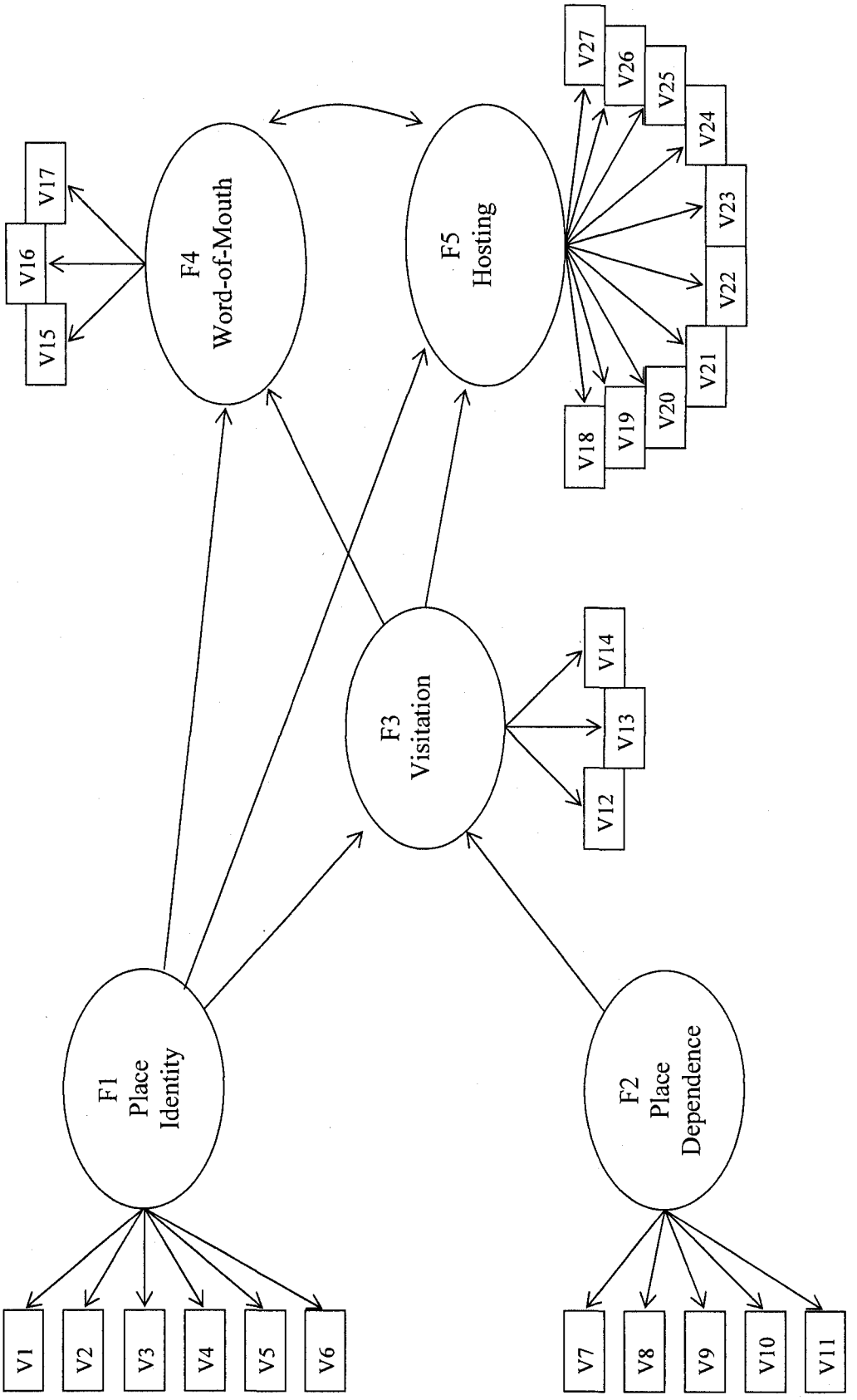

Figure 1. Proposed Model

CHAPTER 3

METHODOLOGY

The purpose of this study was to test the proposed tourism promotion model of second-home owners. The following section discusses the methodology proposed to investigate the effects of place attachment on visitation, word-of-mouth promotion, and hosting. The first section discusses the proposed setting for the study. The second section discusses the sampling and data collection procedures for conducting this study. The third section provides an overview of questionnaire development. The fourth section provides the operational definitions of the variables in the model and their actual measurement. The final section describes the forthcoming data analysis.

Study Setting

The proposed setting for this study was Costa Rica. The country of 4.1 million people is nestled between Nicaragua to the north, Panama to the south, the Pacific Ocean to the west, and the Caribbean Sea to the east. Costa Rica represents a destination whose people and government have embraced tourism as a primary industry for economic development (Costa Rica Tourist Board, 2006). According to the Costa Rican Investment Promotion Agency (CINDE) (2005), a non-profit organization of public interest responsible for promoting investment in Costa Rica, the U.S. is the largest source of foreign direct investment in Costa Rica. Furthermore, tourism is the third largest

recipient of this investment behind industry and agriculture. The country is seeing rapid foreign direct investment in the lodging and housing sector as well. One clear outcome of this development is a heavy investment in second-home ownership by U.S. and Canadian residents.

Costa Rica has a public agency responsible for the overall promotion of the country as a tourist destination. In addition to overall promotion, the Costa Rica Tourist Board (ICT) monitors tourists to Costa Rica on a monthly basis. Costa Rica has about 1.7 million visitors per year. Approximately 850,000 are from the U.S. and Canada (Costa Rica Tourist Board, 2006). ICT has estimated second-home ownership at about 3% of U.S. and Canadian visitors. ICT has a negative outlook on second-home owners because they do not see how second-home owners contribute to tourism (Cheri Young, personal interview, April 2007). None of ICT's promotional materials attempt to engage second-home owners. These elements make the following questions appropriate: What is the impact of the growing second home market in Costa Rica? Are second-home owners more like tourists or residents? And how might they contribute to a destination in the form of tourism promotion and facilitation? Previous research has demonstrated that second-home owners are attached to the place where their second home resides. This attachment may act as a catalyst for increased visitation, promotion of the destination, and the hosting of additional visitors. For these reasons, a study in this setting was appropriate for examining the proposed model and relationships concerning the contribution of second-home owners to a destination.

Sampling and Data Collection

The sampling of North American visitors to Costa Rica was proposed in three stages. The first stage of the process was the screening of potential participants. The second stage was the completion of the web-based survey. The third stage was the computer assisted telephone interview (CATI). The sample population for this study consisted of departing passengers to the U.S. or Canada from two airports in Costa Rica: the Daniel Oduber Quiros International Airport in the city of Liberia and the Juan Santamaria International Airport in the city of San Jose. The survey population consisted of participants that indicated the U.S. or Canada was their country of residence and identified the primary purpose of their trip as leisure. Residents of the U.S. and Canada that indicated ownership of a home in Costa Rica were asked to participate in the second-home survey developed for this study.

Procedures

The first stage was intended to generate the survey population by screening potential participants. The original intention was to collect data in July because it represented a high visitation period. The combined outbound passenger population of U.S. and Canadian residents in July was approximately 75,000 passengers according to 2004 and 2005 passenger counts reported by ICT (Costa Rica Tourist Board, 2006). Information regarding name, phone number, email address, accommodations, and length of stay in each accommodation were collected by ICT representatives using the intercept method at the departure gates (see Appendix I). This procedure served as a screening mechanism for participation in the web-based portion of the survey. ICT conducts these airport intercepts on a monthly basis, so their presence in the airports is not unusual.

Historically, the participation rate in the intercept interview is over 90 percent. This high response rate is due to small departure gates, limited food and shopping areas, and the experience of the ICT researchers. The intercept period was proposed to begin in July and continue until approximately 10,000 qualifying participants agreed to complete the web-based survey. For their willingness to participate, participants received an envelope that contained scenic landscape postcards of Costa Rica. All willing participants that met these criteria were invited to complete the web-based visitor survey.

The second stage of data collection was the web-based survey. Although 10,000 willing respondents was the goal of the intercept period, delays in starting the intercepts limited the total collection period. There were approximately 8,000 people intercepted between September and December. These respondents that fit the criteria from the intercept at the airport were asked to complete the web-based survey. The outside of the envelope contained the password for accessing the web-based survey. The web-based survey had two sections. The first section was given to all participants. This section was meant to capture data concerning the characteristics, attitudes, and behaviors of North American tourists to Costa Rica. The second section was given to second-home owners only. The relevant elements of the visitor survey and the entire second-home survey are provided in the appendices (see Appendix II). According to ICT, the typical response rate to web-based surveys using similar techniques was 30 percent. Of the 8,000 intercepts that agreed to participate, over 2,000 completed the survey. This resulted in a response rate of roughly 25%.

A first, second, and third email reminder with a link to the survey was sent to participants intercepted at the airport. Those who do not respond after three e-mail

reminders were to be considered as non-responders. Originally, an additional method was proposed to measure non-responders. The third stage in the data collection process was intended to provide a method for examining non-response bias. Non-responders were to be contacted using computer-aided telephone interviewing (CATI). The purpose of CATI was to sample non-responders to see if there were differences between the respondents of the web-based survey and those that did not respond to the web-based survey. Those that responded to a telephone prompt would be compared to the web-based survey respondents. If no statistically significant differences were detected, then the researchers could be confident that all respondents were representative of the original 10,000 people from the sampling population list produced from the airport intercept. Due to delays in starting the airport intercept, the CATI portion did not take place. Instead, the sample was deemed a convenient sample and a modification was proposed to reach the desired sample size. These modifications are discussed in the next chapter.

Sample Size

The desired sample size was 200 second-home owner participants. Of the 10,000 targeted participants that fit the criterion for participation, approximately 300 were expected to be second-home owners in Costa Rica. This percentage was determined from previous ICT intercepts conducted at the airport. A response rate of 66% or higher was needed to achieve the necessary sample size of 200 participants. This is well above the typical 30% response rate achieved on previous studies. However, those studies did not offer additional incentives besides the postcards given to willing participants at the airport. To achieve the desired response rate, prize incentives were proposed to increase the response rate of second-home owners on the first, second, and third email reminders.

In the end, the decision was made to only use the three email reminders and develop an alternative sample to meet the desired sample size. Non-response bias was not addressed.

Reaching the desired sample size was a concern. Two additional alternatives were considered to reach the desired sample size. First, CATI could be utilized by targeting second-home owners identified from the intercept at the airport. Thus, second-home owners that had not completed the web-based survey would be solicited for participation via CATI. However, this was a costly endeavor at approximately $50 per respondent. In addition, the number of willing participants intercepted at the airport that might own a second-home in Costa Rica could have been too small.

The second alternative to reach the desired sample size was to solicit participation from management companies of vacation properties in Costa Rica. This plan would target the clients of vacation property companies. Willing companies would be asked to send the web-based survey link to their U.S. and Canadian clients that own a second-home in Costa Rica. These companies and clients were easily identified on the Internet by their vacation home advertisements. A number of these organizations had already been identified. This group of homeowners was originally targeted as the pilot study participants. Access to these homeowners was achievable through the property management company. Two of the organizations considered for possible participation were the VRBO and Home Away. These two organizations represent the largest vacation rental management companies in the U.S. Each company represents several hundred second-home owners in Costa Rica. Another organization with good potential was Casa Canada. This member organization represents expatriates in Costa Rica with an interest in becoming citizens. The organization provided guidance in becoming a legal resident

in Costa Rica. These potential groups were originally targeted as the pilot study participants. In the end, the pilot study was conducted using a web-based survey sent to second-home owners that belonged to an online community of foreigners that owned homes in Costa Rica.

IRB Approval

The Institutional Review Board (IRB) provided approval for the study with ICT. The research received exempt status. An additional IRB approval was granted for the pilot study (see Appendix III). An IRB modification was required during the data collection period; this is discussed in the following Chapter.

Questionnaire Development

The web-based survey instrument collected data concerning the constructs and variables identified in the proposed model. The main categories of information collected on the survey included descriptive variables related to the homeowner and the actual home in Costa Rica, the place attachment scale, visitation variables, the word-of-mouth scale, and the hosting scale. The full survey is presented in the appendices (see Appendix II). Some of the questions were taken from the general survey being administered to all U.S. and Canadian visitors, thus duplication of questions on demographics was avoided.

The questionnaire was developed in a multi-stage process. Initial questions were borrowed from existing scales, generated from the literature, or created by the researcher to address the relevant constructs. Secondly, an extensive review was conducted with ICT project managers for face validity. In addition, a pre-test was administered to a group of graduate students in an advanced statistical course to further refine the instrument through comments and suggestions.

Following an extensive review of the survey items by the dissertation committee, undergraduate students from various hospitality and tourism courses completed the scales to allow the researcher to measure the reliability of scale items. Next, a pilot study was conducted on an appropriate population of second-home owners to test place attachment, visitation, word-of-mouth and hosting constructs for construct validity. Exploratory factor analysis and reliability analysis were conducted on the hosting items from the pilot study to reduce the number of scale items without sacrificing reliability (Hair, Anderson, Tatham, & Black, 1998). The selected items representing the constructs were used in the final survey. Verification of the reliability and dimensions of the place attachment scale were also reviewed in the pilot study. The pilot study was administered to second-home owners via a web-based survey specific to the measurement items.

Operational Definitions of the Variables

This section provides details of how the proposed variables in the model were measured. The original model contained four constructs. Place attachment, visitation, word-of-mouth, and hosting. Place attachment has two dimensions: place identity and place dependence.

Measurement of Place Attachment

The place attachment scale was adopted from Williams and Vaske (2003) in which the psychometric properties of the scale were assessed. The proposed scale was a modified version of the 16-item scale used in their analysis. The scale was measured by 11 items across two dimensions. The place identity scale contained 6 items. The place dependence scale contained 5 items. Cronbach's alpha coefficients for these items ranged from .81 to .94 in the Williams and Vaske study. The researchers tested the

reliability of the scale across multiple parks in the U.S. The original scale was comprised of 16 items, but the items with a Cronbach's alpha coefficient below .8 were removed. The results demonstrated that the dimensions of place attachment could be measured with as few as 4-items per dimension if necessary. To demonstrate construct validity, Williams and Vaske used the criterion variables of perceived familiarity, number of visits within a 12-month period, and specialness of the place to demonstrate convergent validity. The scale was developed over a series of studies (Bricker & Kerstetter, 2000; Halpenny, 2006; Moore & Graefe, 1994; Williams, Patterson, Roggenbuck, & Watson, 1992; Williams & Vaske, 2003). For this study, each item was measured along a 7-point Likert scale anchored with 1 representing strongly disagree to 7 representing strongly agree (see Table 2).

Measurement of Visitation

Measurement items such as frequency, duration, and total overnights stays were used to measure visitation to a destination within a given time period such as a month, season, year, or even lifetime. For this study, visitation was measured by 3 items addressing the average number of trips per year (frequency), the average length of stay per trip (duration), and average days spent at a destination within a one-year period (total). The year represents a general notion, not specific dates (see Table 3).

Measurement of Word-of-Mouth

The word-of-mouth scale measured the second-home owners' participation in promotional behaviors of the destination. The word-of-mouth scale was taken from Price and Arnould (1999) and contains 3 items. Cronbach's alpha coefficients for these three items ranged from .95 to .97. The scale items were slightly modified to fit the destination

context. The measurement items address the most important element of word-of-mouth behavior: recommendation to others (Reichheld, 2003). Each item was measured along a 7-point Likert scale anchored with 1 representing strongly disagree to 7 representing strongly agree (see Table 4).

Table 2

Measurement of Place Attachment Construct

Exogenous Variable	Observed Variable	Scale Items
Place Identity	PI-1	I feel X is part of me.
	PI-2	X is very special to me.
	PI-3	I identify strongly with X.
	PI-4	I am very attached to X.
	PI-5	Visiting X says a lot about who I am.
	PI-6	X means a lot to me.
Place Dependence	PD-1	X is the best place for what I like to do.
	PD-2	No other place can compare to X.
	PD-3	I get more satisfaction out of visiting X than any other destination.
	PD-4	Doing what I do in X is more important to me than doing it in any other destination.
	PD-5	I wouldn't substitute any other destination for doing the types of things I do in X.

Table 3

Measurement of Visitation

Endogenous Variable	Observed Variable	Measurement
Visitation	V-1	On average, how many trips per year do you take to X?
	V-2	On average, how many days per trip do you spend in X?
	V-3	On average, how many days per year do you spend in X?

Table 4

Measurement of Word-of-Mouth Construct

Endogenous Variable	Observed Variable	Scale Items
Word-of-Mouth	WOM-1	I would recommend visiting X to someone who seeks my advice.
	WOM-2	I say positive things about X to other people.
	WOM-3	I would recommend visiting X to others.

Measurement of Hosting

Hosting is a construct that was developed to capture an individual's attitude and behavior towards accommodating visiting friends and relatives at a destination. The

hosting items listed below represent a pool of items used in the creation of the hosting scale (see Table 5). The concept of hosting was borrowed from the frequent occurrence of providing accommodations to visiting friends and relatives by residents of the host community (Lehto, Morrison, O'Leary, 2001; McKercher, 1996; Morrison & O;Leary, 1995; Pennington-Gray, 2003; Young, Corsun, & Baloglu, 2007). Items were examined for their face validity. A pre-test of the hosting scale was done to test the reliability of the items. In addition, a pilot study was used to test the reliability of the items. From the pilot study, a factor analysis was done to determine if the hypothesized dimensions of attitude and behavior hold.

Table 5

Measurement of Hosting

Endogenous Variable	Observed Variable	Scale Items
Hosting	H-1	I like others to stay with me in my home during their visit to X.
	H-2	I encourage friends and family to stay in my home when visiting X.
	H-3	I offer my home as a lodging alternative to visiting friends and relatives.
	H-4	Sharing my home in X with others is one of the reasons for owning it.
	H-5	Friends and family should stay in my home when visiting X.

Endogenous Variable	Observed Variable	Scale Items
	H-6	I invite others to stay with me at my home in X.
	H-7	I maintain a guest room for visiting friends and relatives.
	H-8	I host guests overnight in my home on most of my trips to X.
	H-9	I regularly host overnight guests in my home in X.
	H-10	I provide my home as accommodations for friends and family visiting X.

A pilot test was performed on the constructs to test reliability of the items, to reduce the number of items used in the final scale, and to provide evidence of construct validity before the proposed study took place in Costa Rica.

Data Analysis Method

Structural equation modeling (SEM) was proposed as the primary technique for testing the theoretical model. SEM allows for the simultaneous analysis of relationships proposed in the model. The fit of the proposed model was tested using AMOS software. To test the hypothesized relationships, path coefficients, t-values, and significance levels were calculated. The results provide specific information on the contribution of place attachment to visitation, word-of-mouth, and hosting. In addition, the results provide specific information on second-home owner promotional behaviors related to actual

visitation, word-of-mouth, and hosting at the destination. For the overall model, a number of goodness of fit indices such as RMSEA, CFI, and NNFI were examined. Model coefficients showed what percentage of variance in visitation, promotion, and hosting was explained by place identity and place dependence. In addition, model coefficients showed what percentage of variance in promotion and hosting was explained by visitation.

Sample size plays an important role in the estimation and interpretation of SEM results because of the estimation of sampling error. Hair, Anderson, Tatham, and Black (1998) note four important considerations in determining sample size. These four items relate to model misspecification, model size, estimation procedures, and departures from normality. A sample size of 200-plus second-home owners was targeted.

Table 6 provides a summary of the research hypotheses. There were six hypotheses concerning direct effects.

Table 6

Hypotheses of Structural Relationships

Hypotheses	Relationships
H1:	Place identity has a positive direct effect on visitation.
H2:	Place identity has a positive direct effect on word-of-mouth.
H3:	Place identity has a positive direct effect on hosting.
H4:	Place dependence has a positive direct effect on visitation.
H5:	Visitation has a positive direct effect on word-of-mouth.
H6:	Visitation has a positive direct effect on hosting.

Chapter Summary

Chapter 3 presented the methodology to be utilized to conduct the study and test the proposed model. An overview of the study setting, data collection and sampling techniques, questionnaire development, operational definitions and measurements, and data analysis methods were provided. The chapter concluded with a restatement of the research hypotheses. The following chapters discuss the data analysis.

CHAPTER 4

RESULTS

A detailed summary of the data analysis is provided in this chapter. The chapter begins with a discussion of the preliminary tests involving the measurement scales of word-of-mouth and hosting. The specific focus of these tests were to validate the word-of-mouth and hosting scales because the word-of-mouth scale was modified for this study and the hosting scale was developed specifically for this study. The discussion then moves to the pilot study which used actual second-home owners from Costa Rica. Although reliability of the scales and each of the items are of particular interest in the pilot study, comprehension and overall utility were also important. Following a brief review of the data collection procedures and modifications necessary to achieve the desired sample size, descriptive statistics from the survey respondents are presented and organized by the following three areas: demographics, visitation characteristics, and property characteristics. Scale reliability and validity are then addressed as they apply to all of the latent variables in the model: place identity, place dependence, visitation, word-of-mouth promotion, and hosting. Following scale analysis, the measurement and structural models are considered. The final section of this chapter presents the findings of SEM and the overall fit of the model.

Treatment of the Data

All data used in this analysis was collected electronically. Data compiled in the preliminary, pilot, and Tico Times samples were collected via an online survey managed by the researcher and hosted by Survey Monkey. Data collected by ICT was managed by them, but hosted by Survey Monkey. All data were entered directly by the participants. Although the preliminary, pilot, and Tico Times sample did not collect personal identifiers, the ICT portion of the study collected the respondents name and email address on a voluntary basis. Upon completion of each sample collection period, the data were downloaded from Survey Monkey. The delimited data files were uploaded into Microsoft Excel to allow for data editing and coding. Once the data editing process was complete, the more manageable data sets were uploaded and analyzed in the Statistical Package for Social Sciences 15.0 (SPSS) and AMOS 7.0. There are four data sets involved in the complete study: the preliminary scale tests, the pilot study, the Tico Times study, and the ICT study.

Preliminary Scale Tests

Beyond the scale development procedures discussed in chapter 3, two of the main scales used in the study were refined using preliminary scale tests with undergraduate students at the University of Nevada, Las Vegas (UNLV). Preliminary tests were conducted on the word-of-mouth and hosting scales. Undergraduate students in two different hotel college courses at UNLV were asked to complete the survey containing the scale items. The online survey questions for the preliminary scale tests are provided in Appendix IV.

The word-of-mouth scale was modified from a previous study conducted by Price and Arnould (1999) and therefore needed validation. The word-of-mouth scale was tested in a course that was learning online survey technology, so the web-based survey was well suited for the current lesson plan. The course had 34 students enrolled.

The hosting scale was developed specifically for this study. Scale development was done in conjunction with fellow graduate students in an advanced statistics course and collaboration with professors. After extensive discussion regarding content validity, a 10-item scale for measuring hosting was developed. The scale was used in the preliminary tests.

The hosting scale was administered in two sections of an events management course totaling 100 students. Students were asked to voluntarily participate. Course size was a factor in the sections selected since a ratio of 5:1 (5 students to one item) or greater was desired for reliability analysis (Hair, Anderson, Tatham, & Black, 1998). Listwise case exclusion was chosen to handle missing values. A discussion of the analysis for the word-of-mouth scale precedes the discussion of the hosting scale.

Preliminary Tests on the Word-of-Mouth Scale

The 3-item word-of-mouth scale was tested within a university context of which students might promote by word-of-mouth: the college, the city that hosts the college, the university, and the instructor (See Appendix IV). The word-of-mouth scales were completed by 22 out of 34 possible students. Each student was presented with four word-of-mouth scales, one for each university context of interest, specifically, the Hotel College, Las Vegas, UNLV, and their instructor. A unidimensional scale was expected because of previous research and the small number of scale items (Price & Arnould,

1999). Factor analysis was used to validate the scale for each topic addressed by the word-of-mouth scale. The principal component method was utilized as the extraction technique. Outliers were not issues since the responses were fixed to a scale in the web-based survey and a criterion variable was used to validate the responses. In addition, respondents that indicated they promoted the subject of interest recorded higher word-of-mouth scores than those who indicated they did not promote the subject of interest. The data sets met the recommended sample size to variable ratio of 5:1 with actual ratios of 7:1 (Hair et al., 1998, p. 98-99).

Two common tests were used to determine the appropriateness of factor analysis. First, the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) measure of sampling adequacy was used to reveal the portion of common variance. If the KMO measure is close to one, there is a higher observed than partial correlation. The KMO measures for the preliminary scale tests of word-of-mouth were .775 for the Hotel College, .602 for Las Vegas, .723 for UNLV, and .651 for the instructor. KMO values above .7 are more appropriate for analysis (Norušis, 2003). Second, Bartlett's Test of Sphericity was used to test the null hypothesis that the correlation matrix is an identity matrix. The tests revealed that the null hypothesis can be rejected with a significance value of .000 on all four sets of word-of-mouth scales. As expected, only one factor resulted from the analysis which explained 97.67 % of the variance. Rotation was not necessary.

To determine how well the scale performed overall, reliability analysis was conducted. To examine internal consistency, Cronbach's alpha coefficients for the word-of-mouth scales were determined for each set of items (the college $\alpha = .988$, $n = 22$; the city $\alpha = .963$, $n = 22$; the university $\alpha = .981$, $n = 22$; the professor $\alpha = .986$, $n = 22$). The

results from the preliminary test support the utility of the scale across various contexts of word-of-mouth promotion. The pilot study will extend the modification to an actual destination.

Preliminary Tests on the Hosting Scale

The instrument designed to measure hosting was comprised of a 10-item scale. The items were created with the assistance of graduate student colleagues in a SEM course. An additional review and editing process for face validity took place with members of the committee before the preliminary test was administered. The hosting scale was developed with general agreement among reviewers providing scale development input that hosting had a behavioral and an attitudinal component. Several rounds of alteration took place prior to administration of the following survey.

The hosting scale survey was administered across two sections of a course totaling 100 students (see Appendix III). A 76% response rate was achieved. Principle component analysis was used to evaluate the proposed hosting scale. The data set met the recommended sample size (i.e., variable ratio of 5:1 with an actual ratio of 7:1 and a suggested sample size above 50 respondents (Hair et al, 1998) .The principal component method was utilized for extraction. Outliers were not present and the low numbers of missing values were handled with listwise deletion. In addition, those that indicated they host visiting friends and relatives recorded higher hosting scores than those that indicated they did not host visiting friends and relatives.

Examination of the correlation matrix for the 10-item scale shows that all items were statistically different from 0. The appropriateness of factor analysis was determined from the KMO measure of sampling adequacy and Bartlett's test of Sphericity. The

KMO measure for the hosting scale was .895, above the .7 threshold considered appropriate for analysis. On an individual item basis, the anti-image correlation matrix showed large KMO values along the diagonal. This means that no items need to be considered for elimination prior to conducting the factor analysis (Norušis, 2003, p. 401). Bartlett's Test of Sphericity reveals that the null hypothesis can be rejected with a significance value of .000. These tests suggest that the scale items are appropriate for factor analysis. Table 7 provides the output of the factor analysis.

Table 7

Results of Factor Analysis for Hosting Scale

Scale Items	Component 1	Component 2	% Explained Variance	Reliability
H-1	.864	-.278	71.65	.917
H-2	.855	-.249		
H-3	.703	-.447		
H-4	.649	.532		
H-5	.817	-.209		
H-6	.841	.067		
H-7	.640	.208		
H-8	.735	.396		
H-9	.696	.570		
H-10	.800	-.357		

The initial factor analysis using the principal component method without rotation revealed a two factor solution that explained 71.66 % of the variance. The first two factors had eigenvalues greater than one. The third factor had a variance of .639. Examination of the scree plot also supported a two factor solution since the dramatic change in slope occurred after the second factor's eigenvalue. There was considerable cross loadings between the two components. To possibly improve interpretation, the analysis was repeated using Varimax rotation. The rotation technique was selected because it is an orthogonal extraction method appropriate for simplifying interpretation of the components by setting the correlation between the components to zero (see Table 8).

Table 8

Results of Factor Analysis for Hosting Scale Orthogonal Rotation

Scale Items	Component 1	Component 2	% Explained Variance	Reliability
H-1	**.845**	.333	71.65	.917
H-2	**.819**	.350		
H-3	**.827**	.100		
H-4	.165	**.823**		
H-5	**.765**	.356		
H-6	.608	.585		
H-7	.363	**.567**		
H-8	.317	**.772**		
H-9	.177	**.882**		
H-10	**.845**	.231		

Since the goal of the factor analysis was a scale with high reliability and high explained variance, additional analysis was conducted. Direct Oblimin, an oblique rotation, was used for in an additional analysis. This method was more appropriate since it was likely that attitude toward hosting was correlated with hosting behavior. The results of the factor analysis using this nonorthogonal rotation are displayed in Table 9. The high loadings and minimal cross loadings provided better interpretation. Hair, Anderson, Tatham, and Black (1998) suggest that the significance of factor loadings be adjusted downward for sample sizes below 100. For this reason, high loadings were considered values above the absolute value of .3.

Table 9

Results of Factor Analysis for Hosting Scale Oblique Rotation

Scale Items	Component 1	Component 2	% Explained Variance	Reliability
H-1	**.857**	.090	71.65	.917
H-2	**.823**	.117		
H-3	**.910**	-.169		
H-4	-.073	**.876**		
H-5	**.758**	.143		
H-6	.507	.456		
H-7	.234	**.519**		
H-8	.117	**.766**		
H-9	-.078	**.939**		
H-10	**.890**	-.027		

Both rotation methods revealed overlap of the factor loadings on item H-6 '*I invite others to stay with me at my home in X*'. In the end, the decision was made to leave all 10 items and conduct a factor analysis on the sample of actual second-home owners to verify a two factor solution and see whether H-6 cross loaded again.

To demonstrate convergent validity, an alternative measure of hosting was used as a criterion for comparison against the summated hosting scale. Those that did not like to host guests in their home had a mean of 20.75 while those that liked to host had a mean score of 48.03. An independent samples t-test revealed that the two scores were significantly different at p=.000. A unidimensional scale was also explored using items H-1, H-2, H-5, and H-6. This unidimensional measure provided high reliability and demonstrated convergent validity with an alternative hosting measure.

Summary of the Pretest Results

The pretest provided two opportunities for the researcher. First, the word-of-mouth scale utility was explored across various contexts subject to promotional word-of-mouth, particularly a destination. The measure demonstrated scale reliability and scale validity. The scale was unidimensional. Secondly, the preliminary tests provided an opportunity to refine the hosting scale and explore its possible dimensions. Exploratory factor analysis suggested a two-dimensional structure for the hosting construct.

Data Collection and Sampling

The formal data collection procedure was approved by the Office for the Protection of Research Subjects at the University of Nevada, Las Vegas. The major portion of the study conducted in Costa Rica with ICT was approved as exempt research since the data collection and ownership of the data would remain the property of ICT.

The pilot study required a separate review because participation was solicited directly by the author of the research. A modification of the review was also necessary to solicit participants at a later time. Copies of all three IRB approval letters are provided in Appendix III. An overview of the three data sets is provided below.

Pilot Study

A pilot study was conducted using actual second-home owners of Costa Rica. Participants for the pilot study were selected from an online community of U.S. and Canadian second-home owners that indicated ownership of a home in Costa Rica. This community was managed by Scott Oliver, the author of a popular how to guide for buying property in Costa Rica. The title of his book is *How to Buy Costa Rica Real Estate without Losing Your Camisa.* The author agreed to share the survey with his members after discussing the study via email. A report of the findings was promised in return for promotion of the online survey. The survey link was posted in the online discussion board at www.welovecostarica.com. The discussion board is accessible by registered members only. The discussion board posting generated 61 respondents over a three day period.

ICT Study

As described in the previous chapter, research participants were solicited to participate in the study while waiting to depart on their flight from Costa Rica to the United States or Canada. Although the study was designed to begin in late June early July, delays at ICT pushed the start date to late September. This meant that peak travel season during the summer months was missed, resulting in an extended period in which to intercept the 10,000 willing participants at the two international airports of Costa Rica.

The original intercept period was expected to take approximately 3 weeks, but lasted approximately 3 months. The ICT study generated 2,073 responses to the online survey between late September and December 2007. Approximately 8,000 departing passengers were asked to participate in the study during the intercept period at the two international airports.

Over 6% of the 2,073 respondents indicated ownership of a home in Costa Rica. In all likelihood, the actual number of second-home owners was probably even higher if the survey dropout rate is considered. The second-home owner portion of the ICT administered survey did not take place until question 67 of the online survey administered by ICT. In addition, many of the first 66 questions were tourist oriented questions leading to additional survey abandonment.

Tico Times Study

To compensate for the delays and attain the desired sample size, the pilot study was modified into an alternative data collection method and an IRB modification was submitted and approved. To solicit second-home owner participants from Costa Rica, an advertisement was placed in the Tico Times, the English language newspaper of Costa Rica. The advertisement was run on seven consecutive Friday's in the once a week print edition of the Tico Times. In combination, a web-based ad was run on the newspapers website www.ticotimes.net. The advertisements generated 92 respondents. Both advertisements were designed to push people to the website hosting the study, www.2ndhomestudy.com. The advertisements requested that second-home owners were needed to participate in a research study. The advertisement promoted a $200 cash giveaway for one lucky participant. Images of the print ads and banner ad are provided

in Appendix V. The print ad was placed in the 'Business & Real Estate' section of the Tico Times newspaper. The banner ad was placed on the start page of the 'Daily News' section of the Tico Times newspaper website.

Data Editing and Coding

All three of the data sets were downloaded into Microsoft Excel. Each respondent was assigned a unique respondent ID by the Survey Monkey software during the download process. The three data sets were managed in one Excel file. The master raw data file consisted of four worksheets: one for the pilot study data set, one for the Tico Times data set, and two worksheets for the ICT data set. The ICT data set was split across two worksheets because the maximum of 250 data columns was exceeded. The master raw data file of the three data sets was saved and set to the side in case of any errors in editing and coding. The raw data file also provided an audit trail to verify accuracy in the editing and coding process when necessary.

During the data screening process, each data set was contained in its own worksheet within the Microsoft Excel file. The number of columns in the ICT data set was reduced by eliminating columns of variables not related to the immediate study at hand. This reduction in columns allowed for the eventual merger of the two worksheets that originally represented the ICT data set. Respondent identification numbers allowed for a relatively easy merge of the two ICT worksheets. To ultimately merge the three data sets, the editing process required each question to be labeled across all three data sets, so that the column titles matched across each data set. Coding was also necessary as some of the question responses were ordered differently during administration of the surveys.

Cases were excluded from the data set when the respondent failed to meet the criteria of home ownership in Costa Rica. There were several respondents that were in the process of building a home or only owned land in Costa Rica. Cases were also removed when it was determined that respondents were primary residents of Costa Rica and did not own a home elsewhere. Cases were also excluded from analysis if they failed to complete a significant portion of the survey necessary for analysis of the model; these portions of the survey included the observed variables in the model (place identity, place dependence, visitation, hosting, and word-of-mouth). And lastly, some cases were eliminated because they were created when the researcher accessed the study. The combined sample size of 279 responses was reduced to 203 responses following the data screening process. Further investigation into missing data and outliers was examined prior to SEM analysis.

Comparison of the Data Sets

To check for significant differences between the data sets, comparisons were made between the data sets along key demographic variables and constructs. Table 10 shows the distribution of gender, age, and marital status across the three samples. Table 11 shows the distribution of education and income. The chi-square test was used to check for significant differences. None of the samples showed significant differences along the demographic variables. The constructs were compared across their respective indicators for significant differences. The construct comparisons for place identity, place dependence, word-of-mouth, and hosting were conducted with ANOVA.

Table 10

Comparison of Gender, Age and Marital Status across Samples

Variable	Pilot	Tico Times	ICT	Test
Gender				
Male	27	42	73	$\chi^2 = .565$
Female	9	14	31	$p = .754$
Age				
Under 20	0	0	0	$\chi^2 = 15.755$
20 to 24	0	0	1	$p = .107$
25 to 34	3	4	11	
35 to 44	4	3	22	
45 to 54	11	20	38	
55 to 64	15	17	31	
65 +	3	12	8	
Marital Status				
Single	2	8	25	$\chi^2 = 9.496$
Married	28	41	65	$p = .148$
Divorced/Separated	3	6	18	
Widowed	1	1	1	

Table 12 provides comparisons between the pilot, Tico Times, and ICT samples for the observed variables. Significant differences were noted for PI-3 *I identify strongly with Costa Rica* and WOM-1 *I would recommend visiting Costa Rica to someone who*

seeks my advice. Tukey's post hoc tests indicated that the differences were between the pilot and ICT samples. However, this was not justification for the exclusion of cases from the combined data set.

Table 11

Comparison of Education and Income across Samples

Variable	Pilot	Tico Times	ICT	Test
Education				
Less than High School	1	1	2	$\chi^2 = 10.573$
High School	0	2	11	$p = .392$
Some College	4	14	23	
Associate Degree	3	4	12	
Bachelor's Degree	14	20	35	
Graduate Degree	14	15	27	
Income				
Under $49,999	4	9	14	$\chi^2 = 3.35$
$50,000 to $99,999	9	18	28	$p = .910$
$100,000 to $149,999	10	9	26	
$150,000 to $199,999	2	5	11	
Over $200,000	9	13	27	

The visitation variables were separated from the sample comparisons because visitation was considered as a composite variable in the final model analysis. The two

indicators used to calculate the variable were *average number of trips per year* and *length of most recent stay*. Each of these indicators is addressed separately (see Table 13). The chi-square test was used to check for significant differences regarding average number of trips per year. None of the samples showed significant differences across the samples. Over 20% of the ICT sample took more than 6 trips per year. Respondents were indicating shorter, but more frequent trips. The samples showed the most frequent responses clustered around 2 to 4 trips per year.

The visitation variable that measured the respondents' most recent stay was compared using one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA). However, the null hypothesis concerning the homogeneity of variances was significant. This was probably the result of outliers as well; therefore, the Kruskal-Wallis test was used. There were no significant differences.

Sample Characteristics

These comparisons provided enough support to demonstrate that the samples were not statistically different. The data sets were combined to represent the overall sample for the study. The combined sample size resulted in a total of 203 respondents. The analysis also hinted to some non-normal distribution issues that needed to be addressed prior to performing SEM analysis. This section discusses the characteristics of the sample. Demographics of the respondents were explored first, followed by an examination of their visitation patterns to Costa Rica. Home utilization was also examined in regard to overall occupancy, personal use, renting, and sharing. The section concludes by exploring the characteristics of the homeowner's property in Costa Rica.

Table 12

Comparison of Constructs and Indicators across Data Set

Construct	Pilot	Tico Times	ICT	Test
Place Identity				
PI-1	5.06	5.67	5.70	p = .104
PI-2	5.75	6.07	6.03	p = .550
PI-3	4.94	5.67	5.75	p = .027*
PI-4	5.39	5.75	5.89	p = .258
Place Dependence				
PD-1	5.09	5.43	5.47	p = .458
PD-2	4.44	4.89	5.07	p = .207
PD-3	5.06	5.22	5.27	p = .826
PD-4	4.75	5.13	5.33	p = .210
Word-of-Mouth				
WOM-1	5.69	6.29	6.23	p = .036*
WOM-2	5.89	6.07	6.24	p = .058
WOM-3	5.67	6.13	6.17	p = .053
Hosting				
H-1	4.28	4.91	4.64	p = .357
H-2	5.29	5.11	4.75	p = .286
H-3	4.91	4.69	4.64	p = .809
H-4	4.03	4.40	4.04	p = .597
H-5	5.00	5.30	4.89	p = .427

Construct	Pilot	Tico Times	ICT	Test
H-6	4.56	5.22	4.96	p = .308
H-7	4.84	5.02	4.98	p = .927
H-8	3.50	3.75	4.00	p = .445
H-9	3.76	3.98	3.96	p = .866
H-10	4.97	5.09	4.92	p = .878

Note; * is significant at p = .05.

Table 13

Comparison of Visitation Variables across Data Sets

Variable	Pilot	Tico Times	ICT	Test
V-1 (trips per year)				
1	6	13	9	$\chi^2 = 29.027$
2	8	16	23	p = .310
3	10	6	12	
4	5	10	24	
5	3	4	6	
6	2	3	10	
7	0	0	2	
8	0	0	1	
10	0	1	6	
11	0	0	1	
12	0	1	4	

Variable	Pilot	Tico Times	ICT	Test
15	0	0	2	
18	0	1	0	
20	1	0	3	
V-2 (most recent stay)	38.39	35.89	22.86	$\chi^2 = 3.109$
				$p = .211$

Demographic Characteristics

An analysis of the respondents' demographics for the surveys reveal that participants were predominantly male (72.4%), married (67%), and had children (71.3%) (see Table 14). Most of the respondents had earned college degrees (71.3%), had incomes exceeding $100,000 (57%) and were older than 45 years of age (76.3%). A quarter of the respondents indicated a household income exceeding $200,000. Interestingly, 82.7% of the respondents lacked legal residency in Costa Rica although they owned a home in the country.

Visitation Characteristics

A number of questions on the survey addressed visitation patterns. Overall, respondents make repeat visits to Costa Rica. More than 50% of the respondents indicated 10 or more trips during their lifetime. Respondents were asked to report their length of stay for their most recent visit to Costa Rica. The mean for the most recent length of stay was 29 days. The most frequently reported lengths of stay were 7, 10, and 14 days respectively. Respondents were asked to reveal the average number of trips they take to Costa Rica in a year. Respondents were capped at 21 or more trips per year as the

upper limit of the responses. The most common response was 3 trips per year for the second-home owners in the sample. The median was 4 trips per year. Excluding those respondents taking more than 20 trips per year, the mean was 4.83 trips per year. Assuming the lower limit of those taking more than 20 trips per year, the mean number of trips exceeds 5.16 trips per year. Figure 2 presents a histogram of the average number of trips per year to Costa Rica.

Table 14

Sample Demographics

Variables	n	%
Gender		
Female	54	27.6
Male	142	72.4
Marital Status		
Single	34	17.0
Married	134	67.0
Divorced/Separated	27	13.3
Widowed	3	1.5
Family Status		
Children	102	64.2
No Children	57	35.8
Education		
Less than High School	4	2.0

Variables	n	%
High School	13	6.4
Some College	41	20.3
Associate Degree	19	9.4
Bachelor's Degree	69	34.2
Graduate Degree	56	27.7
Income		
Under $49,999	27	13.9
$50,000 to $99,999	55	28.3
$100,000 to $149,999	45	23.2
$150,000 to $199,999	18	9.3
Over $200,000	49	25.3
Age		
20 to 24	1	.5
25 to 34	18	8.9
35 to 44	29	14.3
45 to 54	69	34.0
55 to 64	63	31.0
65 +	23	11.3

Note; n = 203.

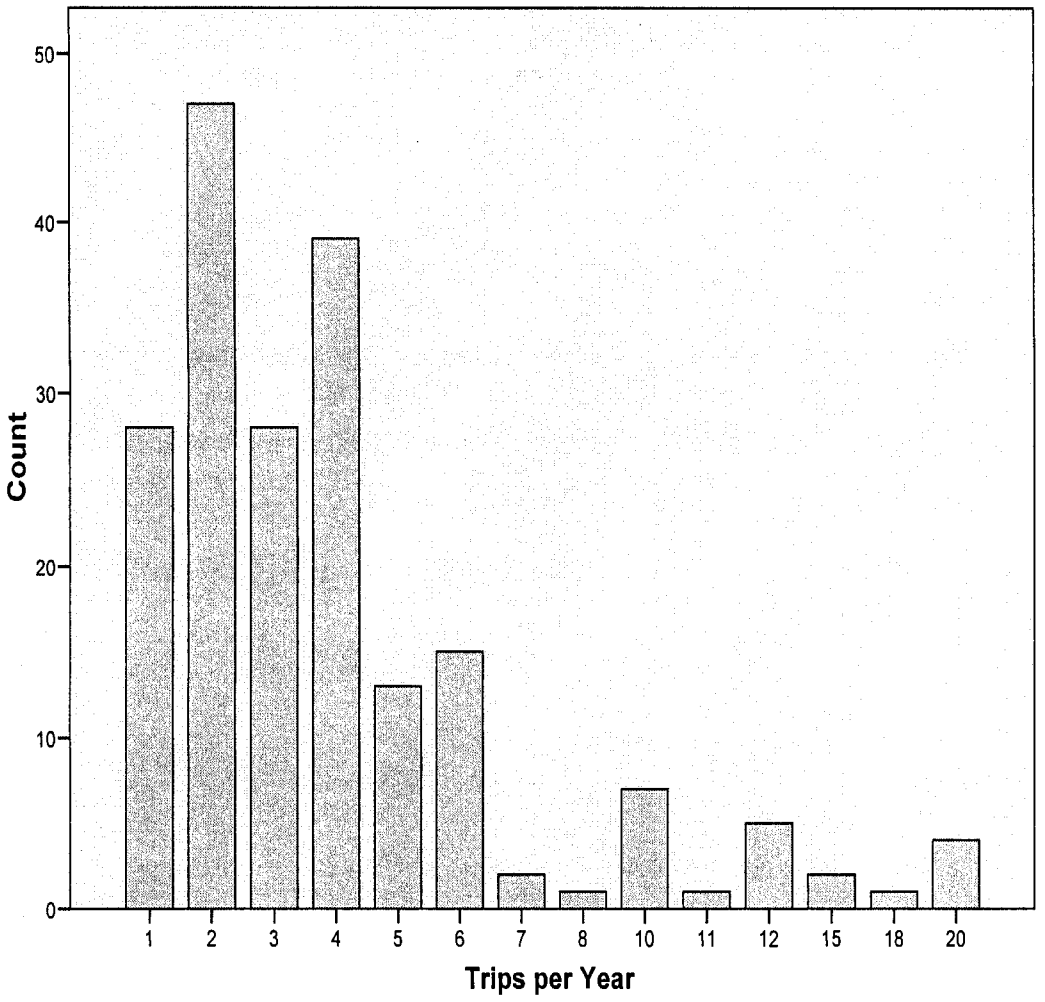

Figure 2. Average Number of Trips per Year

Home Utilization

A series of questions addressed the utilization of the respondents' home in Costa Rica. The questions were intended to measure utilization of the home. The first question addressed total occupancy of the home by anyone. Another question addressed occupancy by the owner and his or her immediate family. An additional question addressed occupancy by renters. And a final question addressed occupancy for non-paying guests. Table 15 below summarizes those responses. The mean and median are

reported because the distribution is non-normal. Total occupancy for the homes averaged 160 days per year. Average occupancy by the owner and their immediate family averaged almost 96 days per year. Renting the home was common practice. Interestingly, 85 of 203 respondents rent their home to others. The average number of rental days for the respondents was over 57 days per year. A final question addressed sharing the home without a charge. Sharing the home without a charge was common practice; over 100 participants indicated sharing their home without charging the guest. The mean number of days for sharing the home was 30.

Table 15

Home Utilization

Variable (reported as days/year)	Mean	Median
Total occupancy	160.34	142
Occupancy by owner and immediate family	95.94	54.50
Occupancy by renters	57.81	0
Sharing with others without a charge	30.05	10

Property Characteristics

Homeowners were represented from all 7 provinces of Costa Rica. As expected, Guanacaste and Puntarenas were the most common location of the second-home in Costa Rica among respondents. These two areas have seen the greatest surge in tourism development. Additional characteristics of the home in Costa Rica were addressed by a series of questions related to property setting, property type, and property ownership.

Homes on, near, or looking at the beach were the most common among respondents, followed by mountain and urban settings. Those classified as other included farm, jungle, and a combination of settings. A majority of the respondents owned single family residences as opposed to multi-unit complexes. In regard to property ownership, none of the respondents were timeshare owners. Over 92% of the respondents had full ownership. A summary of the property characteristics is provided in Table 16.

A cross tabulation was generated between respondents that rented their home and the location of their home. The tourist destinations of Guanacaste and Puntarenas revealed that over 50% of respondents with homes in these regions rented their homes. This suggests that second-homes are provided as a lodging accommodation beyond the second-home owner. The metropolitan area of San José also revealed upwards of 50% rental participation by homeowners. Participation in the rental market occurred across every Province.

Reasons for owning the property in Costa Rica were requested on each sample. The Pilot and Tico Times studies only allowed one response. The response frequencies were as follows: 52 of 92 indicated vacation, 7 of 92 indicated retirement, 2 of 92 indicated a place for business, 7 of 92 indicated investment, 4 of 92 indicated other, and 20 of 92 had missing values. However, the ICT study allowed respondents to select more than one. Current use of the home for the ICT sample revealed that 58% indicated vacation, 22% indicated retirement, 18% indicated a place for doing business, 30% indicated a place for recreation, 37% indicated investment, and zero indicated other.

Table 16

Property Characteristics

Category	n	%
Province		
Alajuela	23	11.3
Cartago	6	3.0
Guanacaste	47	23.2
Heredia	8	3.9
Límon	8	3.9
Puntarenas	73	36.0
San José	32	15.8
Property Setting		
On, near, or looking at the beach	82	41.4
Mountain	39	19.7
Urban	31	15.7
Rural	20	10.1
On or near a lake or river	16	8.1
Other	10	5.1
Property Type		
Detached singly family housing	149	75.3
Multi-unit complex	34	17.2
Other	15	7.6

Category	n	%
Property Ownership		
Full ownership	184	92.5
Fractional ownership	13	6.5
Other	2	1.0

n = 203

Scale Reliability and Validity

This section examines the place identity, place dependence, word-of-mouth, and hosting measures used in the model. The visitation composite variable is also discussed in this section. Reliability analysis and factor analysis are provided to assess the scales. In addition, convergent validity is discussed for each of the measures in the model. Factor analysis was conducted to test the dimensionality of the scales and provide the reliability measures. The tables are included in Appendix VI.

The place identity measure achieved high internal consistency using a 4-item scale. Using the 203 respondents and listwise deletion, a sample size of 199 respondents revealed a mean score of 22.94 with a standard deviation of 5.85, and a Cronbach's alpha coefficient of .949 (see Table 17). The place dependence measure also achieved high internal consistency using a 4-item scale. Using the 203 respondents and listwise deletion, a sample size of 194 respondents revealed a mean score of 20.65 with a standard deviation of 6.35, and a Cronbach's alpha coefficient of .929 (see Table 18). Williams and Vaske (2003) suggested that more than adequate reliability can be achieved by using only 4-items for both place identity and place dependence; this was supported.

Table 17

Place Identity Scale: Internal Consistency and Coefficient Alpha Values

Scale items	Scale Mean if Deleted	Item-total Correlation	Alpha if Item Deleted
PI-1	17.37	.877	.933
PI-2	16.95	.873	.935
PI-3	17.35	.860	.938
PI-4	17.16	.899	.926

α = .949, mean score = 22.94, s = 5.85, n = 199

Table 18

Place Dependence Scale: Internal Consistency and Coefficient Alpha Values

Scale items	Scale Mean if Deleted	Item-total Correlation	Alpha if Item Deleted
PD-1	15.27	.833	.909
PD-2	15.74	.809	.917
PD-3	15.45	.881	.892
PD-4	15.49	.821	.912

α = .929, mean score = 20.65, s = 6.35, n = 194

The word-of-mouth measure achieved high internal consistency using a 3-item scale. Using the 203 respondents and listwise deletion, a sample size of 199 respondents revealed a mean score of 18.69 with a standard deviation of 4.08, and a Cronbach's alpha coefficient of .965. These results were consistent with the pretest reliability results (see Table 19).

Table 19

Word-of-Mouth Scale: Internal Consistency and Coefficient Alpha Values

Scale items	Scale Mean if Deleted	Item-total Correlation	Alpha if Item Deleted
WOM-1	12.45	.931	.945
WOM-2	12.43	.900	.968
WOM-3	12.50	.949	.933

α = .966, mean score = 18.69, s = 4.08, n = 199

Table 20

Hosting Scale: Internal Consistency and Coefficient Alpha Values

Scale items	Scale Mean if Deleted	Item-total Correlation	Alpha if item deleted
H-1	41.47	.862	.932
H-2	41.25	.834	.933
H-3	41.47	.831	.933
H-4	42.05	.756	.937
H-5	41.15	.709	.939
H-6	41.18	.783	.936
H-7	41.25	.688	.940
H-8	42.31	.661	.942
H-9	42.21	.705	.939
H-10	41.22	.823	.934

α = .943, mean score = 46.18, s = 16.29, n = 177

Again, using the 203 respondents and listwise deletion, a sample size of 177 respondents revealed a mean score of 46.18 with a standard deviation of 16.29, and a Cronbach's alpha coefficient of .943; this was consistent with the pretest reliability results (see Table 20). A summary of the scale reliabilities for the model constructs is provided in Table 21.

Table 21

Summary of All Scale Reliabilities

Construct	Indicators	α
Place identity	4	.949
Place dependence	4	.930
Word-of-mouth	3	.966
Hosting	10	.943

Visitation was measured several ways in order to create and validate a composite variable. The original three measures proposed were the average number of trips per year, the average number of days per trip, and the average number of days spent in the destination per year. The first two variables would be multiplied together to create the composite variable representing the average number of days spent at the destination. The third measure was intended to validate the composite variable by examining the correlation between the two as evidence of convergent validity. The average number of trips multiplied by the average number of days per trip would approximate the average number of days spent in the destination.

Unfortunately, the second and third items mentioned above were not included in the Pilot and ICT study. Fortunately, similar measures were included that addressed the same visitation concept. Therefore, a modification to the composite variable was necessary. Length of stay was addressed across all three samples in the context of the most recent trip. Therefore, the composite variable was created by multiplying the average number of trips per year by the most recent length of stay. Although the most recent length of stay might not be average or typical, it does not require recollection and calculation like the originally proposed measure of average length of stay per trip over the lifetime of visitation. The Tico Times sample provided an opportunity to validate this modification.

The Tico Times sample contained both measures on length of stay: average stay over the lifetime of visits and most recent stay. To validate the measure, a paired samples t-test was used to compare the most recent length of stay to the reported average length of stay per trip reported by the respondents. The mean for most recent length of stay was 36.57; the mean for the reported average length of stay per trip was 38.20. The correlation between the alternative measures was .983 with $p = .000$. The paired samples t-test revealed no differences between the means with $t = -1.137$, $df = 50$, and $p = .261$. As further support, the confidence interval for the mean difference contains zero. The mean of the most recent length of stay was 29.11 days per trip; the mean of the most frequent trip was 4.19 trips per year.

The individual item statistics for the observed variables and visitation composite are presented below. The indicators of the latent variables are presented with the mean,

standard deviation, skewness, and kurtosis. The summary in Table 22 provides an excellent lead into SEM because it highlights normality issues present in the data.

Table 22

Individual Item Statistics

Construct	Mean	SD	Skewness	Kurtosis
Place identity (n = 199)				
PI-1	5.57	1.62	-1.20	.82
PI-2	5.99	1.47	-1.81	2.90
PI-3	5.59	1.60	-1.10	.36
PI-4	5.76	1.59	-1.45	1.45
Place dependence (n = 196)				
PD-1	5.39	1.61	-.99	.23
PD-2	4.91	1.84	-.59	-.71
PD-3	5.22	1.76	-.79	-.42
PD-4	5.17	1173	-.76	-.42
Visitation (n = 188)				
VIS (V-1 * V-2)	118.44	532.17	13.15	178.16
Word-of-Mouth (n = 199)				
WOM-1	6.23	1.39	-2.34	5.31
WOM-2	6.24	1.37	-2.47	6.16
WOM-3	6.17	1.49	-2.19	4.23

Construct	Mean	SD	Skewness	Kurtosis
Hosting (n = 177)				
H-1	4.70	1.93	-.586	-.795
H-2	4.93	2.00	-.751	-.617
H-3	4.70	2.05	-.547	-1.034
H-4	4.12	2.17	-.200	-1.366
H-5	5.02	1.84	-.708	-.547
H-6	4.99	1.93	-.743	-.559
H-7	4.92	2.08	-.717	-.841
H-8	3.86	2.04	.061	-1.247
H-9	3.97	2.04	-.003	-1.282
H-10	4.95	1.97	-.753	-.585

The Proposed Model

The reliabilities of the scales and the reduction in the number of indicators required a modification to the proposed path diagram. The original path diagram and observed variables are presented in Figure 3. The initial model contained 5 latent variables measured with 27 observed variables. The modified path diagram and observed variables are presented in Figure 4. This model contains 4 latent variables and only 16 observed variables. The structural model was examined with a composite variable in place of the visitation construct. In addition, a 4-item unidimensional hosting construct was utilized in the analysis of the model. The modified path diagram highlights the

reduction in the number of indicators necessary to measure the variables in the model. The hypotheses for the direct effects are also labeled along the paths.

The final model for analysis consists of 16 observed variables. The unobserved exogenous constructs were place identity and place dependence. Place identity was measured with four indicators labeled PI-1, PI-2, PI-3, and PI-4. Place dependence was measured with four indicators labeled PD-1, PD-2, PD-3, and PD-4. The unobserved endogenous constructs are word-of-mouth and hosting. The word-of-mouth construct was measured with three indicators labeled WOM-1, WOM-2, and WOM-3. The hosting construct was analyzed using a unidimensional measure of hosting that included the four indicators labeled H-1, H-2, H-5, and H-6. The visitation variable was a composite measure labeled VIS.

In this next portion of the analysis, the assumptions of SEM will be addressed. This is followed by the examination of the measurement and structural model outputs. The results of the SEM analysis and the fit indices comprise the next portion of the analysis. The final portion of the analysis addresses the hypotheses proposed in the model and whether or not the estimates support the hypotheses.

Assumptions of SEM

The following discussion addresses the assumptions and preparation necessary for performing SEM analysis. Missing value analysis and the examination of outliers were necessary prior to performing SEM analysis. Missing values and outliers were addressed during the initial data screening, editing, and coding process. Extreme values and complete sets of missing values were resolved then, but a decision was made to allow other extremes to remain because they represented the differences among various second-

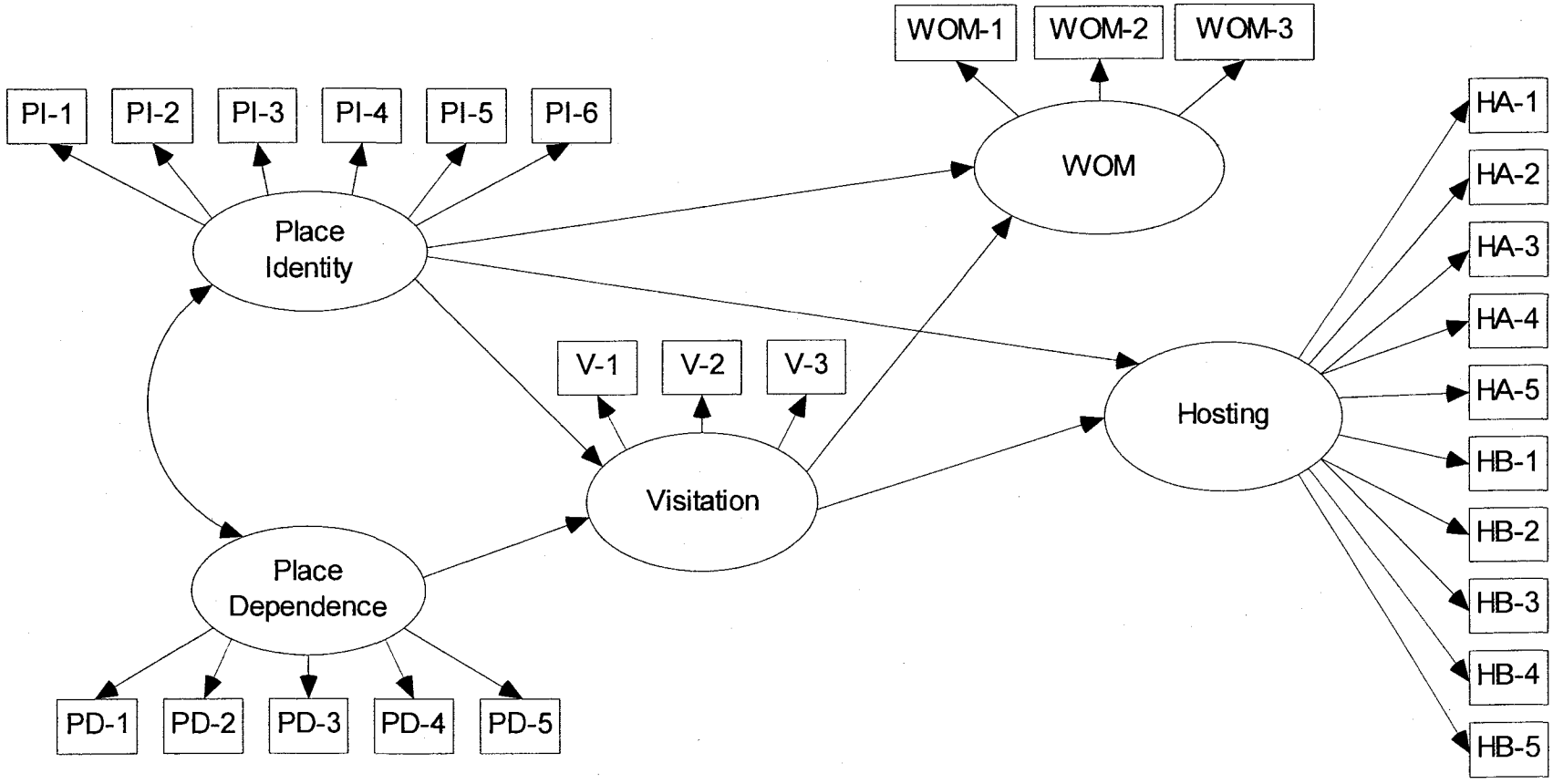

Figure 3. Proposed Path Diagram

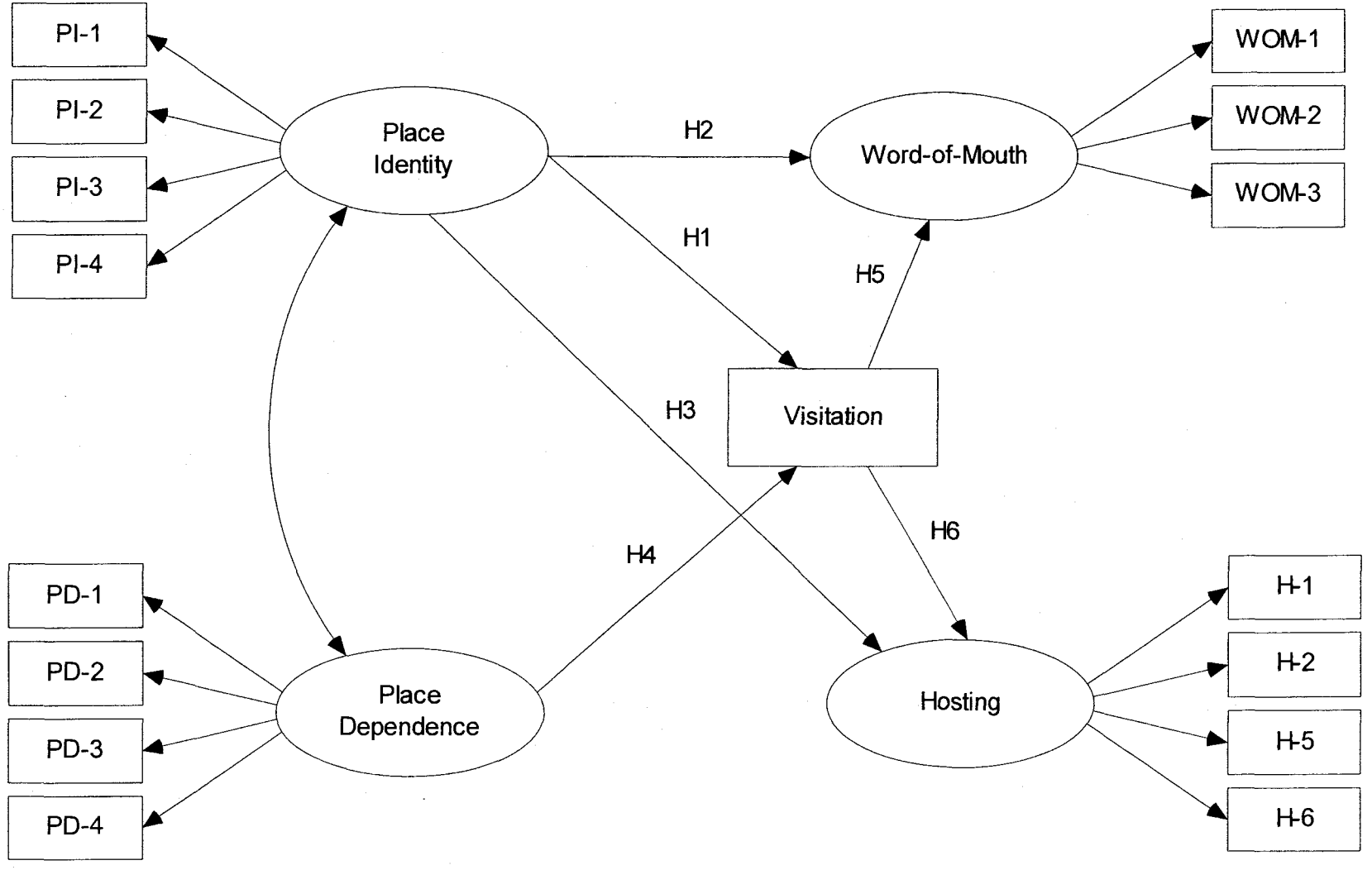

Figure 4. Modified Path Diagram

home owners. Some of these extremes had to be addressed because of the requirements of SEM and the operational definition of a second-home owner used in the research study. Most importantly, these outliers were a likely determiner of the non-normal distribution indicated in Table 23. A thorough examination of outliers, multivariate normality, linearity, multicollinearity, singularity, and identification follows. These areas of investigation were necessary because of the sensitivity of SEM analysis to violations.

Missing Values and Outliers

Although missing values and outliers were addressed prior to preparing descriptive statistics, the issue was revisited prior to SEM analysis because of the technique's sensitivity to these sources of bias. The sample size prior to covariance structure analysis was 203 respondents. The variables in the model were examined extensively for missing values and outliers. The visitation variables received extensive attention because they served as the dependent variables in the analysis and represent the greatest source of variability. They were also subject to greater measurement error.

Outliers were identified using the 'Explore' feature in SPSS. Exploration was initially performed on the variable used to measure the most recent length of stay. Two respondents indicated their most recent length of stay as 365 days. Although possible, this response suggests that the home might serve as the primary residence. This would not meet the operational definition of a second-home. Further investigation revealed that the home was used 365 days per year by the owner. Therefore these two cases—521900763 and 544574201—were excluded from further analysis. There were several respondents that indicated using their property for all 365 days in the year. These respondents do not fit the operational definition of a second home either because they

served as primary residences. Cases 55400378, 557758312, and 540425550 were excluded from further analysis. These unique 9-digit respondent identification numbers were used to link the case to the original data set and allow for replication of the analysis.

The question regarding home utilization was also appropriate for verifying that the homeowner met the operational definition of a second-home owner. Those that spent no time in their second home, rented the second-home to others, and indicated the home was for investment purposes only were considered for exclusion from the analysis. There were a number of respondents that fit this criterion. These cases included 549946331, 521287433, 549142666, 550635523, 546716138, 536136451, 556915104, 540598189, and 553828128. Further investigations revealed those cases were solely used as investment properties and did not fit the operational definition of a second-home as defined by the research study.

Following the exclusion of these outliers, the composite variable of visitation was recalculated and examined for normality. A significant improvement was seen, but four of the composite scores were greater than 365 days. These cases were reviewed against the home utilization variable. It was clear that these respondents spent a good portion of time in Costa Rica based on their home utilization, but still fit the operational definition of a second-home. To correct for the obvious measurement error, yet still include the cases, the home utilization was imputed for the outliers in cases 548490539, 521931837, 553820470, and 520781389. This adjustment was a better and more conservative measure than the calculated composite variable that exceeded the 365 day limit.

Missing values were the next area of focus. Cases with more than half of the variables missing for the observed variables in the model were excluded from further

analysis; these included cases 553839983, 548899537, 543485118,546867026, 548551353, 521163051, 555376642, 542549453, 521054106, 552966622, and 522198334.

There were also cases with missing values on the observed variables necessary to calculate the composite visitation variable. The composite variable was a combination of the average number of trips taken per year multiplied by the most recent length of stay. As suggested by Hair, Anderson, Tatham, and Black (1998), these cases were excluded. Although it reduces the overall sample size, it "avoids any artificial increases in the explanatory power of the analysis"; this inflation would occur by using one of the imputation processes suggested for handling missing data (Hair et al, 1998, p. 52). The cases excluded because of missing values on the variables for calculation of the dependent variable were 546105046, 547842958, 532775376, 540475942, 546106276, 546701841, 553368271, and 540422336.

The sample size was reduced from 203 respondents to 170 because of missing values, outliers, and research criterion regarding the operational definition of a second-home owner. The few remaining missing variables scattered among the observed variables within the latent construct measures were assumed to be missing at random and were imputed using linear interpolation. Table 23 provides the item statistics for the model variables following missing data analysis. Although some outliers still exist, justification of their removal was difficult to support.

Normality

The initial assessment of normality was conducted by using the 'Explore' features of SPSS. This function analyzes each variable by generating the central tendency

measures and conducting the tests of normality (Kolmogorov-Smirnov and Shapiro-Wilk tests). In addition, the function creates plots (e.g., histograms and stem-and-leaf plots) to provide for visual analysis of the distribution. All of the variables in the model had skewed distributions. The construct indicators were negatively skewed. The visitation composite variable was positively skewed. A summary of univariate normality estimates with skewness and kurtosis values were shown in Table 23. This is a likely indication that the data are multivariate non-normal.

Table 23

Individual Item Statistics of Model Variables Following Missing Data Analysis

Construct	Mean	SD	Skewness	Kurtosis
Place identity				
PI-1	5.56	1.63	-1.20	.79
PI-2	6.01	1.43	-1.88	3.33
PI-3	5.60	1.57	-1.12	.49
PI-4	5.78	1.60	-1.48	1.53
Place dependence				
PD-1	5.39	1.61	-.99	.21
PD-2	4.85	1.86	-.55	-.76
PD-3	5.20	1.77	-.77	-.47
PD-4	5.18	1.71	-.76	-.38
Visitation				
V-1 (visits per year)	4.25	3.55	2.44	7.10

Construct	Mean	SD	Skewness	Kurtosis
V-2 (recent stay)	27.51	37.40	3.60	18.46
VIS (composite)	86.65	97.20	2.28	5.70
Word-of-Mouth				
WOM-1	6.26	1.34	-2.51	6.40
WOM-2	6.26	1.32	-2.54	6.67
WOM-3	6.20	1.42	-2.26	4.78
Hosting				
H-1	4.77	1.87	-.64	-.66
H-2	5.05	1.92	-.81	-.47
H-3	4.82	2.04	-.63	-.92
H-4	4.23	2.16	-.27	-1.31
H-5	5.10	1.77	-.71	-.51
H-6	5.12	1.83	-.83	-.32
H-7	5.05	2.04	-.78	-.71
H-8	3.96	2.02	-.01	-1.21
H-9	4.08	2.02	-.10	-1.24
H-10	5.07	1.90	-.82	-.38

n = 170

Transformation attempts were appropriate for some of the variables. Tabachnick and Fidell (1996) provided a template of transformations for typical non-normal distributions encountered in multivariate analysis. The visitation composite variable has

a distribution of substantial positive skewness; the logarithm was therefore an appropriate transformation. Transformation was successful using the logarithm. The word-of-mouth indicators had severe negative skewness. Reflection and the inverse are suggested to transform this type of distribution. This is done by calculating the new variable as 1 / (K-X), where K is the largest value in the scale +1 and X is the original value. This transformation did not show much improvement. The reflection and square root transformation was also attempted, but no improvement was observed.

The decision was made to move forward with the transformation of the visitation composite variable using logarithm transformation. However, the interpretation of visitation was hindered by the transformation (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2001).

The investigation into multivariate normality continues by examining linearity; it is an implicit assumption of SEM. A matrix of scatter plots was generated for the 16 variables in the model (see Figure 5). All of the relationships appeared to be linear. However, visitation appeared to have a weak negative linear relationship with the variables. A correlation matrix was also generated for additional insight into the relationship between observed variables. The matrix showed significant relationships among some of the variables, but visitation appeared to lack significant relationships with the other variables.

Lastly, identification was addressed. Identification is a necessary requirement to generate unique estimates. The structural model was overidentified. The use of multiple indicators, a recursive model, and positive degrees of freedom usually allow for over identification. The full structural model is presented in Figure 6.

Model Estimation

Maximum likelihood estimation (MLE) was conducted in AMOS 7.0. MLE was employed because of its robustness against violations of statistical assumptions underlying modeling efforts and the justification required for selecting alternative estimation methods (Kline, 2005). Using data that has a non-normal distribution creates bias in estimating model fit with MLE. Furthermore, the χ^2 statistic is inflated for non-normal data distribution. Even more, the modifications indices will lead to modification that is inappropriate and possibly unnecessary. Alternatives estimation methods such as generalized least squares (GLS) or Asymptomatic Distribution Free estimator (ADF) do exist for use with non-normal distribution. However, the GLS estimation method is not recommended because of incorrect model acceptance and more frequent inaccurate parameter estimates than ML. The ADF alternative requires samples sizes that exceed 1000, thus eliminating it as a viable alternative. These alternatives are therefore, not suggested by many SEM scholars (Bentler & Dudgeon, 1996; Byrne, 2001; Kline, 2005). Byrne (2001) suggests the use of the bootstrapping procedure to reduce bias generated by using MLE when the distribution is non-normal. Bentler and Dudgeon (1996) provide direction for dealing with non-experimental data that have a non-normal distribution as well. They were not employed for this analysis.

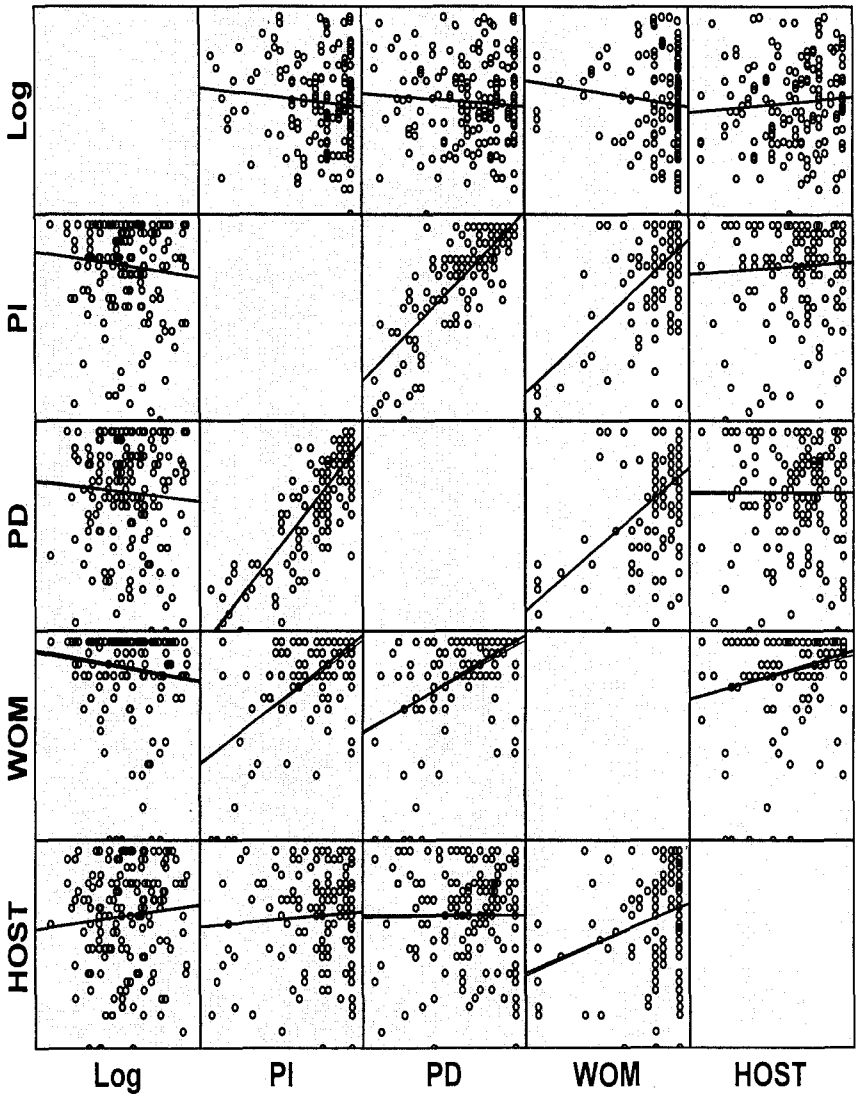

Figure 5. Matrix Scatterplot of Model Variables

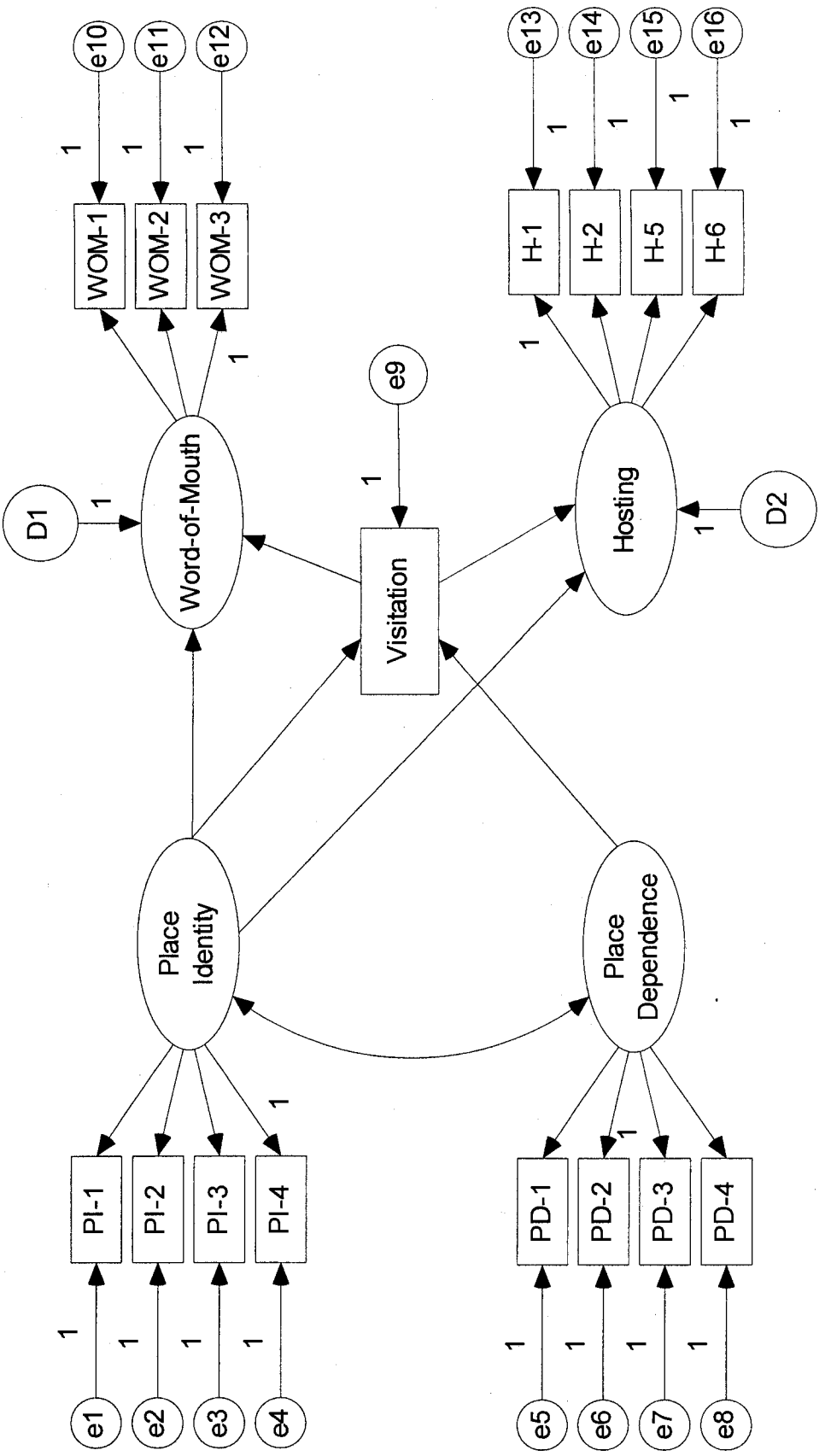

Figure 6. Full Structural Model

The Measurement Model

The measurement model was assessed first (see Figure 7). The viability of the individual parameter estimates should be consistent with the underlying theory. The measurement model specified four factors—place identity, place dependence, word-of-mouth, and hosting. Each indicator was constrained to load on the factor it was designated to measure. The factor covariances were free to be estimated.

The unstandardized parameter estimates were reasonable and statistically significant. The probability of getting a critical ratio as large as those indicated in the Table 24 is less than .001. The regression weight for the prediction of the indicators was significantly different from zero at the .001 level. It is important to note that these estimates are approximately correct under suitable assumptions. The squared multiple correlation coefficients (SMC) are provided for each endogenous variable in the model. The SMC values range from .444 to .944 for the item indicators. This coefficient gives the proportion of variance explained by the predictors of the variable, in other words, indicator reliability. The values are provided in the right most column of Table 24.

The measurement model fit the data reasonably well. Model fit was assessed using relative model fit (CMIN/df), comparative fit index (CFI), and incremental fit index (IFI). The CMIN/df was 2.3518. Another index for assessing goodness-of-fit is CFI. It is classified as a baseline comparison index. A good-fit for CFI is considered above .90. The index value ranges between 0 and 1. The measurement model had a fit index of .957. A final measure used to assess goodness-of-fit is IFI. The index is used to assess parsimony and ranges between 0 and 1; good-fit for IFI is an index value above .90. The index value was .958.

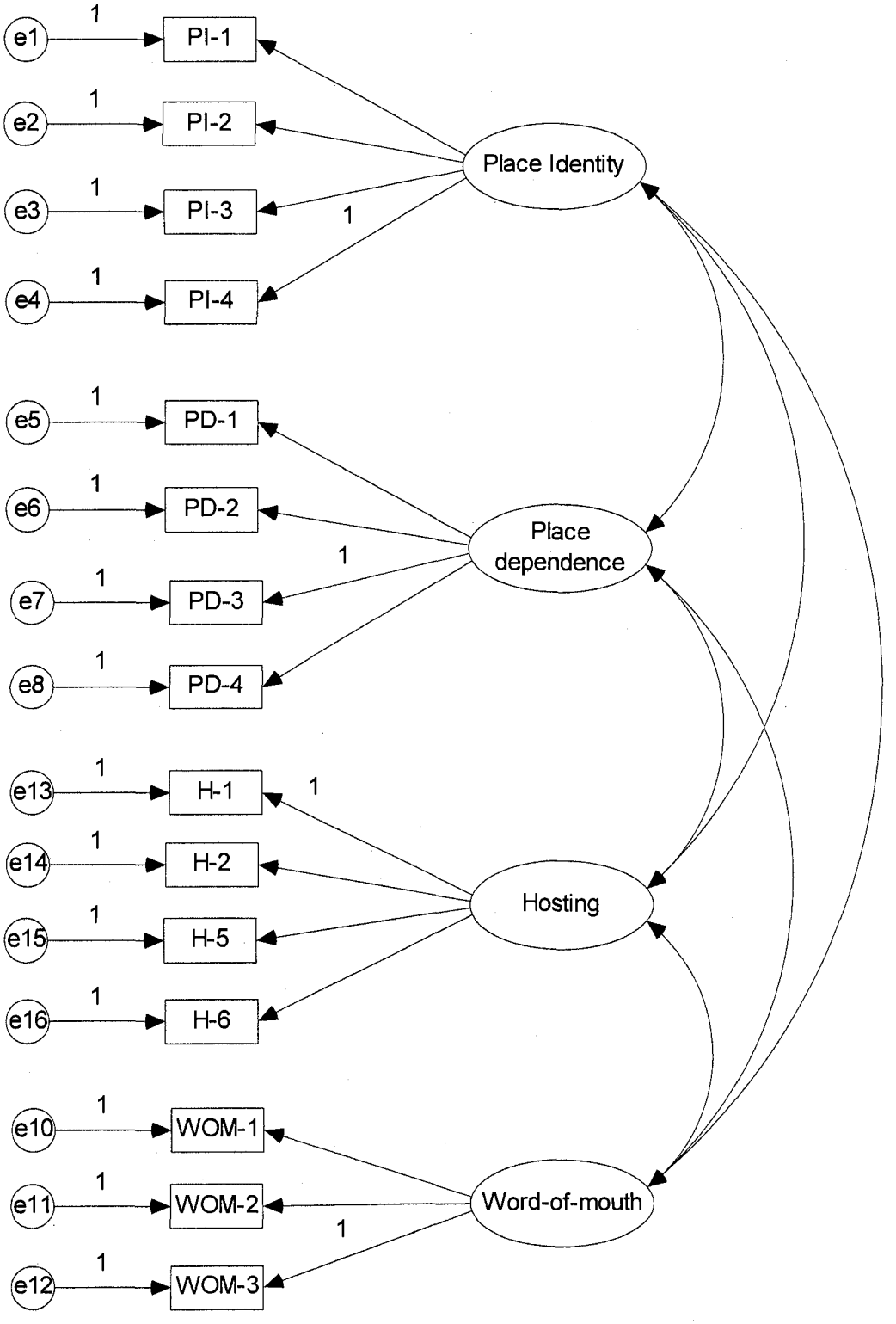

Figure 7. Measurement Model

Table 24

Unstandardized Construct Factor Loadings

Construct	Estimate	Standard Error	Critical Ratio	P	SMC
Place identity					
PI-1	.988	.049	20.29	***	.811
PI-2	.870	.042	20.66	***	.821
PI-3	.945	.047	20.22	***	.810
PI-4	1				.871
Place dependence					
PD-1	.881	.043	20.36	***	.818
PD-2	.959	.055	17.44	***	.732
PD-3	1				.873
PD-4	.916	.048	19.13	***	.784
Word-of-Mouth					
WOM-1	.926	.031	29.54	***	.909
WOM-2	.858	.039	22.20	***	.796
WOM-3	1				.944
Hosting					
H-1	1				.811
H-2	.918	.069	13.31	***	.647
H-5	.700	.071	9.93	***	.444
H-6	.956	.062	15.31	***	.772

The Structural Model

The structural model is now examined. Only one of the direct relationships proposed in the model was significant. That relationship was place identity and word-of-mouth which was positive and significant. The covariance between place identity and place dependence was also positive and significant. This finding supported the literature. Table 25 provides a summary of the standardized path diagram estimates. Table 26 provides a summary of the research hypotheses.

Goodness-of-fit Indices

Model fit was assessed using chi-square (χ^2), relative model chi square (CMIN/df), comparative fit index (CFI), and the root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA). The χ^2 is 222.833 with 98 degrees of freedom and a probability level of .000. According to this index, the model was not a good fit. This is not unusual since this index is sensitive to sample size and non-normality. Other indices are utilized to asses model fit. The CMIN/df ratio is one such common criteria. A good-fit is considered to have a value between 2 and 3. The value for the proposed model was 2.274. The χ^2 and CMIN/ df ratio serve as overall model fit indices.

Another index for assessing goodness-of-fit is CFI. This index compares the specified model to the independence model much like the Normed Fit Index (NFI) and Non-Normed Fit Index (NNFI). It is classified as a baseline comparison index. A good-fit for CFI is considered above .90. The index value ranges between 0 and 1. This proposed model had a fit index of .953.

A final measure used to assess goodness-of-fit is RMSEA. The index is used to assess parsimony. A good-fit for RMSEA is an index value below .05. Values above .10 or larger indicate poor fit. The index value for the proposed model was .087.

Figure 8 presents the full structural model with the standardized regression weights and levels of significance. Table 27 provides the correlation matrix with the means and standard deviations. This allows for replication of the output for researchers interested in this study.

Table 25

Unstandardized Structural Path Estimates

Relationship	Estimate	Standard Error	Critical Ratio	P
PI →VIS	-.120	.122	-.984	.325
PD → VIS	.054	.110	.488	.625
VIS → HOS	.190	.136	1.39	.117
VIS → WOM	-.082	.086	-.952	.380
PI → WOM	.577	.061	9.45	***
PI → WOM	.094	.093	1.009	.318
PI → PD	2.134	.267	7.95	***

Table 26

Summary of Structural Relationship Hypotheses

Hypotheses	Relationships	Results
H1:	Place identity has a positive direct effect on visitation.	Not supported
H2:	Place identity has a positive direct effect on word-of-mouth.	Supported
H3:	Place identity has a positive direct effect on hosting.	Not supported
H4:	Place dependence has a positive direct effect on visitation.	Not supported
H5:	Visitation has a positive direct effect on word-of-mouth.	Not supported
H6:	Visitation has a positive direct effect on hosting.	Not supported

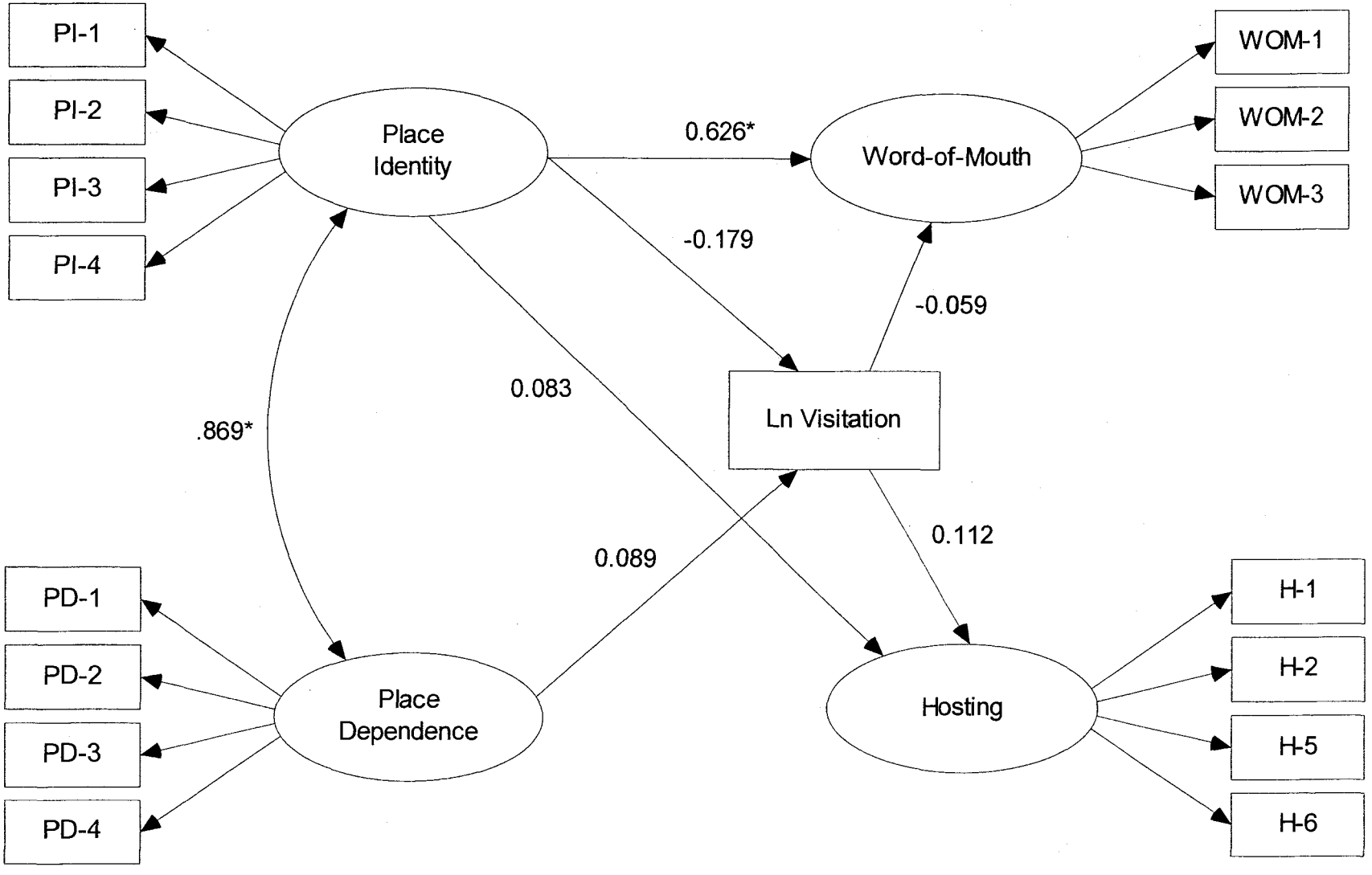

Figure 8. Model 1 with Standardized Path Coefficients

Table 27

Model Correlation Matrix with Means and Standard Deviations

	V1	V2	H10	H9	H8	H7	H1	H2	W3	W2	W1	H6	H5	H4	H3	PD1	PD2	PD3	PD4	PI1	PI2	PI3	PI4
V1	1.000																						
V2	-.230	1.000																					
H10	-.021	-.029	1.000																				
H9	-.056	.072	.503	1.000																			
H8	-.081	.061	.431	.784	1.000																		
H7	-.004	-.012	.616	.458	.359	1.000																	
H1	-.062	.133	.633	.598	.605	.587	1.000																
H2	-.063	.034	.790	.505	.441	.594	.706	1.000															
W3	-.081	-.137	.255	.091	.035	.207	.169	.227	1.000														
W2	-.070	-.168	.237	.113	.089	.213	.131	.232	.866	1.000													
W1	-.064	-.086	.245	.089	.007	.198	.170	.212	.929	.840	1.000												
H6	-.080	.080	.657	.569	.565	.595	.820	.673	.242	.198	.220	1.000											
H5	-.070	-.006	.664	.397	.315	.424	.559	.703	.251	.217	.222	.529	1.000										
H4	-.026	-.069	.614	.631	.642	.546	.640	.636	.003	.061	-.001	.557	.522	1.000									
H3	-.080	.000	.793	.472	.462	.603	.690	.758	.172	.144	.158	.638	.672	.664	1.000								
PD1	.035	-.029	.011	.101	.062	.060	.036	-.002	.487	.539	.514	.028	.010	.018	.003	1.000							
PD2	.008	-.034	-.054	.078	.097	-.038	.007	-.040	.421	.472	.423	-.013	-.019	-.039	-.063	.751	1.000						
PD3	.014	-.028	-.057	.112	.085	-.002	-.007	-.022	.428	.479	.469	-.015	-.052	-.024	-.080	.851	.815	1.000					
PD4	.065	-.058	-.008	.105	.089	-.006	.056	-.010	.416	.498	.439	.040	.019	.024	-.021	.789	.754	.831	1.000				
PI1	.057	-.125	-.014	.104	.079	.059	.053	.005	.429	.522	.479	.035	.008	-.026	-.090	.736	.680	.736	.746	1.000			
PI2	.025	-.077	.099	.144	.085	.173	.133	.140	.603	.701	.614	.147	.092	-.013	.017	.733	.652	.677	.676	.800	1.000		
PI3	-.044	-.018	-.019	.112	.107	.023	.060	-.011	.532	.605	.532	.049	.013	-.056	-.083	.768	.697	.721	.722	.825	.813	1.000	
PI4	.000	-.118	.002	.103	.068	.091	.012	.009	.565	.672	.555	.039	.021	-.015	-.075	.740	.697	.719	.734	.849	.859	.823	1.000

Model Modification

Several decisions leading to the initial model analysis were reassessed. These included the decision to use a reduced number of items as a unidimensional hosting construct, the decision to create a composite visitation variable, and the exclusion of the relationship between word-of-mouth and hosting. In the final section of the analysis, the model was explored with alternative decisions related to these previous areas. This post hoc exploratory approach is important to future research and an understanding of these decisions on the initial analysis.

The first modification required the measurement model to be revisited to include all 10 items of the hosting construct. The measurement model was analyzed with all of the hosting items. As expected, the measurement model did not fit the data well. Model fit was assessed using CMIN/df, CFI, IFI, and RMSEA. The CMIN/df ratio was 2.773. The measurement model had a CFI of .910. The IFI was .910. The RMSEA index which is used to assess parsimony had a value of .102. A good-fit for RMSEA is an index value below .05. Values above .10 or larger indicate poor fit. This was a poor fit. This was due to the inclusion of all 10 items and cross loading of the items. This measurement model was not an improvement over the model with a unidimensional 4-item hosting construct. Therefore, a two-dimensional structure of the hosting construct was analyzed in the measurement model. This showed improvement in the model.

This two-dimensional structure for the hosting construct was generated from a factor analysis on the actual study sample using oblique rotation. This analysis revealed a two-factor solution. Several items were removed because of high cross loadings (H-1 and H-4). Appendix VI provides the results of the factor analysis on the hosting

construct using the sample data. The measurement model was reassessed using the two-dimensional structure for hosting. Model improvement was apparent with a relative model fit of 1.715, a CFI of .968, an IFI of .968, and a RMSEA of .065. Moving forward with this measurement model, the structural model was assessed.

The structural model, following the model modifications, is presented in Figure 11. Model 2 now includes the average number of visits per year (V-1) and the length of the most recent stay (V-2) instead of the composite visitation variable. The second modification included the two-dimensional structure of the hosting construct. The final modification to the original model included a direct relationship between word-of-mouth promotion and hosting.

Model 2 revealed a significant relationship between place identity and word-of-mouth promotion. Unlike the original model using the unidimensional hosting construct, significant relationships between place identity and the two-dimensional hosting constructs were present. Interestingly, the direct relationship between place identity and hosting behavior was positive while the relationship between place identity and hosting attitude was negative. The word-of-mouth construct showed a similar but opposite relationship. Word-of-mouth promotion had a direct positive effect on hosting attitude while the relationship between word-of-mouth promotion and hosting behavior had a direct negative relationship. Hosting attitude had a direct positive relationship with hosting behavior. The model fit the data well. The relative model fit was 1.588. IFI was .970; CFI was .970. And lastly, RMSEA was .059 with an interval of .045 to .073. The model modification results are presented in Figure 12.

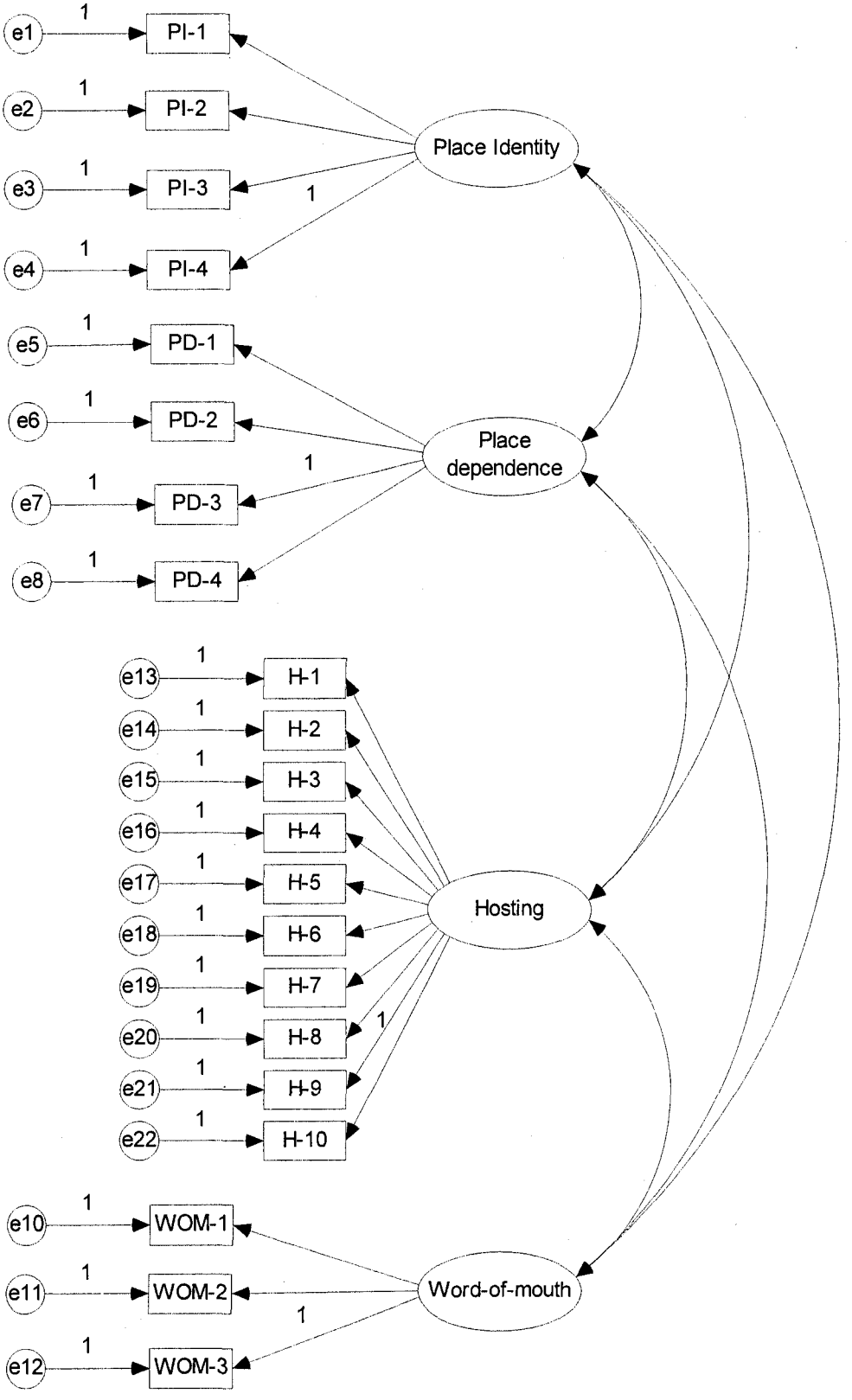

Figure 9. Alternative Four Factor Measurement Model

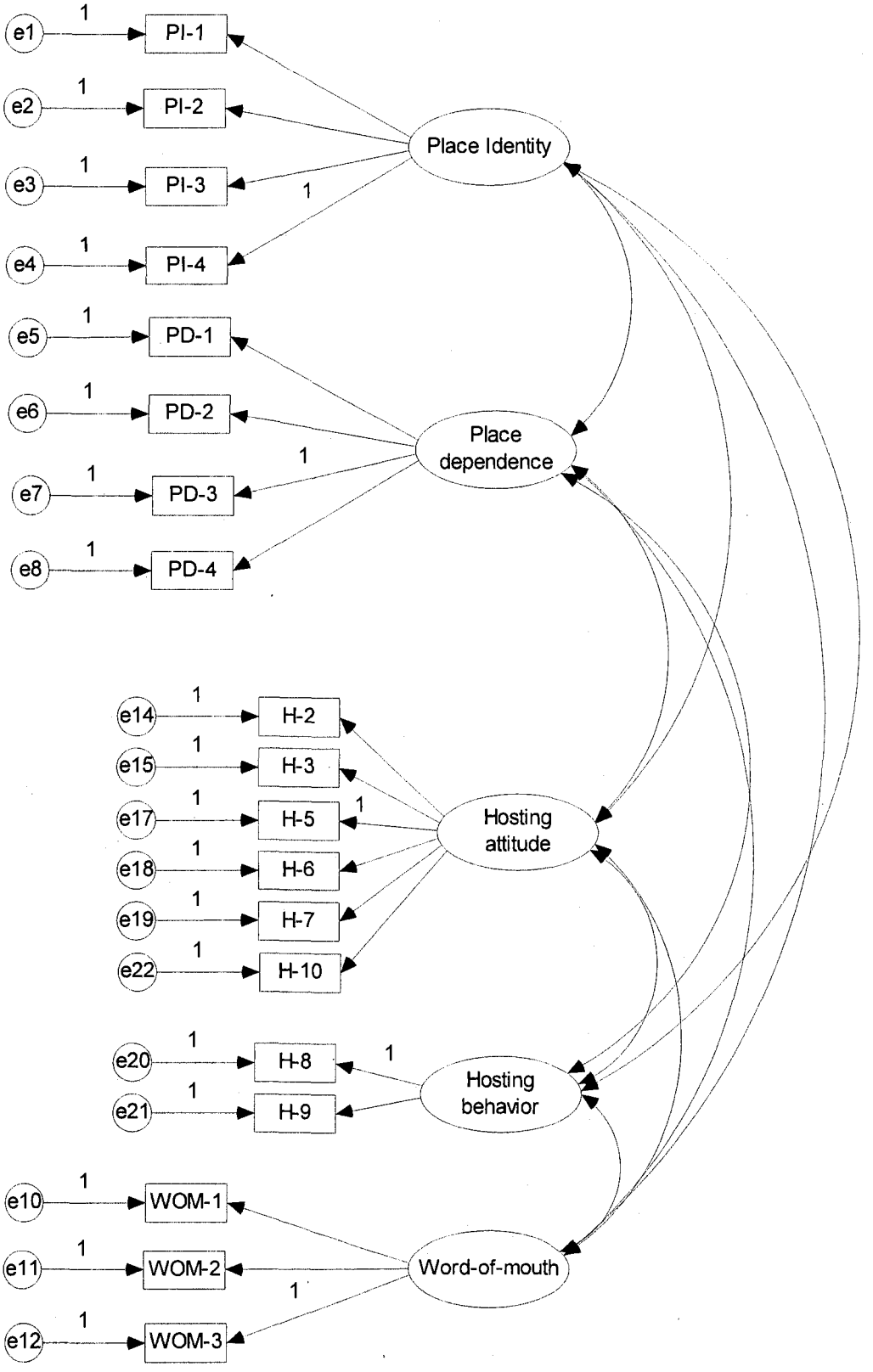

Figure 10. Alternative Five Factor Measurement Model

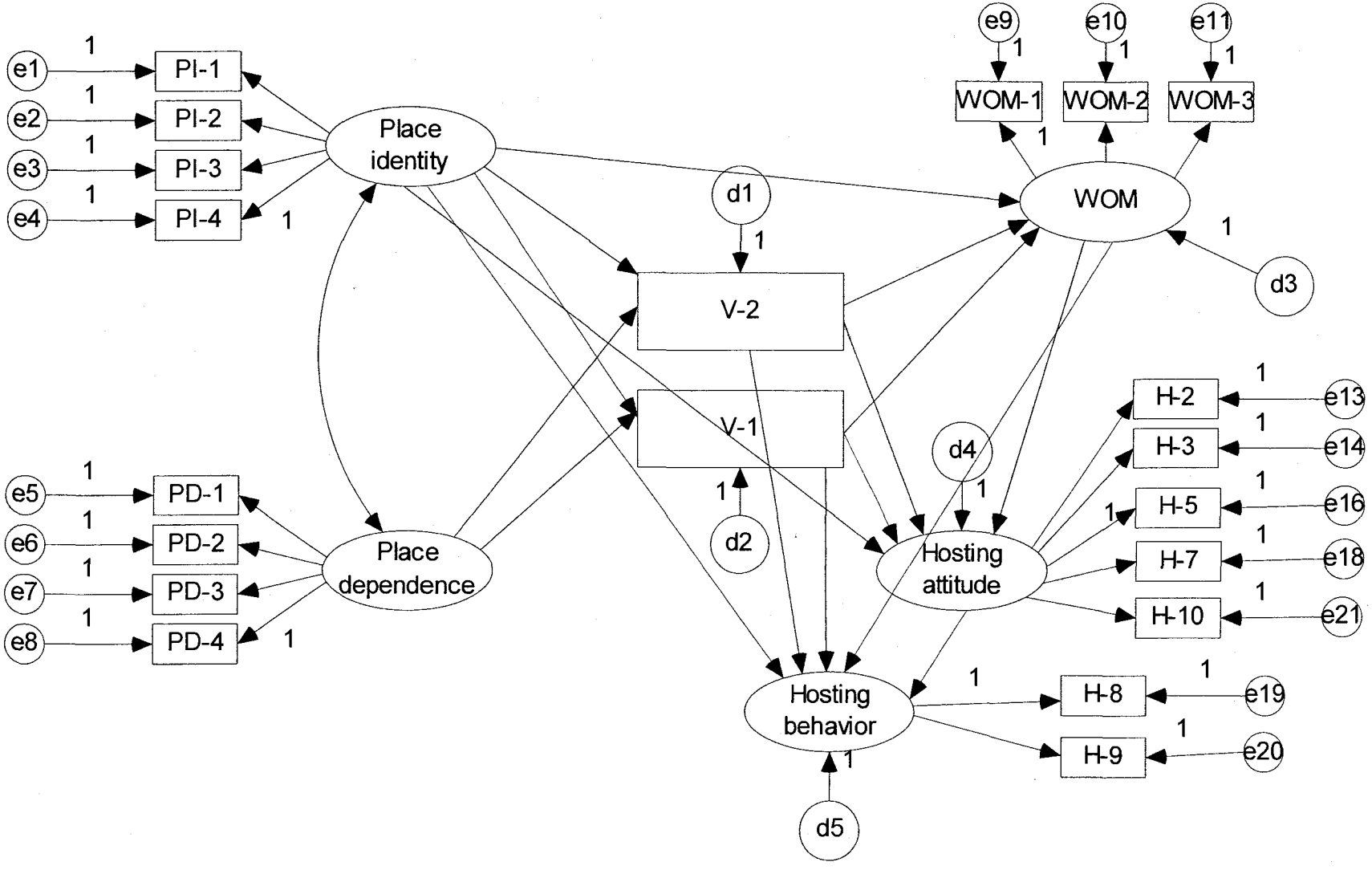

Figure 11. Model 2

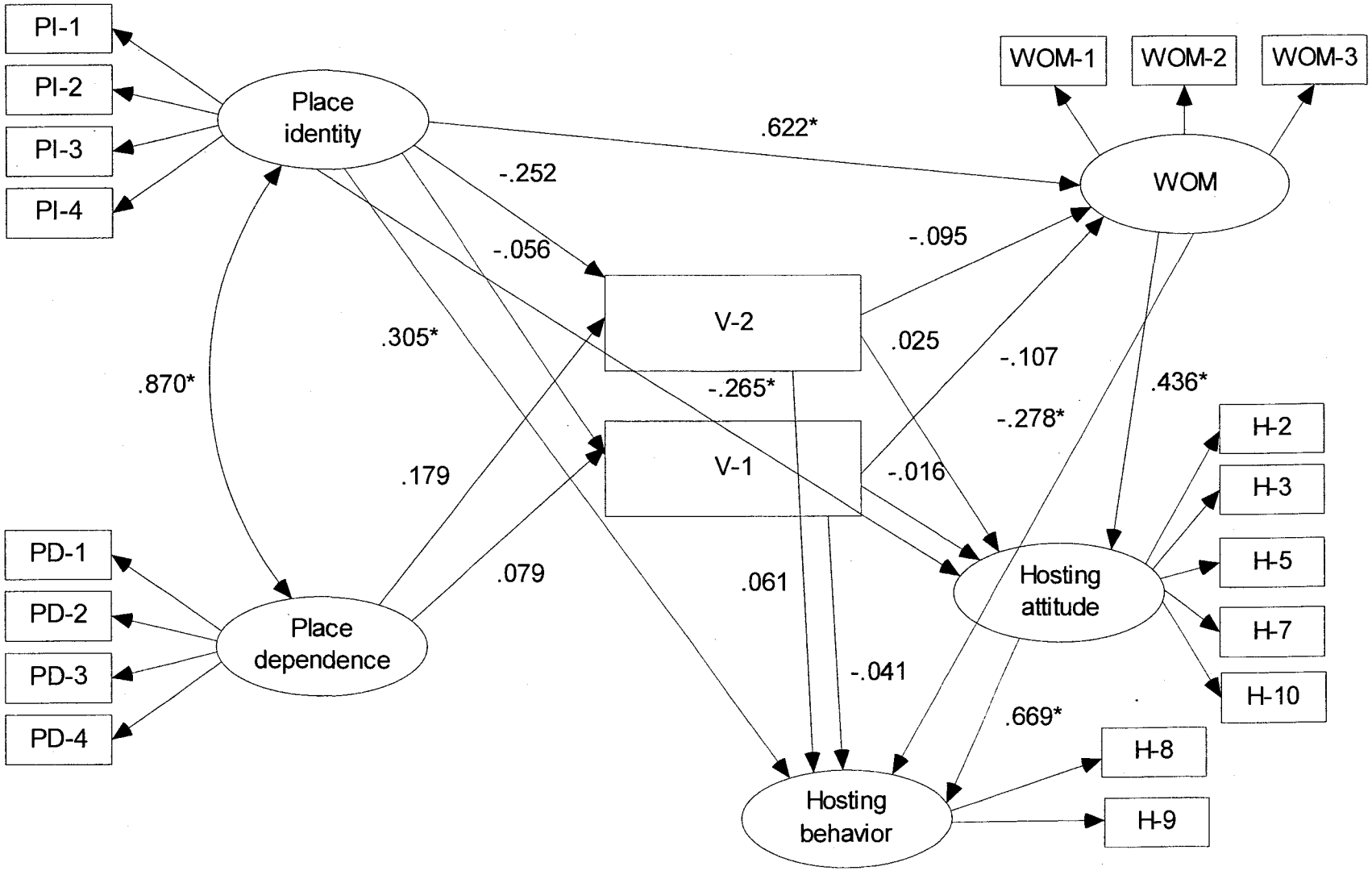

Figure 12. Model 2 with Standardized Path Coefficients

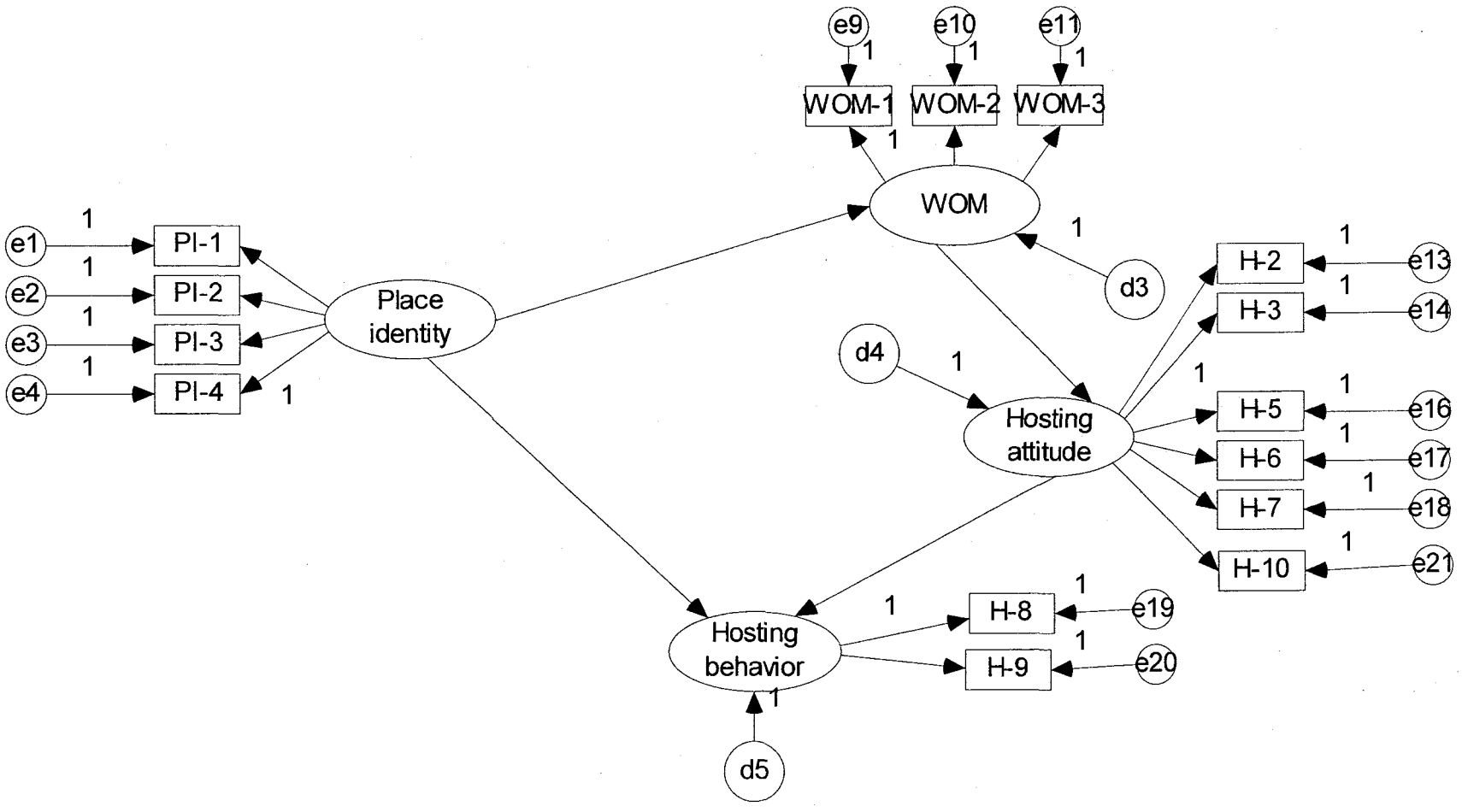

Figure 13. Model 3

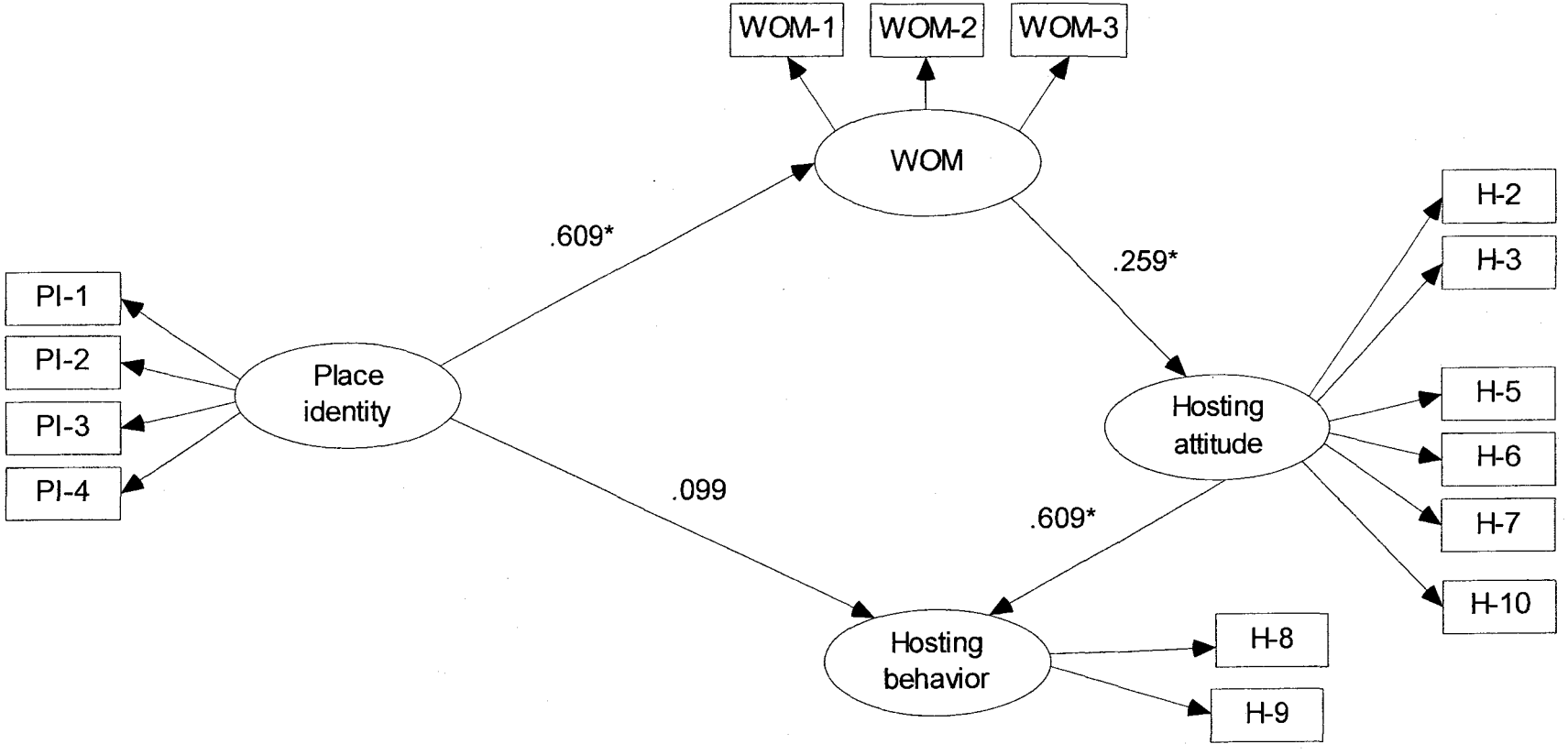

Figure 14. Model 3 with Standardized Path Coefficients

The model in Figure 11, using a two-dimensional hosting construct, revealed a positive and negative relationship between both place identity and hosting attitude and word-of-mouth and hosting behavior. Multicollinearity between place identity and place dependence was considered as an explanation for these results. Therefore, a unity test was conducted to see if place identity and place dependence were two different constructs statistically. The results of the unity test supported two unique constructs. The standardized path coefficients from Model 2 are presented in Figure 12.

An alternative model was proposed using the significant relationships from model 2 and exclusion of the negative paths between place identity and hosting attitude and word-of-mouth and hosting behavior (see Figure 13). These negative paths were removed because of suspected multicollinearity between place identity and word-of-mouth. This model is considered more parsimonious than the other two models. Figure 14 presents the standardized path coefficients of Model 3. A summary table of the fit statistics for both models is provided in Table 28.

Table 28

Summary of the Model Fit Statistics

Model	χ^2	df	CMIN/df	CFI	GFI	RMSEA
Model 1	222.833	98	2.274	.953	.860	.087
Model 2	246.211	155	1.588	.970	.880	.059
Model 3	188.605	86	2.193	.957	.880	.084

CHAPTER 5

DISCUSSION

The model proposed in this study was guided by the theories of sense of place, attachment, self-identity, and social networks. These theories were used to propose a model for place attachment as the driver of visitation, word-of-mouth promotion, and hosting behaviors of second-home owners. While the statistical models used in this study were convenient for describing latent structures, fitting the model was not the end goal. In fact, there are probably a number of alternative models that can be used to explain the same data (Byrne, 2001; Kline, 2005; Hair, Anderson, Tatham, & Black, 1998). This final chapter includes a summary of the findings, the contributions of the study, limitations and shortcomings of the research, and future opportunities for research.

Summary of the Findings

An appropriate beginning for this discussion is a review of the research purpose. The central focus of the study investigated the role of place identity and place dependence, the components of place attachment, on tourism related behaviors. The model was proposed as an explanation of the promotional behaviors exhibited by second-home owners. Specifically, these behaviors included visitation to the destination, word-of-mouth promotion, and the hosting of visiting friends and relatives. Place identity and place dependence were collectively examined to explain these behaviors. The model was

developed from theory and supporting literature that recognized the relationship between place attachment and visitation. Additional theory and supporting literature were used to expand the model as an explanation for word-of-mouth promotion and hosting (Halpenny, 2006; Steadman, 2006).

Three of the four constructs in the model utilized measures from previous studies. These included place identity, place dependence, and word-of-mouth. The hosting construct was developed specifically for this study. A unidimensional measure of hosting was originally used in the model analysis. The preliminary tests on the model measures using factor and reliability analyses revealed that the scales in the model were reliable and valid. Visitation was measured as a composite variable formed by the average number of visits per year multiplied by the most recent length of stay for the respondent's most recent visit.

SEM analysis was employed to test the fit of the model to the data. This technique was used because it allows for simultaneous analysis of multiple dependent variables, relationships, and latent variables. SEM analysis output allows the researcher to examine support for the model by achieving fit. Byrne (2001) conveniently summarized the model-fitting process as data = model + residual. But it is important to reiterate that this model is just one of many models that might fit the data. Support of the relationships proposed in the model was another important element of the analysis. After all, the examination of multiple relationships is one benefit of SEM. The analysis was conducted in a two-step process. First the measurement model was assessed; then the structural model was assessed.

The measurement model provided a good fit, but there were areas of concern. When testing the measurement model prior to structural analysis, there were problems with multicollinearity and normality, particularly as it related to the word-of-mouth construct. The indicators of this construct appeared to be redundant as they were highly correlated with one another. In addition, the distribution was negatively skewed with high positive kurtosis.

The structural model, with its direct and indirect effects, was imposed on the data to see if it was an adequate fit. Although the data provided a moderate fit of the model, many of the structural relationships were not significant. Particularly concerning were the relationships between the dimensions of place attachment and visitation.

The relationship between place identity and place dependence was not significant with visitation. Although not significant, the sample data indicated that the relationship between place identity and visitation was negative while the relationship between place dependence and visitation was positive. Place identity and place dependence were not supported as predictors of visitation. This was contrary to the findings of previous research (Halpenny, 2006; Moore & Graefe, 1994). In addition, visitation did not have a positive direct effect with word-of-mouth as found by Reid and Reid (1993). Among the six direct effects hypothesized in the proposed research model, only one was significant.

The data supported the relationship between place identity and word-of-mouth. Place identity had a strong positive effect on word-of-mouth promotion. This hypothesis was based on self-identity theory and supported the work of Arnett, German, and Hunt (2003) and Brown, Barry, Dacin, and Gunst (2005). This relationship also supported the

findings of previous research in regard to place identity, attitude, and positive behaviors (Halpenny, 2006; Jorgensen & Stedman, 2001; Kyle, Abscher, & Graefe, 2003).

Several key decisions in the research process were reviewed to see if these had an impact on the findings from the model fit. These decisions included the use of the composite variable for measuring visitation, the use of a unidimensional measure for hosting, and the relationship between word-of-mouth promotion and hosting. Reviews of these decisions were explored in a post hoc analysis. The composite visitation variable was replaced with both visitation variables (length of stay and average number of trips), the hosting construct was utilized using all 10-items and a two-dimensional solution, and the link between word-of-mouth promotion and hosting was added to the model.

Neither of the visitation variables showed significant relationships in the model. In addition, place dependence failed to contribute to the modified model. However, the two-dimensional solution for the hosting construct revealed different results than the unidimensional hosting construct in the proposed model. This two-dimensional solution showed significant relationships between place identity and the hosting dimensions. In addition, significant relationships between word-of-mouth and the hosting dimensions were revealed. This post hoc exploration certainly provides guidance in future research. Hosting should be explored further as a two-dimensional construct. Interestingly, the relationship between place identity and the dimensions of hosting revealed opposite directional affects.

Managerial Contributions and Implications

Tourism research has predominantly excluded second-home owners, yet this research reveals a group of travelers that visit a destination several times per year, stay

over 75 nights per year in the destination, visit an average of more than 4 times per year, stay an average of 29 nights per trip, promote the destination through positive word-of-mouth, and provide their home to others as a lodging accommodation. Over 50% of the respondents indicated hosting visiting friends and relatives at their home in Costa Rica. Even more, these second-home owners have recognized the opportunity to offset the cost of ownership by renting their home in Costa Rica to others. Over 41% of the respondents rented their home to others at some point during the year. The sample of homeowners also revealed that the second homes were predominantly located in the top tourist provinces of Costa Rica, but renting the home was not limited to just those owners with homes in the tourist regions of Puntarenas and Guanacaste. The sample also revealed additional capacity for increased occupancy as homes were utilized less than 160 days per year on average. The demographics of the sample identified homeowners as an age group approaching retirement, but not retired. Even more, most of the owners had children that were older than18 and living outside the home.

These findings lead to the following question. What are the implications of this study for tourism managers? This discussion will focus on three distinct areas. First, tourism managers need to explore their level of involvement with second-homeowner policy. Second, tourism managers should recognize the multigenerational opportunities these second-home owners present. And third, tourism managers need to initiate strategies for identifying, profiling, and researching second-home owners.

Tourism managers should recognize the potential implications of a second-home market in Costa Rica. These homes create an opportunity to compete with commercial lodging operations as owners lease and share their properties with other visitors to the

region. The rental income currently collected by owners represents an opportunity to generate local revenue for the government by initiating a lodging tax on this type of accommodation. These homes also provide an opportunity to expand lodging accommodations without additional construction, if tourism managers and owners collectively work to increase occupancy of these homes instead of undertaking new development. Tourism managers could facilitate or encourage the rental of these units by marketing them as lodging accommodations. For instance, the tourism board for the State of Montana requires second-home owners to register and pay the state lodging tax. In exchange, the state advertises the properties on the state's tourism website to would be visitors. These policy considerations represent a very diverse set of approaches and alternatives for tourism managers. Different regions might require different approaches depending on the challenges of second-home development.

Perhaps the most exciting implications of this study are the multigenerational opportunities. The homeowners in this sample are nearing retirement and have adult aged children. In addition, Costa Rica is experiencing a second-home phenomenon that is relatively new compared to the second-home experiences discussed in the literature. The lifelong experiences of summers at the lake or winters at the beach have not had the opportunity to materialize for these homeowners and their families like those experiences in Scandinavia, Canada, and the United States. This is the first generation of second-home owners in Costa Rica. Most of the respondents purchased their second homes in within the last few years. The purchase date of second-homes in the sample shows a peak between 2004 and 2007. Tourism managers should engage these people and their guests by creating and providing enduring experiences that move beyond the iconic

attractions and the typical trip to Costa Rica. These experiences should deepen the connections between the homeowners, their friends, their children and their grandchildren. Lau and McKercher (2004) revealed that repeat visitors seek more meaningful experiences with a longer length of stay. They found that iconic attractions were less frequently visited by repeat visitors. In reposne, language emersion courses and international youth camps might provide an experience that nurtures the dimensions of place attachment for future generations and embeds the Tico culture into these part-time residents. These findings present an opportunity for tourism managers to nurture a second-home owners' attachment to Costa Rica.

Tourism managers need to develop strategies for identifying, profiling, and researching second-home owners. Much of the literature regarding second homes examined the negative consequences of second-home development. Since Costa Rica has embraced tourism as an economic development strategy, it needs to be aware of the ability second-home development has to bypass the economic benefits expected from tourism, particularly as it relates to tax revenues, displacement of the native residents, and uncontrolled development. A starting point is this research. The methods utilized in soliciting second-home owners to participate in this study echo that concern. Previous studies on second-homes have utilized property records to easily identify and contact second-home owners. That system is not available in Costa Rica and many owners are unknown as property is frequently held by corporations. Perhaps the creation of a second-home panel sample would be beneficial for enhancing an understanding of this segment of visitors. From a managerial perspective, destination managers should recognize that second-home owners offer desirables traits worth pursuing.

Theoretical Contributions and Implications

The theoretical model developed and tested in this research exposed some interesting findings. The model that was imposed on the sample data supported the relationships between place identity, word-of-mouth promotion, and hosting. However, visitation was not explained by the sample data and model. In addition, place dependence, a dimension of place attachment was not supported in the model. And lastly, the hosting construct revealed a two-dimensional structure with inverse relationships between hosting attitude and hosting behavior. The model provided the first attempt at understanding the promotional behaviors of second-home owners. The theory and literature behind the model relied heavily on experiences that were limited within domestic settings. This might have impacted the measures themselves, particularly visitation and place attachment. These findings lead to the following question. What are the theoretical implications of this study for researchers?

Attempts to explain visitation with place attachment fell short and requires that the measurement of visitation and model specification be revisited. Place identity and place dependence did not explain the most recent length of stay, the frequency of visits, or the number of days spent in the destination within a year. Visitation variables such as most recent length of stay and frequency of trips showed extensive variation. From a theoretical standpoint, place attachment alone would not be able to explain visitation when controlling for second-home ownership. Although place identity and place dependence might have a relationship in explaining visitation in other studies, there are missing elements in this context. Perhaps the distance from primary residence, the ease of travel to the destination, the owners' occupation, motivations for home purchase and

the owners' stage in the lifecycle would assist in explaining a homeowner's visitation patterns to the destination. These variables would probably prove useful in explaining overall utilization of the second-home too. Once again, panel research like that suggested under the managerial implications discussion would provide additional knowledge into the impact of these variables on visitation.

Visitation showed a positive relationship with hosting, but it was not significant. A related concept that should be explored further is home utilization. Utilization is related to visitation and appeared to have linear relationships with some elements of the model. Utilization was loosely examined through a series of questions about home occupancy by different parties such as renters, friends and family, and personal use. Initial indications suggest lower personal use of the home has a negative relationship with hosting behaviors. Development of a home utilization measure and its incorporation into the model with theoretical support appears promising.

The place dependence dimension is another area with theoretical implications. Place dependence did not contribute to the model based on the sample data. The place dependence measure was intended to capture the functional meaning of a place. Costa Rica offers something unique, but the place dependence items were not specific enough to capture that element, or perhaps that dimension does not hold in this international context. Certainly the functionality of owning a home 3000 miles away from ones primary residence is questionable. Perhaps alternative place attachment structures should be explored such as the unidimensional place attachment construct developed by Stedman (2002). Halpenny (2006) addressed similar concerns in her research on place attachment toward Canadian national parks.

The insignificance of place dependence in the model echoes what McCool and Martin (1994) discovered when second-home owners showed high levels of community attachment in Montana while having the least amount of tenure with the destination. They suggested that newcomers, like those that recently purchased a home in Costa Rica, developed a sense of attachment quickly because of the explicit decision to purchase a home in the destination. Much like their study, the second-home owners were predominantly located in the tourism regions of the destination. From a theoretical viewpoint, an element of attachment seems to be present without the extensive involvement and rich history with the destination. This attachment has not developed like much of the attachment discussed in the literature in which owners became attached from a long tenure with the destination and a set of experiences with the destination over time. Owning a home in Costa Rica is not the same type of second-home experience as the rural tourism experience explored by so much of the literature; visiting a second-home in Costa Rica is not a quick drive to the lake house. Even more, these owners are new to Costa Rica. Perhaps a functional attachment requires time to develop, much like community attachment that relies on the development of social networks over time. These findings and implications certainly provide areas for focus in future studies.

Future Research

There are several areas that should be explored as this research stream continues. These include alternative and improved measurements of the place attachment, hosting, and word-of-mouth constructs. In addition, the proposed model in understanding promotional behaviors of second-home owners should be expanded and respecified. A panel of second-home owners should be created to institute a longitudinal study that

would provide insight into the second-home owner lifecycle. And lastly, alternative levels of analysis should be explored.

In regard to measurement, two such areas for future research are the continued development of the place attachment and hosting constructs. Place attachment dimensionality and measurement continue to be debated in the literature. This study only adds to those discussions. The hosting construct displayed two-dimensions in this study, an attitudinal and behavioral component. But this study marks the beginning in the development of a construct that could measure an individual's willingness to host. Modification and retesting are certainly important to the ultimate validation of the measure. Another area for measurement enhancements is the word-of-mouth construct. The word-of-mouth construct needs refining. Nearly all second-home owners in the sample displayed high scores regarding positive word-of-mouth, but the types of promotion behaviors should be expanded beyond a positive recommendation. For example, do they share photos of the visit, promote particular travel sites at the destination, promote the home on vacation rental websites, or blog about their excursions in Costa Rica. Visitation and utilization should be expanded with measures that address intentions and behavior.

Model specification should also be revised with the inclusion of additional variables to predict visitation and the inclusion of alternative measures. One interesting outcome of this study was the difference in model fit and explanation when using the hosting measure with different dimensionalities. This type of model exploration would provide an opportunity to compare models.

Perhaps the greatest contribution to a future study would be the establishment of a panel that engages the homeowner across their lifecycle. There appeared to be differences in the utilization, visitation, and hosting patterns of homeownership. A longitudinal study would provide insight into those differences. Capturing the future homeowner during the early visits to the destination would generate a better understanding of the conversion process as the property becomes used for something other than its original purpose. Retirement, investment, vacation, business, and primary residence were indicated as common motivations and reasons for owning the second home in Costa Rica. Many respondents indicated multiple motivations for homeownership in the destination. Changes in motivations and purpose would be revealed in a longitudinal study. In addition to vacation and retirement, several of the respondents indicated business as an additional motivation for ownership of a second-home in the destination. This highlights the multi-functionality of the home. This also suggests that motivations might changes during the course of ownership as the homeowner becomes more engaged in the destination (Hall & Müller, 2004).

Another area for future research should include alternative levels of analysis. Theodori (2000) shed light on the subject in regard to attachment theory because the level of attachment might differ across populations. This study used a broad level of analysis at the macro level. Identifying the level of attachment at the country level was unusual, but Costa Rica seemed an appropriate level of analysis based on its size and the non-resident status of the study participants. Brown, Perkins, and Brown (2003) found attachment strongest at the block level of a neighborhood. One alternative to identifying the level of analysis is to allow the respondent the opportunity to identify their level of

analysis. Many second-home owners refer to their home in a way that encompasses the level of analysis such as the lake house, the beach house, the island, the ski chalet, or the mountain range. This level of analysis also limited the depth of inquiry as it relates to attachment. In this study, the level of analysis was limited by the operational definition of a second-home owner.

This study focused on foreign second-home owners, specifically those from the U.S. and Canada since they represent the majority of foreign home owners in Costa Rica. The operational definition deployed in the research study eliminated a number of interesting outliers that obviously owned more than one home but did not meet the operational definition of second-home owner for this study. Even with this strict definition, the sample revealed evidence of a more diverse second-home market that included investment properties and owners that maintained multiple residences year round. What the current study deemed as outliers would likely fit the definition of second-home as defined by an organization like the National Association of Realtors. The purpose of a home likely changes over time, so a vacation home could become a primary residence with time, perhaps as the level of attachment increases.

Limitations of the Study

The data in this research study were obtained from a convenient sample, making generalizations inappropriate to any population other than the sample itself. The convenient sample was deemed necessary because of the difficulty in capturing second-home owners and to achieve a diverse set of second-home owners. The sample was also limited to one specific destination. The time period of the sample also created limitations on generalization. The primary travel period for the sample was the fall and holiday

season in the U.S. and Canada. In particular, the summer months, common to many vacation periods in the U.S. and Canada were not included in this sample.

Although the data collection procedure allowed for cost effective implementation, rapid deployment, flexibility, and instant monitoring, the Internet survey is subject to its own inherent issues (Zikmund, 2003). Representativeness of the sample is questioned because it was limited to those that could access the Internet. In addition, the possibility for misunderstanding, like mail surveys, is high. For instance, many respondents that indicated use of their home for all 365 days also indicated taking a number of trips each year. These responses conflicted with one another and suggested ambiguity or issues of interpretation.

Measurement error is another limitation of the study. The constructs examined in the survey do not necessarily mean the same things to all people. Effort was made to minimize measurement error by utilizing existing measures. The word-of-mouth construct was the source of some of those measurement errors. The visitation variables were certainly more prone to measurement error than the others, although its interpretation made the most sense. If alternative models are proposed by incorporating the utilization variable in place of the visitation variable, significant testing and improvement needs to be made on that measurement.

The place attachment construct was a two-dimensional measure. The 11-item place attachment measure was reduced to an 8-item measure for this study. Prior research suggested that fewer indicators could be used for measuring place identity and place dependence (Williams & Vaske, 2003). Unidimensional measures were achieved in the preliminary tests. According to Anderson and Gerbing (1988) [Kline, 2005],

unidimensional measurement models are more precise when it comes to convergent and discriminant validity. The number of indicators used to measure the hosting construct was reduced to a 4-item unidimensional measure. Post hoc analysis revealed that a two-dimensional structure was a possibility for the hosting construct. This measure and its dimensionality need to be explored in future studies.

Model specification error was also a shortcoming of the research. Model specification should include additional predictors of visitation supported by theory. The model should be expanded using theory and literature that would help explain visitation patterns. This might include a more general measure of attachment theory with multiple dimensions.

Final Thoughts

Structural equation modeling was used to examine the hypothesized relationships by imposing the structure of the direct and indirect effects on the sample data from second-home owners. These relationships represented proposed behaviors driven by the dimensions of place attachment: place identity and place dependence. The appropriate conclusion was that the data provided a moderate fit to the model. However, place dependence and visitation did not contribute to the proposed model. Place identity, a dimension of place attachment was a driver of word-of-mouth promotion and hosting.

This study developed and tested a behavioral model on the promotion of a destination by second-home owners. The proposed theoretical model examined the psychological attachment to the destination as the causal relationships for visitation, promotion, and hosting behaviors. Place identity and place dependence were proposed to have a positive linear relationship with visitation. Place identity was proposed to have a

moderating effect on word-of-mouth promotion and hosting behaviors directly and indirectly through visitation. And although model fit can be achieved and supported by the goodness-of-fit indices, the structural relationships in the models were not supported. The study does provide guidance into future studies seeking to understand the drivers of second-home owner visitation, word-of-mouth promotion, and hosting.

In closing, this study marks the beginning of a long research stream intended to understand second-home owners and their contribution to tourism. Hair, Anderson, Tatham, and Black (1998) so appropriately depict this reality in their diagram of the research process that ends with a feedback loop to the first step in the process.

APPENDIX I

AIRPORT INTERCEPT INTERVIEW

1. Are you a U.S. or Canadian resident?

   - Yes (next question)
   - No (move on to another person)

2. Do you own a home in Costa Rica?

   - Yes (go to question #4)
   - No (go to question #3)

3. Are you visiting Costa Rica for leisure purposes?

   - Yes
   - No (move on to another person)

Lodging facility(s) where stayed in Costa Rica and # of days

	Lodging Facility #1	Lodging Facility #2	Lodging Facility #3	Lodging Facility #4	Lodging Facility #5
Name of facility					
# of nights in each					

Name: _____

E-mail: _____

Phone #: _____

Password (from off of the gift package): _____

APPENDIX II

SECOND-HOME OWNER WEB-BASED SURVEY AND

RELEVANT VISITOR SURVEY QUESTIONS*

1. *What is your country of primary residence: USA Canada Other

2. *Postal code of primary residence: _____

3. *Number of previous visits to Costa Rica: _____

4. *WITHIN Costa Rica, what was your PRIMARY means of transportation?

    - Airplane
    - Rental car
    - My own car
    - Hotel shuttle bus
    - Tour bus
    - Public bus
    - Boat
    - Taxi
    - Hired car/driver
    - Walked
    - None; we stayed in one place

5. *With whom did you come with on this trip to Costa Rica? *Check all that apply.*

    - No one else
    - Spouse
    - My children (How many? Drop down menu)
    - Other family members (How many? Drop down menu)
    - Friends (How many? Drop down menu)
    - Boyfriend/girlfriend/significant other
    - Other: _____

6. *Total number of nights you stayed in Costa Rica? _____

7. *What was your MAIN reason for coming to Costa Rica? _____

8. *Age:

- Under 20
- 20-24
- 25-34
- 35-44
- 45-54
- 55-64
- 65+

9. *Sex:

- Male
- Female

10. *Annual household income:
(Please indicate whether Canadian dollars or U.S. dollars)

- Under $25,000
- $25,000-$34,999
- $35,000-$49,999
- $50,000-$74,999
- $75,000-$99,999
- $100,000-$149,999
- $150,000-$199,999
- Over $200,000

11. *Marital status:

- Single
- Married
- Divorced/separated
- Widowed

12. *Education level:

- Less than high school
- High school
- Some college
- Associate degree
- Bachelor's degree
- Master's degree
- Graduate degree (Ph.D., Ed.D., DBA, J.D., etc.)

13. *Ethnicity:

Ethnicity (U.S.):	Ethnicity (Canada):
Non-Hispanic White	British Isles origins
Non-Hispanic Black	French origins
Hispanic	Aboriginal origins
Asian/Pacific Islander	North American origins
Native American/Alaska Native	Caribbean origins
Other: _____	Latin, Central and South American origins
	Western European origins
	Northern European origins
	Eastern European origins (including Baltic, Czech, and Slovak origins)
	Southern European origins (including Balkan origins)
	Other European origins (including Jewish, Basque, Gypsy (Roma), Slav (European), and others)
	African origins
	Arab origins (including Maghrebi origins)
	West Asian origins
	South Asian origins
	East and Southeast Asian origins (including Indo-Chinese origins)
	Oceania origins (including Pacific Islands origins)
	Other: _____

14. *Family status:

____ I have no children
____ Number of children over the age of 18 living at home
____ Number of children over the age of 18 living elsewhere
____ Number of children under the age of 18 living at home

15. Do you have legal residence status in Costa Rica as evidenced by a visa?

- Yes
- No

16. In what year did you first visit Costa Rica? (Drop down menu)

17. In what year did you purchase your current home in Costa Rica? (Drop down menu)

18. How are you currently using your home in Costa Rica? (Check all that apply)

    - Vacation
    - Retirement
    - A place to stay because I do business here in Costa Rica
    - A place for me to do my favorite recreational activities
    - Investment
    - Other (please specify)

19. On average, how many days per year is your home in Costa Rica occupied by (you, your family, your friends, renters, and etc.)? (Drop down menu)

20. On average, how many days per year do you stay in your home in Costa Rica? (Drop down menu)

21. On average, how many days per year do you rent your home to others in Costa Rica? (drop down menu)

22. On average, how many days per year do you share—without a charge—your home in Costa Rica? (Drop down menu)

23. On average, how many trips per year do you take to Costa Rica? (Drop down menu)

24. What is the ownership arrangement of your home in Costa Rica?

    - Full ownership
    - Timeshare
    - Fractional ownership
    - Other (please specify

25. In which province is your home located? (drop down menu)

    - Alajuela
    - Cartago
    - Guanacaste
    - Heredia
    - Límon
    - Puntarenas
    - San José

26. Which setting best describes the location of you home in Costa Rica?

- On, near, or looking at the beach
- Mountain
- Urban
- Rural
- On or near a lake or river
- Other (please specify)

27. Which classification best describes your home in Costa Rica?

- Detached single family home
- Multi-unit complex (condominiums, town homes, apartments)
- Other (please specify)

Please indicate your level of agreement with the following statements:

	Strongly Disagree						Strongly Agree
28. Doing what I do in Costa Rica is more important to me than doing it in any other destination.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
29. Costa Rica is very special to me.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
30. I get more satisfaction out of visiting Costa Rica than any other destination.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
31. Visiting Costa Rica says a lot about who I am.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
32. I identify strongly with Costa Rica.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
33. No other destination can compare to Costa Rica.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
34. I am very attached to Costa Rica.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
35. I feel Costa Rica is part of me.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
36. I wouldn't substitute any other destination for doing the types of things I do at Costa Rica.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
37. Costa Rica means a lot to me.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
38. Cost Rica is the best destination for what I like to do.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Please indicate your level of agreement with the following statements:

	Strongly Disagree						Strongly Agree
39. I would recommend visiting Costa Rica to someone who seeks my advice.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
40. I say positive things about Costa Rica to other people.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
41. I would recommend visiting Costa Rica to others.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Please indicate your level of agreement with the following statements concerning the use of your home in Costa Rica an accommodation for visitors such as friends and relatives:

	Strongly Disagree						Strongly Agree
42. I like others to stay with me in my home during their visit to X.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
43. I encourage friends and family to stay in my home when visiting X.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
44. I offer my home as a lodging alternative to visiting friends and relatives.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
45. Sharing my home in Costa Rica with others is one of the reasons for owning it.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
46. Friends and family should stay in my home when visiting Costa Rica.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
47. I invite others to stay with me at my home in Costa Rica.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
48. I maintain a guest room for visiting friends and relatives.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
49. I host guests overnight in my home on most of my trips to Costa Rica.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
50. I regularly host overnight guests in my home in Costa Rica.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
51. I provide my home as accommodations for friends and family visiting Costa Rica.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

APPENDIX III

IRB APPROVAL NOTICES

IRB Approval of the ICT Study

UNLV
UNIVERSITY OF NEVADA LAS VEGAS

Social/Behavioral IRB – Exempt Review
Approved as Exempt

DATE: May 23, 2007

TO: **Dr. Cheri Young,** Hotel Management

FROM: Office for the Protection of Research Subjects

RE: Notification of IRB Action by Dr. Paul Jones, Co-Chair
Protocol Title: Characteristics, Attitudes and Behaviors of North American Tourists to Costa Rica
OPRS# 0704-2332

This memorandum is notification that the project referenced above has been reviewed by the UNLV Social/Behavioral Institutional Review Board (IRB) as indicated in Federal regulatory statutes 45CFR46.

The protocol has been reviewed and deemed exempt from IRB review. It is not in need of further review or approval by the IRB.

Any changes to the exempt protocol may cause this project to require a different level of IRB review. Should any changes need to be made, please submit a **Modification Form**.

If you have questions or require any assistance, please contact the Office for the Protection of Research Subjects at OPRSHumanSubjects@unlv.edu or call 895-2794.

Office for the Protection of Research Subjects
4505 Maryland Parkway • Box 451047 • Las Vegas, Nevada 89154-1047
(702) 895-2794 • FAX: (702) 895-0805

IRB Approval for the Pilot Study

UNLV
CELEBRATING FIFTY YEARS

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: June 19, 2007

TO: **Dr. James Busser**, Hotel College

FROM: Office for the Protection of Research Subjects

RE: Notification of IRB Action by Dr. J. Michael Stitt, Chair
Protocol Title: **Pilot Study on Second-Home Owner Measures**
Protocol #: 0706-2387

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

The protocol is approved for a period of one year from the date of IRB approval. The expiration date of this protocol is June 17, 2008. Work on the project may begin as soon as you receive written notification from the Office for the Protection of Research Subjects (OPRS).

PLEASE NOTE:
Attached to this approval notice is the **official Informed Consent/Assent (IC/IA) Form** for this study. The IC/IA contains an official approval stamp. Only copies of this official IC/IA form may be used when obtaining consent. Please keep the original for your records.

Should there be *any* change to the protocol, it will be necessary to submit a **Modification Form** through OPRS. No changes may be made to the existing protocol until modifications have been approved by the IRB.

Should the use of human subjects described in this protocol continue beyond June 17, 2008, it would be necessary to submit a **Continuing Review Request Form** *60 days* before the expiration date.

If you have questions or require any assistance, please contact the Office for the Protection of Research Subjects at OPRSHumanSubjects@unlv.edu or call 895-2794.

Office for the Protection of Research Subjects
4505 Maryland Parkway • Box 451047 • Las Vegas, Nevada 89154-1047
(702) 895-2794 • FAX: (702) 895-0805

IRB Approval for Modification of the Pilot Study

UNLV
CELEBRATING FIFTY YEARS

Social/Behavioral IRB – Expedited Review
Modification Approved

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: November 8, 2007

TO: **Dr. James Busser**, Recreation and Sport Management

FROM: Office for the Protection of Research Subjects

RE: Notification of IRB Action by Dr. Paul Jones, Co-Chair
Protocol Title: **Pilot Study on Second-Home Owner Measures**
Protocol #: 0706-2387

The modification of the protocol named above has been reviewed and approved.

Modifications reviewed for this action include:

- Changes to the recruitment procedure by purchasing a banner ad and a print ad in the English-Language newspaper of Costa Rica to solicit participation in the online survey.
- A raffle for a $200 cash prize will be given to one randomly selected survey participant.
- Project funding has changed to self-funded.

This IRB action will not reset your expiration date for this protocol. The current expiration date for this protocol is June 17, 2008.

PLEASE NOTE:
Attached to this approval notice is the **official Informed Consent/Assent (IC/IA) Form** for this study. The IC/IA contains an official approval stamp. Only copies of this official IC/IA form may be used when obtaining consent. Please keep the original for your records.

Should there be *any* change to the protocol, it will be necessary to submit a **Modification Form** through OPRS. No changes may be made to the existing protocol until modifications have been approved by the IRB.

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APPENDIX IV

PRELIMINARY SCALE TESTS

PRELIMINARY WORD-OF-MOUTH SCALE TESTS

The following 8-question survey is being used to test a measurement scale on promotion in the context of your experience at the University of Nevada, Las Vegas. No identifying information is being collected. If you continue, you are voluntarily participating.

1. I promote the Hotel College to others. Yes No
2. I promote Las Vegas to others. Yes No
3. I promote UNLV to others. Yes No
4. I promote my professor to others. Yes No

Please indicate your level of agreement with each of the following statements.

	Strongly Disagree						Strongly Agree
1. I would recommend the Hotel College to others.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2. I would recommend the Hotel College to someone that seeks my advice.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3. I say positive things about the Hotel College to other people.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Please indicate your level of agreement with each of the following statements.

	Strongly Disagree						Strongly Agree
1. I say positive things about Las Vegas to other people.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2. I would recommend visiting Las Vegas to someone who seeks my advice.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3. I would recommend Las Vegas to others.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Please indicate your level of agreement with each of the following statements.

	Strongly Disagree						Strongly Agree
1. I say positive things about UNLV to other people.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2. I would recommend UNLV to others.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3. I would recommend UNLV to someone who seeks my advice.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Please indicate your level of agreement with each of the following statements.

	Strongly Disagree						Strongly Agree
1. I would recommend my professor to someone that seeks my advice.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2. I say positive things about my professor to other people.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3. I would recommend my professor to others.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

PRELIMINARY HOSTING SCALE TESTS

Please indicate your level of agreement with the following statements concerning the use of your home as an accommodation for visiting friends and relatives. X represents the location of your home.

	Strongly Disagree						Strongly Agree
1. I like others to stay with me during their visit to X.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2. I encourage friends and relatives to stay in my home when visiting X.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3. I offer my home in X as a lodging alternative to visiting friends and relatives.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4. Sharing my home in X with others is one of the reasons for owning it.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5. Friends and relatives should stay in my home when visiting X.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6. I invite others to stay with me at my home in X.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
7. I maintain a guest room for visiting friends and relatives in my home in X.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
8. I host guests overnight in my home on most of my trips to X.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
9. I regularly host overnight guests in my home in X.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
10. I provide my home as an accommodation for friends and relatives visiting X.							

APPENDIX V

TICO TIMES ADVERTISEMENTS

Images of the Tico Times Print Ads

GRUPO CAMACHO
Member of Morison International

We have over two decades of experience in dealing with both values and success. Our clients have made it possible and we are thankful and committed to them and our team of professionals. It's time to refresh our list of services to fulfill your needs and exceed your expectations. Beyond the borders we have set our services in worldwide locations.

ACCOUNTING SERVICES
Accounting services provided in any currency or language to help you manage decision-making information. We follow the International Accounting Standards and Costa Rican tax compliance.

TAX ADVICE
We provide tax planning services, both domestic and internationally, using the best available legal tools to minimize your tax obligations, in time with the most outstanding engines available to pay your tax dues maximizing your savings globally.
You will be served by a world-leading team of tax intelligence at an effective cost-benefit relationship.

FINANCIAL ADVICE
Development of all types of studies & business plans for money syndication purposes and for obtaining government incentive programs.

MANAGEMENT SUPPORT CENTER
Provides trading services developing different marketing devices for import-export business.
Management services for companies located in rural areas, operating at the San José headquarters to take care of payments and other business obligations.
Online leading advisors @: fiscotax.com

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Fax: (506) 221-3871
P.O. Box 6897-1000 San José, Costa Rica

DO YOU OWN A SECOND HOME IN COSTA RICA?

Researchers at the University of Nevada, Las Vegas are conducting a study on second-home owners of Costa Rica.

If you are interested in participating in the study, please visit www.2ndhomestudy.com for details.

The online survey will take less than 10 minutes to complete.

One lucky participant will be randomly selected to receive a $200 cash prize.

Deadline December 31, 2007

Please visit www.2ndhomestudy.com for participation.

- Coverage without national boundaries for individuals, families, groups and businesses in 150 countries.
- Network of Worldwide recognized medical centers in Costa Rica, Latin America, United States, Canada, Europe and the rest of the world.
- World-Class Health Benefits.
- Superior Customer Service.
- No Residency Requirements.

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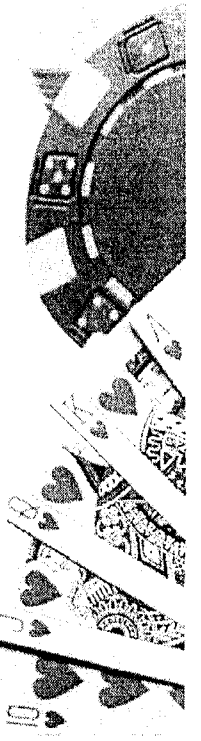

Rural Tourism Needs Help, Advocates Say

By Manuel Valdes
Tico Times Staff

Rural tourism continues gaining popularity with the Costa Rican government, but advocates say more work needs to be done to establish it as an industry in the country.

Since President Óscar Arias signed a decree in 2006 declaring rural tourism a national interest, the Costa Rican Tourism Institute (ICT) has begun creating a network and surveying dozens of establishments around the country that offer this type of recreation.

This month, ICT reported that 14 establishments will fall under the Tourism Declaration, meaning those places will be able to benefit from services provided by the institute. Another 14 will soon follow, according to a press release by ICT.

But Kyra Cruz, director of the Costa Rican Association for Rural Community Tourism (ACTUAR), said some of the regulations that the ICT requires establishments to meet to get the tourism declaration and the subsequent tourism contract must be altered for rural tourism.

For example, she said, to get the declaration, an establishment must have at least seven rooms.

But many places involved in rural tourism don't have the capital to start big, usually only offering three to four rooms, and only expanding if more income comes in. Also, in order for an establishment to be awarded the construction incentives, it must have at least 10 rooms Cruz said.

Inherently, rural tourism has less capital than other kinds of tourism. It's anchored by families and communities in rural places, offering visitors a sample of what many say is a more authentic taste of the country.

"Rural tourism is not based on luxurious rooms or buildings," Cruz said. "From our viewpoint, we offer the luxury of visiting communities, for example, indigenous communities or walk on rural hillsides."

Cruz applauded the ICT for visiting many sites that offer rural tourism, and said that those places with the tourist declaration will benefit from having the ICT stamp.

"I think that the ICT has given its best efforts to organize rural tourism," Cruz said. "It's an important first step."

She added that the ICT has long been a supporter of the annual Rural Community Tourism fair, which took place this past weekend.

More than 50 organizations participated in the fair. It's the biggest promotional vehicle these establishments have to promote themselves. Of the three days the fair lasts, one day is solely dedicated for tour operators to learn about rates and possibilities with rural tourism organizations, Cruz said.

The ICT's efforts come as the government begins to analyze the impact rural tourism has on the country's tourist industry.

In 2006, surveys of departing tourists showed that 8 percent of the more than 1.9 million foreign visitors to Costa Rica declared rural tourism as their main activity, said Marcela Villalobos, an ICT spokeswoman.

Worldwide, rural tourism grew by 50 percent in one year, said Villalobos, citing a report by the United Nations.

ICT also found that tourists visiting rural tourism sites spent two to six days in the country and spent around $99 per day.

"The government has given rural community tourism more importance," Villalobos said.

Rural tourism, she said, is becoming the fourth "macro-product" of the tourism industry. The other three sectors are traditional tourism, like a visit to a sunny beach, eco-tourism, and adventure tourism.

The government has recognized that rural tourism is a means for impoverished regions in the country to supplement their economies, officials said.

It's a "form of boosting local economies, improve income of families in rural zones, work towards sustainable tourism and develop the communities that have enormous potential and currently are considered impoverished areas of the country," according to Allan Flores, general manager at ICT.

But Cruz said that if the government wants to truly make rural tourism its fourth tourism macro-sector, a more aggressive marketing campaign is needed.

She hopes to have talks with ICT on the issue next year.■

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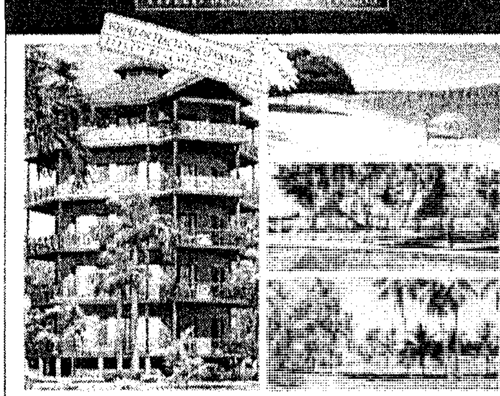

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Airline Sours on Limón

By Peter Krupa
Tico Times Staff

It was supposed to be a one-stop flight. The Nature Air prop plane left Tobías Bolaños airport in Pavas on Saturday carrying a handful of passengers, some bound for Limón and the rest continuing to Bocas del Toro, Panama.

At the Limón International Airport, however, the flight hit a snag: There was no immigration agent to be found, so the Bocas del Toro passengers had to be returned to San José, to be processed by immigration there.

"They weren't pleased," said Alexi Huntley, Nature Air's director of sales and marketing.

Neither was the airline. It was the latest in a string of problems Nature Air has had flying into Limón since the airline began daily flights there only a year ago this month (*TT*, June 23, 2006).

After the incident, Nature Air, which has invested $100,000 in the route to Limón, announced it would suspend its Limón flights.

The suspension was to take effect Jan. 13 unless Costa Rica's bureaucracy can fix the problems Huntley said have caused repeated delays, stranded passengers and limited cargo capacity.

But by Thursday, the airline and the government agreed to work out the problems. Nature Air rescinded its threat to suspend flights.

The government initially reacted to Nature Air's threat with a snarl. Civil Aviation Authority Director Viviana Martín told the dailies *La Nación* and *La República* she may fine Nature Air about $4,000 if the company suspends the route without authorization.

"It doesn't make any sense for the company to talk about infrastructure problems now," Martín told *La Nación*. "When they did their market research to see whether they should fly (to Limón), they decided to do it with the existing conditions."

Huntley, however, said they opened the new route with the understanding that the National Oil Refinery (RECOPE), located just up the coast from the airport, would install refueling facilities there.

That hasn't happened, Huntley said, decreasing the amount of passengers and cargo the planes can carry because they have to fly non-stop from San José to Limón, to Bocas del Toro, and back without refueling.

"The fact that there is not fuel has meant in many cases that we've had to leave passengers behind," Huntley said, citing safety concerns.

Huntley said the application for the refueling facilities is in the hands of the Ministry of Environment and Energy (MINAE) – where it has been for some time now.

Meanwhile, the Limón airport itself is operating without at least one item required of an international airport: a fire truck, as required by the government's own regulations.

"It's an odd situation for us because we're trying to follow what the regulation stipulates but in some senses we're defying it by flying without a fire truck," Huntley said.■

Image of the Tico Times Website Banner Ad

APPENDIX VI

FACTOR ANALYSIS OF MEASUREMENT SCALES

Results of the Exploratory Factor Analysis for Place Identity

Scale Items	Factor Loadings	% ExplainedVariance	Reliability
PI-1	.932	86.85	.949
PI-2	.930		
PI-3	.921		
PI-4	.945		

Results of the Exploratory Factor Analysis for Place Dependence

Scale Items	Factor Loadings	% Explained Variance	Reliability
PD-1	.909	82.69	.930
PD-2	.891		
PD-3	.937		
PD-4	.899		

Results of the Exploratory Factor Analysis for Word-of-Mouth

Scale Items	Factor Loadings	% Explained Variance	Reliability
WOM-1	.969	93.56	.966
WOM-2	.954		
WOM-3	.978		

Results of the Exploratory Factor Analysis for Hosting (unidimensional)

Scale Items	Component 1	% Explained Variance	Reliability
H-1	.920	77.86	.905
H-2	.904		
H-5	.834		
H-6	.869		

Results of the Exploratory Factor Analysis for Hosting (two factors)

Scale Items	Component 1	Component 2	% Explained Variance	Reliability
H-1	.673	.314	76.85	.943
H-2	.935	-.029		
H-3	.879	.035		
H-4	.435	.485		
H-5	.902	-.122		
H-6	.552	.378		
H-7	.737	.050		
H-8	-.063	.980		
H-9	.056	.883		
H-10	.947	-.056		

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