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Leisure Involvement Revisited: Drive Properties and Paradoxes

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This paper reviews 52 leisure involvement data sets in the context of 13 propositions developed a decade earlier (Havitz & Dimanche, 1990). The review suggests that five of the propositions have been strongly or moderately supported in subsequent research and eight have received little or no support. Those receiving the most support related to involvement as a mediator of purchases and participation. Most of the remaining eight have been only partially tested. We critique reasons underlying our varying degrees of understanding and identify shortcomings in the existing leisure involvement literature for the purpose of improving future research designs.

KEYWORDS: *Leisure involvement, social judgement theory, methodology, propositions*

Introduction

. . . past territorial piss-posts, past whispers in the closets, past screamin' from the rooftops, we live to survive our paradoxes. . .
—Springtime in Vienna (The Tragically Hip, 1996)

Given that propositions papers are developed for the expressed purpose of guiding future research efforts, it is appropriate to occasionally examine the extent to which stated propositions have withstood further scrutiny. Building on our recent review piece which critiqued current knowledge of conceptual and measurement issues related to leisure involvement (Havitz & Dimanche, 1997) this paper will critique and extend existing involvement research by synthesizing knowledge within the framework of the Havitz and Dimanche (1990) propositions paper. The present focus is on the consequences of involvement. Thirteen propositions focusing on relationships between leisure involvement and promotion, purchase decisions, and participation patterns are examined. Temporal stability, the study of leisure involvement over time, and attempts to link leisure involvement with sociodemographic characteristics are also critiqued. A summary of key issues for improving future research is provided at the end of each section and general conclusions are drawn at the end of the paper.

We developed a three-category classification scheme for analyzing the propositions, which are indexed using their original Roman numeral designations. Those which have received consistent to unqualified support from

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multiple data sets were categorized as having received strong support. Propositions which have received support from some data sets, but nearly equal levels of non-support from others were described as attaining moderate support. Those receiving support from few studies and/or when non-support is more common were characterized as receiving limited support. The distinctions between categories are not absolute. Because placement of research related to each proposition into the classification scheme is based upon our subjective judgement, it is intended only as a heuristic guide.

We define involvement as an unobservable state of motivation, arousal or interest toward a recreational activity or associated product. It is evoked by a particular stimulus or situation and has drive properties (adapted from Rothschild, 1984). In other words, involvement refers to how we think about our leisure and recreation, and it affects our behavior as well. Leisure involvement has usually been treated as a multifaceted construct including attraction, sign, centrality, and risk. Inconsistent use of these and other lesser reported facets and antecedents by various researchers has complicated interpretation of leisure involvement research. To date, facet-related debate and measurement issues remain contentious and unresolved (Havitz & Dimanche, 1997; Ragheb, 1996).

Does Involvement Mediate Purchase, Use and Participation Patterns?

Our original propositions VI through XII speak to a central tenet of social judgement theory: latitude of acceptance and rejection. As such, we chose to examine them first in this review. Sherif, Sherif, & Nebergall (1965) posited that persons with higher levels of ego involvement will have relatively narrow ranges of acceptance and relatively broad ranges of rejection relative to persons with lower levels of ego involvement. Early involvement research was conducted primarily in the contexts of compelling social and political issues. By the mid-1960s, consumer researchers had broadened the scope of investigation with mixed success. Reviewing those efforts, Kassarjian & Kassarjian (1977) wryly noted that, "Theoretical positions based on the influence of anti-Semitic attitudes on the selection of a political candidate, anti-Russian fears in the support of a defense establishment, or the influence on attitudes of emotional concerns about getting killed in war have been wholly borrowed and applied to the selection of instant coffee, toothpaste, and canned peas" (p. 3).

It is tempting to criticize leisure involvement research on similar grounds. However the frivolity with which society often views the study of leisure notwithstanding, leisure contexts often provide meaningful experiences and afford individuals opportunities to reveal their true selves (Dimanche & Samdahl, 1994; Mannell & Kleiber, 1997; Samdahl, 1988). Mannell and Kleiber wrote that, "In the course of expressing their preferences in music, dress, and other indicators of style, including recreational activities, adolescents make a symbolic statement about who they are like, their peers and role models, and from whom they differ, often their parents" (pp. 236-

237). Observations related to meanings underlying leisure have not been limited solely to studies of adolescents. Perhaps for these reasons, the three propositions (VI, VII, and XI) most extensively tested by leisure researchers have all received strong levels of support. High levels of leisure involvement indeed appear to drive or influence the behaviors of many people.

Leisure and touristic search behavior patterns are positively related to involvement profile scores (Proposition VI). Generally strong support is evident for the relationship between involvement and search behavior. Working in the contexts of tennis and tennis equipment, Celsi and Olson (1988) found that levels of enduring involvement were positively related to both the proportion of thoughts about activity and product, and to the number of activity and product inferences made by respondents. Venkatraman (1988) reported that enduring involvement levels were positively related to innovative behavior and information-seeking among movie goers. Perdue (1993) noted that involvement levels were positively related to importance of information which, in turn, was positively related to information search among recreational anglers. More recently, Kerstetter and Kovich (1997) observed that women's basketball spectators who made attendance decisions more than a week prior to the game were highly involved with respect to "enjoyment", a combination of importance-pleasure-risk, relative to less involved spectators who made more spontaneous decisions. Also in support of the proposition, Jamrozy, Backman, and Backman (1996) found that opinion leaders with respect to nature-based tourism used more information sources with respect to the activity than did non-opinion leaders. However, they found no differences among opinion leaders and non-opinion leaders with respect to number of specialty magazines read.

A limitation of leisure activity involvement and search behavior research conducted to this point is that few of the studies offered multifaceted interpretations. For example, though Jamrozy et al. used Laurent and Kapferer's (1985) multifaceted Consumer Involvement Profile (CIP), they did not report multifaceted results with respect to this Proposition. As result, little is known regarding relationships between search behavior and the facets of attraction, centrality, sign, or risk.

Reid's (1992) research involving first-time fitness participants provided mixed support for Proposition VI. He reported that, contrary to predictions, highly involved participants were no less likely than were less involved participants to rate their purchases as trials. That is, few people in either group signed up for programs for the express intent of testing their efficacy. This suggests limited search behavior among either low or highly involved participants. Reid also reported mixed support was found for hypotheses that highly involved participants would acquire information from different sources than would less involved participants, and that the two groups would rate the importance of information from various sources differently. Highly involved participants used family sources and personal observation to a greater extent than did less involved participants. Highly involved participants also ranked these two sources as being more important than did their

less involved counterparts. Although mean scores consistently appeared higher among highly involved participants, statistically significant differences were not found between groups with respect to other information sources including friends, co-workers, agency brochures, agency advertising, front desk staff, or instructional staff.

Traditional program brochures are used by many agencies in part because of their long "shelf life." Shelf-life is an important factor favoring magazine-format promotion material over shorter lived options such as newspaper, magazines, and television. Mixed support for Proposition VI was provided by Hammer (1997) who found that highly involved participants kept municipal recreation program brochures longer than did less involved participants. However, he reported no differences between groups with respect to actual use of the brochures. Kim, Scott, and Crompton (1997) observed that involvement (specifically the attraction facet) was positively correlated with activity-specific reading behavior among birders but that sign and risk facet scores were not significantly correlated with activity-specific reading. Likewise, Vogt (1994) suggested that involvement with vacations, specifically vacations in the mid-western part of the United States as measured with Zaichkowsky's (1985) Personal Involvement Inventory (PII), was less influential in predicting information source used by potential travelers than were three types of information needs (functional, innovation, and hedonic). Interestingly, two of the five need types included in Vogt's informational framework (hedonic and social/sign) have obvious parallels to components of multifaceted involvement scales such as the CIP and McQuarrie and Munson's (1987) Revised Personal Involvement Inventory (RPII), and a third (functional) seems related to the importance facet.

Ability to differentiate between facilities, equipment, and destinations is positively related to involvement profile scores (Proposition VII). Though strongly supported by many studies, it is apparent that Proposition VII is over-simplistic. Increasing use of multifaceted scales has exposed this oversimplification. Interpretive problems arise when, for many people, scores on one or more facets rise at the same time scores on other facets decline. Specifically, ample evidence of inverse relationships between risk probability and other facets (e.g., Kim et al., 1997), especially attraction, is interesting because the presence of high risk probability scores implies that ability to differentiate between various products and services is present (Havitz & Dimanche, 1997). Yet, high risk probability scores more often occur among relatively uninvolved participants. An example of this phenomenon was provided by Havitz, Dimanche, and Bogle (1994). Of the six fitness markets identified, three had both below average attraction factor scores and above average risk probability scores, and two others had above average attraction scores and below average risk probability scores. Scores for the two facets were congruent in only one instance. For that market, both risk and attraction scores were above average.

Additional, if more traditional, support for Proposition VII has been provided by Venkatraman's (1988), Bloch, Black, and Lichtenstein's (1989), Chan and Misra's (1990), and Jamrozy et al.'s (1996) research related to

involvement and opinion leadership. In each of these studies, level of involvement was positively related to opinion leadership, indicating that ability to differentiate between products and services increases with level of involvement, and that highly involved participants are sought by others as knowledgeable sources of information. Twynam's (1993) research also implied that level of involvement is positively related to participants' abilities to differentiate, in this case between travel services. Green and Chalip (1997) reported positive relationships between level of organizational commitment and parents' level of involvement with youth soccer, and between children's program satisfaction and level of involvement with youth soccer. The relationship (ability to differentiate) seems to apply to leisure-related clothing as well. For example, Warnick, Sutton, and McDonald (1999) noted that highly involved golfers were more likely to agree with the statement that golf clothing that is specific to the game enhances performance than were less involved golfers.

Gahwiler and Havitz (1998) provided strong support for Proposition VII as members of various social groups exhibited widely ranging levels of commitment to the YMCA as measured both quantitatively and using in-depth interviews. Members of the group with the highest activity-based attraction, sign, and centrality scores consistently reported the most resistance to change with respect to their YMCA memberships. In other words, people who reported high involvement with a particular activity (e.g., aerobics, weight training, running) also tended to report strong levels of psychological commitment to a favored service provider. Similarly, Schuett (1995) found that the centrality facet was a significant predictor of the types of social groups sought by kayakers. Participants with high centrality scores were more likely to kayak with friends, whereas those with low scores were more likely to seek guided services and kayaking classes. In addition, enjoyment (pleasure) facet scores were positively related to participation with outing clubs. Working in the contexts of aerobic dance and weight training, Dimanche and Havitz (1995) found that attraction, risk probability, and risk consequence scores were all significant predictors of global service quality perceptions. Also, risk probability and attraction scores were significant predictors of empathy/responsiveness perceptions, and attraction scores significantly predicted reliability perceptions. Empathy, responsiveness, and reliability represent dimensions of overall service quality perceptions (e.g., Crompton, MacKay, & Fesenmaier, 1991). Lankford, Hetzler, & Kitajima (1996) found that sign scores were significantly correlated with wave surfing satisfaction among Japanese tourists in Hawaii. Their regression analysis revealed that sign value scores and site attributes accounted for much of the variance in respondents' satisfaction scores.

However, several studies have provided evidence counter to Proposition VII. First, Schuett (1995) noted that scores related to the importance and self-expression facets did not significantly predict the social group preferences of kayakers in any of seven situations (classes, alone, friends, guides,

teachers, outing clubs, and fellow kayakers). Second, no involvement facets successfully predicted perceptions of the service quality dimensions of assurance and tangibles in the just mentioned fitness-related settings (Dimanche & Havitz, 1995), nor did most involvement facets predict satisfaction scores among Japanese tourists (Lankford et al., 1996). That sign predicted satisfaction scores, but not service quality scores, in these highly visible, socially oriented activities (fitness classes and international tourism) is both interesting and confounding, and suggests that additional research is needed regarding relationships between involvement facets and these constructs. Also counter to the proposition, Reid (1992) found no differences between high and low involved first-time purchasers' abilities to differentiate on the basis of sixteen fitness facility attributes (e.g., price, quality of equipment, friendliness of staff). Possible explanations for the incongruence of Reid's data with those of other studies may relate to the homogeneous nature of his sample (he surveyed only first-time participants) and that he used the single-faceted PII to measure level of involvement. Finally, contrary to their reported relationship between children's program satisfaction and their involvement with youth soccer, Green and Chalip (1997) reported no relationship between parents' program satisfaction and their involvement with youth soccer.

Participants' involvement profile scores will be positively related to their frequency of participation, travel, or purchase (Proposition XI). This proposition has been extensively tested and has received the strongest support of the thirteen. First, research conducted using single item and inferred measures of involvement has consistently supported Proposition XI. Venkatraman (1988) reported positive relationships between enduring involvement and movie theater attendance. McIntyre (1992) found that a global involvement item was a better predictor of rock climbers' motivations than were perceived experience and perceived skill level. Bright and Larson (1991), measuring enduring involvement using motivation scores, reported higher (positive) attitude-behavioral intention correlations among wildlife viewers with higher levels of involvement.

Likewise, research conducted with multiple-item unidimensional scales has also revealed, in a variety of settings, relatively straightforward positive relationships. Norman (1991) found that involvement levels were positively related to propensity to vacation travel. Backman and Crompton (1989) found that level of involvement was a consistent predictor of activity continuation (high involvement) and discontinuation (low involvement) in the contexts of golf and tennis. McCarville, Crompton, & Sell (1993) reported that highly involved aerobic dancers more often indicated intentions to participate in the activity in the future than did less involved respondents. Bloch's (1993) exploration of adornment-related recreation revealed that women with high levels of adornment involvement exhibited higher levels of perceived competence, spent more money, and more time per day related to the activity than did less involved respondents. Evidence that highly in-

volved people also influence others was provided by Green and Chalip (1997) who found that highly involved parents encouraged their children to play soccer to a greater extent than did less involved parents.

Heading another group of studies, Bloch et al. (1989), reported that highly involved runners were more committed and spent more money on the activity in comparison to less involved runners. Involvement scores of university students who participated in aerobics were significantly higher than scores of non-participating students (McCarville, 1991). Park (1996) found that adult fitness participants' levels of involvement positively influenced both intensity of participation and frequency of participation, but that length of participation was not related to level of involvement. Ap, Dimanche, and Havitz (1994) reported that, among residents of tourism-dependent communities, involvement with the tourism industry was positively associated with both perceptions of tourism impacts and participation in tourism-related activity. An important limitation of these four studies is that they used the multifaceted RPII and CIP scales, respectively, but analyzed the data using an aggregate involvement score.

A final group of studies are those conducted using multifaceted instrumentation to provide profiles rather than aggregate scores. Facet scores were relatively congruent in many cases. Norman, Fieber, and Clements (1994), for example, reported significant positive relationships between park and recreation directors' levels of involvement (specifically, attraction, risk, and sign scores) and their agencies' interactions with their communities' tourism industries. Schuett (1993) reported that frequency of participation in kayaking increased as overall level of enduring involvement increased. In addition, sensation seeking levels increased as scores on the importance, enjoyment (pleasure), self-expression (sign), and centrality facets increased. Siegenthaler and Lam (1992) found that commitment to tennis was positively correlated with global measures of ego involvement and with all individual facets. Tennis-related expenditures also positively increased in conjunction with involvement scores. Jamrozy et al. (1996) found that opinion leaders with respect to nature-based tourism (opinion leadership predicted by attraction and risk probability facets from the CIP and by the PII scale) took more vacations in general and more nature-based trips than did non-opinion leaders. Havitz et al. (1994) found that fitness participants classified as Knowledgeable Involvement members and Conformist Purchasers had the highest rates of participation among six identified market segments. Knowledgeable Involvement participants had higher than average attraction, sign, and risk probability factor scores. Conformist Purchasers had higher than average scores on sign, risk probability, and risk consequence. It is interesting to note that these two groups were the only markets (of six total) which had above average scores on at least three of the four involvement facets examined in that study. Also in support of the proposition, participation rates were lowest among the two market segments (Undramatized Risk and Low Involvement) in which risk probability and/or risk consequence were the

only facets registering above the norm. Gahwiler and Havitz (1998) found that YMCA members from the social group with the highest activity attraction, sign, and centrality scores spent the most time participating in that activity on a weekly basis, the most time at the YMCA, were more likely to read about the activity, participate in competitions, attend courses, and purchase activity-related books than were members of other social groups.

Though still supportive of the proposition, however, research conducted with multifaceted scales has often revealed relatively complex relationships between involvement and participation. McIntyre (1989) found that scores on the centrality facet were better predictors of camping setting choices than were a variety of (non-involvement) variables, but that attraction and self-expression (sign) were not significant predictors. Lack of variability within McIntyre's sample may partially account for his conclusion because attraction scores were consistently high among respondents. Kim et al. (1997) noted that birders' scores on the attraction facet were positively related, in the context of that activity, to reading, membership, birding behavior, consumptive behavior, trail use, and festival attendance. However, sign scores only related positively to trail use. Similar to Havitz et al. (1994), Kim and colleagues found risk scores to be negatively related to behavior; in this case ability to identify birds, birding behavior in Texas, consumptive behavior (birding-related equipment), trail use, and festival attendance. They also reported that involvement profiles, though useful, were less predictive of future intentions than were past behaviors. Kerstetter and Kovich's (1997) research lent support to the salience of the attraction facet in spectator sport contexts. Attraction scores were positively related to length of participation and number of games attended among women's basketball spectators, whereas sign was linked positively only with number of games attended.

Two conclusions may be drawn regarding these three propositions. First, though overall support has been strong, more well-conceived research using multifaceted scaling is needed. Building on Laurent and Kapferer's (1985) work and our own data, we (Havitz & Dimanche, 1997) argued that involvement is better understood not as a single score, but in terms of "involvements" because most people exhibit combinations of high and low involvement on the various facets. As such, it is difficult to sort out the relative influence of various facets on subsequent behavior. Second, numerous types of behavior must be considered. Considering only participation not to mention the search, planning, purchase or recollection phases of leisure experience, Iwasaki and Havitz (1998) identified from the literature at least six behavioral nuances: duration (participation over an extended time period), frequency (visits over a specified time period), intensity (e.g., hours per week devoted to participation), sequence (e.g., purchase patterns within or between brands), proportion of purchase relative to other product or brand options, and probability of purchase or participation. Involvement studies to date have only begun to explore these diverse outcomes. Though involvement's drive properties with respect to frequency of participation are rea-

sonably well understood, the following four propositions (VIII, IX, X, and XII) related to search and choice behavior require additional research before definitive conclusions can be drawn.

The number of options in participants' awareness sets are positively related to involvement profile scores (Proposition VIII). It is intuitive that interest and awareness should be correlated, whatever the context. However, limited support is evident for Proposition VIII. For example, in his study of first-time fitness participants using the Personal Involvement Inventory (PII), Reid (1992) found no significant differences in numbers of agencies or services in awareness sets of high and low involved respondents. Though not statistically different, high involved respondents' mean scores appeared to be larger with respect to both dependent variables (agencies and services). Small sample size and lack of dimensional specificity of the PII scale may have contributed to the lack of significant differences between groups.

Bloch et al. (1989) reported mixed results with respect to this proposition in the context of recreational running and related equipment. Commitment to running was positively related to equipment knowledge. It is important to digress briefly at this point to discuss relationships between involvement and commitment. Though most involvement researchers likely disagree with assertions that commitment is synonymous with involvement as implied by some researchers (e.g., Ewert & Hollenhorst, 1994; McIntyre, 1989), there is consensus that the two constructs are conceptually related (e.g., Backman & Crompton, 1989; Iwasaki & Havitz, 1998; Kablach & Ellis, 1997). Kablach and Ellis, for example, reported significant commitment by ego involvement interactions in their study of self-efficacy within video game settings. Their data are discussed at greater length under the heading of Proposition IX. Distinctions between the two constructs were partially highlighted by another Bloch et al. hypothesis test which surprisingly showed no positive relationship between perceived equipment importance and equipment knowledge. Though Bloch et al. did not use a common involvement scale in this test, importance/interest or attraction is the one universally accepted facet of leisure involvement. Bloch et al. attributed the lack of relationship to the phenomenon of aspirational overbuying which is, they argued, common among many novice sports participants. That is, some novices are prone to purchase "the latest" and perhaps top-of-the-line equipment in order to fit in or for self-presentation reasons; a concept discussed later in this review.

The most convincing evidence in support of Proposition VIII has been provided by Celsi and Olson (1988) who found that enduring involvement with tennis was positively related to the proportion of thoughts about the activity and associated equipment, and to the number of product-related inferences. Also in support, Howard & Havitz (1995) noted that recreation participants in two target markets with high attraction scores visited more sites both in-season and off-season than did their counterparts in four market segments with lower attraction scores.

Participants with high involvement profile scores will have small evoked sets in proportion to the size of their awareness sets (Proposition IX). In simple terms, awareness sets refer to the universe of options known to an individual, whereas evoked sets refer to those options from which that individual might realistically choose. Although most of the studies reported in this section appear to support Proposition IX, we have chosen conservatively to state only moderate support because few of the reported studies were developed to test it specifically; hence there is considerable "noise" hindering interpretation of the studies in this context. Several studies, however, provided relatively straightforward conclusions. McIntyre & Pigram (1992) suggested that involvement profiles were useful for differentiating between management policy preferences of vehicle-based campers. In particular, they found that campers with the highest self expression (sign) scores were most sensitive to the conditions of facilities, and those with the highest centrality scores were most sensitive to management actions. Ewert and Hollenhorst (1994) found that highly involved rock climbers placed more importance on equipment, participation with peers, and sought settings which provided more challenge. They also found that relative to less involved participants, highly involved white-water boaters were more likely to seek out situations involving self-decision-making, placed more emphasis on equipment, preferred relatively small loosely organized program groups, and preferred more natural settings. In a study of consumer complaint behavior, Twynam (1993) found that higher levels of involvement on the facets of importance, risk consequence, and sign were predictors of "private response", for example ceasing patronage of a particular airline, among dissatisfied air travelers. However, risk probability was the only involvement facet predicting private response among dissatisfied hotel users. Schuett (1993) found that kayakers with high enjoyment (pleasure) scores were more likely to participate with friends in unstructured settings whereas those with high self-expression (sign) scores were more likely to join organized kayak clubs.

Bloch et al.'s (1989) research was cited when this proposition was developed. They noted that equipment importance was positively related to opinion leadership in the context of recreational running. However, it was not clear whether opinion leadership necessarily implied a narrow range of acceptance, which would be supportive of Proposition IX or, as was suggested by Bloch et al. (p. 198), whether it simply implied a broader range of product knowledge. Also providing tentative support of the Proposition, McCarville (1997) in an experiment developed to simulate price options in a regional park setting, found that respondents with higher involvement levels expressed lower willingness to pay levels than did their less involved counterparts. His research suggested that prior experience (familiarity with conventional prices for such park access) may have anchored highly involved participants' willingness to pay at lower levels. As a result, parks which charge fees noticeably above the going rate may alienate highly involved visitors more so than they alienate less involved visitors. Indirect evidence was also

provided by Pritchard (1992) who reported that the travel market segment with the highest loyalty scores related to perceived complexity (of decision processes) and resistance to change (to another service provider) also reported the highest importance, pleasure, and sign scores in comparison to three other markets. Also in support, Warnick et al. (1999) found that highly involved golfers were more brand conscious and more likely to favor "attention getting" apparel than were less involved golfers.

Kablach and Ellis (1997), in a groundbreaking study unconventional by leisure involvement research standards, constructed verbal persuasion messages which were given to adolescents diagnosed with depression as they played a SEGA Saturn video game. Rather than simply measured using paper and pencil instrumentation as in all other reported studies comprising this review, ego involvement was experimentally manipulated with random assignment. "In the high ego involvement condition, participants were read a short statement that emphasized that performance in the game was thought to reflect a variety of important abilities and characteristics of participants. In the low ego involvement condition, participants were read a description of the game that suggested that performance in the game was not indicative of other talents and abilities that individuals might possess" (p. 2)[1]. Kablach and Ellis' experiment also measured respondents' levels of commitment and manipulated attribution type (ability and effort). Their data suggested that "ego-involving persuasion messages tend to increase self-efficacy and performance when individuals have high levels of commitment to the activity. Conversely, when ego-involvement is low, high levels of commitment tend to produce lower levels of self-efficacy and performance" (p. 3)[1]. We believe that their data are supportive of Proposition IX, with the caveat, however, that level of commitment played an important mediating role in determining acceptable game conditions. This finding is supportive of Iwasaki and Havitz's (1998) recently proposed model though their model, as described, would attempt to measure involvement with video games in general and measure commitment to the specific brand name (SEGA).

Reid's (1992) research in general was not supportive of Proposition IX. He found no significant differences between high and low involved participants with respect to ability to differentiate service attributes, degree of attitude certainty, or with respect to number of alternative agencies or services considered. He did find evidence that highly involved participants reported more attitude development prior to purchase than did their less involved counterparts. However, Reid suggested that this conclusion may be spurious because of a significant interaction effect between involvement and the other independent variable (ability to differentiate between services). McCarville et al. (1993) found that price expectations for public sector aerobics classes

[1]We have referenced Kablach and Ellis from the 1997 NRPA Symposium on Leisure Research Proceedings. However, quotes used in this paper were taken from an unpublished summary of their research.

differed between highly involved and less involved respondents for three of six treatment groups. In each case, less involved respondents had higher price expectations than did highly involved respondents. Similar to McCarville's (1997) study described previously, the authors noted that highly involved participants may have more accurate price expectations based on the prevailing going rate for such classes. Unrealistically high price expectations, especially in subsidized public sector settings, may be one constraint to participation facing many potential participants with low involvement profiles. Therefore, McCarville et al.'s research suggested, contrary to the proposition, that less involved participants may have narrower evoked sets than do their more involved colleagues. It is interesting to note how subtle changes in questions posed may alter findings with respect to this Proposition. McCarville's (1997) questions related to willingness to pay produced data supportive of the Proposition, whereas McCarville et al.'s (1993) questions related to what respondents expected to pay produced unsupportive data. Both data sets make sense in that less involved participants expect to pay more than perhaps has been the norm, whereas more involved participants are less willing to pay higher prices for traditionally subsidized services.

Participants with low involvement profile scores will have evoked sets of similar size to their awareness sets (Proposition X). Almost no data are available. Reid's (1992) work appeared to support this proposition as the least involved fitness participants from his sample reported mean awareness sets of 1.6 agencies and evoked sets of 1.3 agencies. Both means include the agency actually selected, indicating that most respondents were aware of few, if any, alternative fitness options. Additional research is needed before definitive conclusions can be drawn regarding Proposition X.

Neophytes with high involvement profile scores will tend toward aspirational overbuying (Proposition XII). Although this proposition has not been directly tested since it was proposed, peripheral data have been collected. Bloch et al.'s (1989) research in support of the proposition was discussed by Havitz and Dimanche (1990). Subsequently, Reid (1992) has reported data in which the involvement levels of the majority of first-time participants were high. However, he presented no evidence suggesting that those respondents differed from less involved participants with respect to purchase and spending patterns. Havitz et al. (1994) and Havitz and Howard (1995) identified market segments which included high percentages of neophytes and which had above average purchasing patterns when compared with other markets. However, the inclusion of some longer-term participants in those same markets confounds meaningful analysis in the context of Proposition XII.

The latter four propositions in this section have remained largely untested for several reasons. With respect to propositions VIII and IX, leisure researchers in general have devoted few resources to studying choice sets relative to efforts by researchers in allied fields such as geography and tourism. Regarding propositions X and XII, leisure researchers have, until recently, focused relatively little effort on either non-participants or low involved participants. Recent developments with respect to the study of

constraints (e.g., Jackson, 1993) may eventually pay dividends in this respect although, to date, the constraints to leisure and leisure involvement bodies of literature have evolved largely independent of each other.

How Enduring is Enduring Involvement? Is Involvement Stable Over Time?

The preceding section documented relatively consistent relationships between involvement and various behaviors, especially in cases where numerous data sets exist. By contrast, temporal relationships, such as those between situational and enduring (ego) involvement are less studied and less understood. Most leisure involvement research has focused on the latter (enduring) concept. Sherif, Kelly, Rogers, Sarup, and Tittler (1973) argued that, "Self [ego] is conceived as a system of attitude structures which when aroused by ongoing events, are revealed in more characteristic and less situation-specific behaviors toward objects or classes of objects" (p. 312). Sherif and colleagues, consistent with subsequent efforts by leisure researchers, concentrated primarily on the enduring properties of ego involvement. However, their acknowledgments of "ongoing events" and (albeit) "less situation-specific behaviors" implies that situational components exist. Though most leisure involvement studies have focused on enduring involvement, other leisure research lines have concentrated on experiential involvement, aesthetic experience, absorption, and flow; all situational in nature (see Mannell & Kleiber, 1997 for a summary of this literature). To date, it is safe to say, most research conducted on the latter topics has been done independent of the involvement research reviewed in this paper. Exceptions include Celsi & Olson (1988) who studied felt involvement and Ragheb (1996) who considered situational involvement (for example, intensity and absorption).

We chose, in our initial paper (Havitz & Dimanche, 1990) from the myriad of possible situational influences, to emphasize temporal concerns. We developed three propositions, all focusing on time-related issues: season, phase of experience, and life span. Unfortunately, cross-sectional research (50 of the 52 data sets examined in this review[2]), has proven ineffective in advancing understanding of the stability of leisure involvement over time.

Leisure and touristic involvement fluctuates in predictable seasonal patterns (Proposition III). In hindsight, this proposition and its two companion propositions are worded in a direction inconsistent with theory. If leisure involvement is indeed ego-oriented, hence enduring, then involvement scores or profiles should be stable over time. However, we have argued that the literature is inconsistent with respect to conceptualizing the enduring nature of various facets (Havitz & Dimanche, 1997). For example, even proponents of multidimensional interpretations (e.g., Laurent & Kapferer, 1985) have suggested that sign and risk may represent situational antecedents rather than

[2]Research from several new data sets has been published since the our review was initiated. Studies by McCarville (1997) and Kablach and Ellis (1997) should be added to Table 1 as provided in Havitz and Dimanche (1997).

stable facets. Regardless, some limited support is apparent for Proposition III. Just one data set has been collected to date. Havitz & Howard (1995) examined involvement of participants in the context of three recreational activities (downhill skiing, golf, and wind surfing) and associated products (skis, golf clubs, and sail boards) using a panel survey approach. Activity involvement scores on the attraction and risk probability facets were stable between seasons but sign and risk consequence scores fluctuated, attaining their highest levels for all three activities in the pre-season and reaching the lowest levels during the off-season. Six distinct activity involvement-based clusters were found in the sample and analyses suggested that cluster memberships were generally stable across seasons. Product involvement scores for all four facets were stable across seasons, implying that (perhaps) product involvement is more stable than is activity involvement. In addition to the single-sample limitations already noted, the data were collected entirely from university students in a single community. Replication using a variety of settings and samples is necessary in order to fully test this proposition.

Leisure and touristic involvement fluctuates between search, purchase, participation, and recollection phases of the experience (Proposition IV). No longitudinal studies have been conducted for the express purpose of testing this proposition, although some peripheral evidence has been compiled to provide limited support. For example, Celsi and Olson (1988) found that level of involvement with tennis was positively related to various components of printed tennis-related promotional material. Their data suggested that involvement played a motivational role in people's attention and comprehension processes. Perdue (1993) found that ongoing external search behavior among recreational anglers was also influenced by their levels of enduring involvement, measured with a single-item statement, with the activity.

Future research related to Proposition IV should be designed on longitudinal bases using panels of participants. The length of the panel designs may vary dependent on the type of activity and/or leisure context under examination. For example, the time frame may be lengthy for research on international vacation travel but may be relatively short for more common experiences such as swimming, whether at weekend getaways on nearby lakes or trips to local swimming pools. One important issue which must be sorted out in order to successfully address Proposition IV is the relationship between situational and enduring involvement. Richins, Bloch, and McQuarrie (1992) argued that situational and enduring involvement are additive in nature, acting together to produce higher levels of total involvement with products during purchase situations. Measurement remains problematic, however. Havitz and Howard (1995) discussed shortcomings of current efforts to measure situational involvement which have to date relied primarily on behavioral surrogates. Havitz and Samdahl (1999) reported some success adapting selected items (one from each facet of the CIP) to situational contexts for use in experiential sampling method (ESM) research. Neither study supporting this research (i.e., Celsi & Olson, 1988; Perdue, 1993) used multidimensional involvement measures, so no evidence exists regarding the en-

during or situational properties of sign, risk, centrality, or other facets as they relate to phases of leisure experience. It seems likely that papers published in JLR, 30(3) will provide methodological insight into the study of Proposition IV, though that issue was not available as this paper went to press.

A related area for further study could consider a person's involvement with a product or service, moderated by his or her experience with that particular product or service. For example, contrary to intuition which suggests that involvement levels rise over time, first-time buyers of a service may be in a high involvement situation whereas repeat buyers' involvement levels may be lower. Loyal participants who have already experienced the search, purchase, and recollection phases might be less involved, especially with respect to importance and risk, than are novice buyers.

Leisure and touristic involvement fluctuates over the life-span (Proposition V). Limited support is evident for Proposition V. Again, the major reason for this qualification is that no long-term panel survey data are available and this is obviously the type of data needed to directly address the question. Despite the qualifier raised in the preceding paragraph, positive relationships have been found between leisure activity involvement and length of participation (Havitz & Howard, 1995). Their cross-sectional data revealed significantly higher attraction and risk probability scores among recreation participants with multiple years of experience as compared with participants with less than one year of experience. The same trend was apparent for the sign and risk probability facets, though the differences were not statistically significant. Of course, the differences reported over time by Havitz and Howard may have little to do with respondents' life-span circumstances but instead be tied to variables like level of experience. Also using cross-sectional data, Gahwiler and Havitz (1998) found that YMCA members placing into the social group with longest term memberships (75% of these "insiders" had participated 10 or more years) had higher attraction, sign, and centrality scores with respect to their favored activity than did members of social groups with less overall longevity. Bloch et al. (1989), studying distance runners, provided evidence that sports equipment involvement levels may be quite high even among newcomers to an activity. The literature has also suggested that involvement levels do not necessarily increase over time, but may stabilize and/or decrease. Richins and Bloch (1986) noted that enduring involvement remains stable "subject to change over long periods of time only as when some teenagers' involvement with rock music declines as they reach adulthood" (p. 281). As such, panel data collected over extended periods of time may show leisure activity involvement scores forming parabolic curves, at first increasing and eventually decreasing among many participants as they age and/or develop new interests. Kuentzel and McDonald (1992) noted this pattern with respect to recreation specialization and commitment. Multifaceted instruments may further complicate interpretation of such patterns because scores on individual facets rarely rise and fall in concert with each other (Havitz & Dimanche, 1997).

In summary, this section of our review suggests that leisure involvement researchers have not collected the longitudinal, panel-based data needed to

answer temporal questions. Also needed is greater cross-fertilization with situationally oriented leisure research (e.g., Csikzentmihalyi, 1990, Hull, 1991, and Stewart, 1992), and with other enduring contexts like serious leisure (e.g., Stebbins, 1992). New propositions are needed. For example, high enduring activity involvement should foster more instances of flow in leisure settings; and that high enduring activity involvement should lead to more positive mood states during leisure participation (and perhaps greater carryover of positive moods into subsequent leisure and non-leisure activity).

Can Involvement Profiles Assist in Leisure Services Promotion?

Krugman (1965) is generally credited with introducing involvement theory to the study of consumer behavior when he published a study of advertising under low involvement conditions. As might be expected, promotion-related involvement research is not as common in the leisure literature as in consumer research. This is especially true with respect to low involvement participants and non-participants because leisure researchers studying the construct have, to date, been primarily interested in understanding high involvement (Havitz & Dimanche, 1997). Most communication-related studies within the mainline leisure literature has, surprisingly, been conducted by outdoor recreation researchers interested in studying the efficacy of interpretive messages in park settings and, less surprisingly, among tourism researchers (see Manfredo, 1992 for a summary of leisure-based communication research). Two propositions (XIII and XIV) are examined in this section.

Participants with high involvement profile scores will respond best to persuasive forms of promotion (Proposition XIII). Moderate support has been provided for Proposition XIII. Two relatively early studies (Celsi & Olson, 1988; Havitz & Crompton, 1990) were cited in the development of the proposition. Working in the context of tennis and tennis equipment, Celsi and Olson reported that enduring involvement levels were positively related to both the proportion of thoughts about the activity/product and the number of activity/product related inferences. Taken together, these findings support the use of rational, persuasive promotion for highly involved audiences. Working in a controlled laboratory setting, Havitz and Crompton found that people with high involvement scores for aerobic dance and camping were persuaded by rational arguments related to where they should participate in the two activities.

More recent research has been only partially supportive of the proposition. In the context of aerobic dance classes, McCarville et al.'s (1993) laboratory experiment regarding the influence of persuasive messages on reference prices (what people expect to pay for a program or service) revealed that, contrary to predictions, post-treatment reference price levels of low involved individuals were significantly higher than those of high involved individuals in two of five experimental treatment groups. In addition to program information, one of those treatment groups received realistic information regarding the public sector agency's costs of providing the service.

The other group, in addition to program information, was notified that resources would be taken from participants at another recreation center if their fees did not cover operating costs. In other words, two rational persuasive messages provided in that controlled setting appeared more effective in raising low involved people's reference price levels to "realistic" levels than they were for raising reference price levels of high involved people.

However, the three treatment groups for which no significant differences were found supported the proposition because under some conditions persuasive rational messages were more effective in raising price expectations among highly involved respondents than among less involved respondents. Although high-involved control group subjects initially had significantly lower price expectations than did their less involved control group counterparts, these differences were eliminated following introduction of the three treatments. In addition to providing program information, one message noted that programs would be lost at the center if costs were not met through user fees, another stated that increased fee revenue would be used to enhance the center's existing programs, and the third stated that additional fees would be used to enhance other centers in the community.

Reid's (1992) research discussed earlier (see especially Propositions VI and IX) provides indirect support for the proposition. Although there was some evidence that highly involved participants gathered information from different sources than did less involved participants, and rated the importance of that information differently, Reid did not examine the message structure of the various information sources. Indirect support was also provided by Hammer (1997) who found that highly involved participants were more aware of their public recreation agency's seasonal promotional brochures than were less involved participants. The content of municipal recreation agency brochures tends to be rational and information-based rather than entertaining and repetitive (e.g., as is much television advertising). Hammer's is the only research reported with respect to this proposition which reported a multi-faceted analysis of involvement.

Participants with low involvement profile scores will respond best to high repetition, entertaining forms of promotion (Proposition XIV). Proposition XIV has not been systematically tested. Nevertheless, there is some indirect evidence which provides limited support. For example, reference prices of low involved respondents in the latter three treatment groups in the just-described McCarville et al. (1993) study were not moved by rational persuasive messages. The lack of research with respect to Proposition XIII and (especially) Proposition XIV was discussed in the contexts of nature-based travel involvement and opinion leadership by Jamrozy et al. (1996) who stated, "The type of media that are most likely effective in targeting opinion leaders [who had higher levels of involvement than did other participants] is still to be determined, but could include specialty publications and nature oriented organizations" (p. 920). They added that,

> More research is also needed to determine dimensions of involvement in terms of advertisements and situational involvement. In accordance with different in-

> volvement dimensions, informational or emotional advertising strategies might have positive effects in marketing to nature-oriented tourists. If they are emotionally involved in a nature-based tourism destination they may respond more favorably to emotional advertising. Other travelers may require more information in order to reduce the risk of making a poor choice. Their responses might vary based on the situation, what type of trip is asked about, the annual vacation, or the trip being just one of many weekend trips. (pp. 920-921)

These suggestions provide several departure points for research into Proposition XIV.

Promotion has never been a major subject of study among leisure researchers. We have invested considerable effort in studying communication strategies geared to on-site visitors (e.g., Manfredo, 1992), but we have been hesitant to expend similar effort to research methods of getting potential participants there in the first place. Our skepticism is perhaps consistent with leisure theory championing perceived, or still better, "real" freedom and intrinsic motivation. However, it is often inconsistent with efforts of the broader recreation profession, including the public and not-for-profit sectors, which continually construct elaborate and expensive infrastructure, and which regularly lament large segments of inactivity among the general population; while simultaneously decrying our often simplistic promotion efforts as capitulating to the dark side of commercialism. If and when persuasive communication strategies are developed, however, the two preceding simple but largely untested propositions suggest that divergent strategies will be needed to reach highly involved people (largely participants) and less involved people (largely non-participants).

Is Level of Involvement Linked to Sociodemographic Characteristics?

Involvement profile scores can be predicted by sociodemographic characteristics (Proposition XV). Though extensively examined, limited support has been found for Proposition XV. The proposition is poorly written in that directionality of potential relationships are not specified. Though, in fairness, information necessary to provide such specificity was not available in 1990 (nor perhaps, is it available at present). Another important reason for the limited support is that involvement researchers have focused primarily on conceptualizing and measuring this complicated social-psychological construct as a means of moving beyond traditional (non)predictive sociodemographic segmentation variables. This de-emphasis has been desirable, if not necessary, in much of the exploratory conceptual research. Unfortunately, limited knowledge regarding relationships between involvement and sociodemographic variables can also be traced, in large part, to methodological shortcomings. First, few studies have been designed to systematically explore such relationships. Exceptions include Madrigal, Havitz, & Howard (1992), Obenour & Backman (1995) and Wiley (1995). Wiley's analysis of the gendered context of sport participation represents the first leisure research attempt to isolate, a priori, a single sociodemographic variable as an independent variable in involvement research. The remainder of leisure

involvement research generally considered sociodemographic variables on a post hoc basis, for example, Havitz et al.'s (1994) use of sociodemographics as a confirmatory variable for making accessible already identified involvement-based market segments. A priori specification is clearly superior to post hoc analyses if an intent of the research is to probe sociodemographic-leisure involvement relationships.

A related problem characterizing leisure involvement research with sociodemographic variables has been the almost universal practice of comparing two (or more) groups of people rather than to explore in-depth the characteristics of a single group. Henderson (1994) referred to this practice as "dichotomous difference" scholarship. Madrigal et al.'s (1992) examination of married couples and Obenour and Backman's (1995) study of African-American tourists, and Lankford et al.'s (1996) research involving Japanese tourists represent important exceptions. Though arguing that dichotomous difference methodologies have a legitimate role in overall research agendas, Henderson, writing in the context of gender, noted that "The risk of dichotomous differences research has been that it can oversimplify, over claim, and may restrict opportunities for an individual regardless of her/his gender. In other words, difference does not imply hierarchy and difference should not be associated with deficiency. Further, differences are generally not absolute" (p. 124). She added that "The acknowledgment of differences can lead our research into new directions IF [her emphasis] differences become the stepping-off point for further inquiry and not the explanation of results" (p. 125). There is little evidence that leisure involvement researchers, to date, have heeded her advice. Instead, we have often made statements to the effect that men were more involved than were women, or that risk scores were lower among older adults, but provided little explanation as how they impact professional practice, and made still fewer inferences as to why those relationships exist and why they matter.

A third problem is that sample size limitations and post hoc treatments of sociodemographic variables in leisure involvement research have often led to the collapsing of potentially divergent groups, such as single never married, divorced, separated, and widowed people, into one (in this case "single") category. Such decisions preclude meaningful and in-depth analyses of leisure involvement and these variables. For example, the literature provides some evidence that age and involvement interact (Madrigal et al., 1992; Siegenthaler & Lam, 1992), however only chronological age has been considered to date. No effort has been made to incorporate the social construction of age related issues including historical cohorts (e.g., depression era versus Baby Boomer versus Generation X), perceived age, or relationships between age and length of participation (Henderson, Bialeschki, Shaw, & Freysinger, 1996; Warnick, 1995). Longitudinal panel surveys must be conducted to supplement more common cross sectional data in order to fully understand relationships between age and leisure participation (Smale & Dupuis, 1995) and in the context of this discussion, leisure involvement. Finally, limitations related to over-reliance on standardized instrumentation, middle-class activ-

ities and populations, and deductive analyses have diluted the potential richness of research to date. Nearly all leisure involvement research has been collected using survey methodologies (47 of 52 data sets). The remaining five studies were laboratory experiments. Data were collected via paper and pencil questionnaires in all 52 studies, although two studies also included personal interview components. Dimanche and Havitz (1994) have criticized leisure involvement researchers' over-reliance on survey-based data collection and objective instrumentation. Though appropriate for the types of questions most frequently asked by involvement researchers to date, this narrow orientation has limited the richness of data collected and has raised numerous other questions related to issues such as directionality of affect.

We have previously lamented the lack of cultural diversity in leisure involvement research (Havitz & Dimanche, 1997). Although over 30 recreation activity contexts and over 15 recreation-related products have been examined by involvement researchers, golf (8 data sets), aerobics/Jazzercise (6) downhill skiing (4), tennis (3), running (3), and camping (3) are the most commonly studied activities suggesting that the research has reflected predominantly white middle-class recreation interests. Of the seven data sets collected specifically in tourism contexts (many other data sets included mixes of travelers and non-travelers), five measured tourists' involvement with travel activities or destinations, and one each measured residents' involvement and recreation professionals' involvement with tourism. Clearly, involvement researchers should make concerted efforts to include diverse study contexts with the objective of reflecting the many recreational and touristic settings available, and more importantly, to capture the diversity of the population. Samli, Wills, and Jacobs' (1993) assertion that involvement is culturally driven has not been fully explored by leisure researchers. However, some supporting evidence exists. For example, Obenour and Backman (1995), in their research with African American tourists reported a factor structure emphasizing sign value, unique from most leisure involvement data sets reviewed. Lankford et al.'s (1996) study of Japanese tourists, though not reporting a factor analysis, also found sign to be an important predictor variable in multi cultural tourism/recreation research. Potentially divergent cultural variations of leisure involvement remain largely unexplored.

Despite these problems, several studies have provided support for Proposition IV. Siegenthaler and Lam (1992) reported that ego involvement with tennis was significantly higher among young adults (aged 18-27) than among other adults. Their explanations that younger players are at the peak of their athletic ability, seek sports as outlets for identity, and have fewer family and job responsibilities than do older players make intuitive sense and are supported in the literature. However, it is unclear from their analysis which involvement facets contribute to the relationship as the authors collapsed their two-factor scale into a single dependent variable for regression analysis. Madrigal et al. (1992) found that family vacation attraction scores were positively related to level of education and negatively related to presence of children in the household, and that sign scores were positively related to

age. Recent evidence, however, suggests that sign items in the CIP scale may represent two distinct sub-scales: self-expression and self-presentation (Dimanche & Samdahl, 1994; Havitz & Dimanche, 1997). That scores on the self-expression component increase with age is consistent with literature. However, high self-presentation scores are more often associated with adolescents and younger adults (Frederick, Havitz, & Shaw, 1994). In contrast to the Madrigal et al. research, Havitz et al. (1994) found that respondents in the fitness market with the lowest attraction scores among the six in their sample had the highest education levels, whereas those in the market with the highest attraction scores had the least formal education. Thus, some data in support of the proposition (that relationships exist) conflict with other data also supporting the proposition. Inconsistencies in these relationships (e.g., age-involvement) may be traced in part to aforementioned methodological limitations. Schuett's (1993) research on adventure recreationists found relationships between overall enduring involvement and gender (females more involved), importance and gender (males more involved), and an inverse relationship between self expression and education level. Working in the context of traditionally male-dominated (ice hockey) and female-dominated (figure skating) activities, Wiley (1995) found that female hockey players reported higher activity attraction scores than did either their male counterparts or female figure skaters. In contrast, male hockey players reported higher activity centrality scores than did either their female counterparts or male figure skaters. The centrality results were predicted based upon gender-based norms and the team orientation of ice hockey in comparison with the individual nature of figure skating. Likewise, the higher attraction scores for male hockey players over male figure skaters were predicted on the basis of gender-based norms. However, the high activity attraction scores of female hockey players was inconsistent with expectations. Wiley attributed the latter finding, in-part, to self-selection among adult women hockey players who reported both high levels of sport involvement and high levels of activity involvement in today's highly gendered environment.

At least as much research, including many of the studies just reviewed, has provided evidence contradicting the proposition. In contrast to Schuett's (1993) finding that involvement and gender (more accurately, biological sex) were sometimes related, six studies found no relationship (Hammer, 1997; Havitz et al., 1994; Havitz & Howard, 1995; Kerstetter & Kovich, 1997; Park, 1996; Siegenthaler & Lam, 1992). Madrigal et al.'s (1992) findings with respect to gender role ideology supported literature which argues that gender roles and attitudes, rather than biological sex, may be better predictors of leisure motivation and behavior. Wiley (1995) also found support for this relationship as less egalitarian males (hockey) and females (figure skating) reported higher centrality scores than did their more egalitarian counterparts with respect to traditional activities. In contrast to the two already cited studies finding relationships between age and involvement, six studies found no relationship (i.e., Hammer, 1997; Havitz et al., 1994; Havitz & Howard, 1995; Kerstetter & Kovich, 1997; Park, 1996; Schuett, 1993). In addition,

none of five studies examining involvement and income found significant relationships (Hammer, 1997; Havitz et al., 1994; Kerstetter & Kovich, 1997; Madrigal et al., 1992; Schuett, 1993) nor did the two which included marital status (Havitz et al., 1994; Havitz & Howard, 1995). Finally, education level was not a significant predictor in studies reported by Hammer or Havitz & Howard, nor was it for most of the involvement facets included in Schuett's research (enjoyment, importance, centrality). Contrary to Schuett's findings regarding self-expression, Madrigal et al. found no relationship between education and sign. Also contrary to expectations, Wiley (1995) found no differences in sign scores between or among male and female figure skaters and hockey players.

In summary, relationships between sociodemographic variables and involvement are not well understood. Many of the inconsistencies found in previous research and difficulties facing future researchers lie in how the variables and facets are measured, and in methodological challenges related to studying sociodemographic issues as an afterthought in research developed first and foremost to address other issues. Better examples are available in the literature both with respect to conceptualizing sociodemographic research and analyzing the data. With respect to the latter issue, for example, tourism and outdoor recreation researchers have successfully employed multiple classification analysis (MCA) with analysis of variance rather than relying on the post hoc tests common in leisure involvement research (Uysal, Jurowski, Noe, & McDonald, 1994).

Implications for Future Research and Practice

We revisited, on the basis of a decade of additional research featuring over 50 independently created data sets, 13 propositions which were proposed nine years previous (Havitz & Dimanche, 1990). Strongest support to date has been provided for three propositions related to leisure involvement's influence on search behavior, ability to differentiate between activity and program options, and on leisure behavior itself. Many practical and theoretical issues remain to be addressed, however. Research has not revealed consistent, simple relationships (e.g., higher involvement equates to more participation). Our limited understanding of relationships between involvement's various facets and antecedents are the source of many inconsistencies. We stand by our original (Havitz & Dimanche, 1997, p. 272) disagreement with Reid and Crompton's (1993, p. 196) assertion that in comparison to unidimensional interpretations "the multi dimensionality of the involvement construct appears unlikely to affect" leisure participants' decision making processes. Cumulative evidence related to these 13 propositions suggests that involvement profiles provide vastly different information for leisure researchers and recreation service managers than do unidimensional scales and global items. For example, attraction scores have been positively related to diverse variables such as magazine readership and frequency of participation, sign scores have been linked to spending patterns, and so forth. Consensus

is likely to remain elusive, but we wish to present ideas for eliminating some of the "noise" which interferes with understanding relationships between leisure involvement and subsequent behavior.

If involvement profiling based on multi-faceted scaling is to be used, both researchers and practitioners must more often use segmentation techniques. Too often we report data from large samples as if respondents were homogenous. Segmentation may be done post hoc through techniques such as cluster analysis, or a priori using discriminant analysis, multidimensional scaling, or like techniques. The intervening step of segmentation is important in the sense that various facets (e.g., attraction, sign, centrality) appear to drive the behavior of some people more than others. As such, the numerous studies which treat their samples uniformly are likely to perpetuate, rather than clarify, existing confusion. Another reason underlying many apparent inconsistencies between involvement and behavior is that most studies have searched for direct linkages, ignoring potential mediating effect of other constructs, for example psychological commitment (Iwasaki & Havitz, 1998). Likewise, consideration of moderating variables has been uneven at best. Future research should make better use of mediating and moderating variables.

Although recreation programming implications have been widely examined in leisure involvement research, other traditional marketing mix components such as distribution, pricing, and promotion have not been adequately explored using involvement-based profiles. First, although relationships between leisure involvement and pricing issues have been subjected to systematic scrutiny (e.g., McCarville, 1989, 1991, 1997), scores from the multifaceted RPII used in those studies have consistently been collapsed into a single global score thus negating potential insights provided by the various facets. Second, promotion research is also lacking as evidenced by the lack of data related to Havitz and Dimanche's (1990) propositions VIII to X, XIII and XIV, and by the lack of published research in follow-up to all of Reid & Crompton's (1993) propositions regarding involvement and purchase decisions. Muehling, Laczniak, and Andrews's (1993) review of involvement and advertising research provides numerous suggestions worthy of consideration by leisure researchers. Third, distribution related issues related to program location, program scheduling, and program provider (e.g., direct provision versus facilitative and outreach options) have not been systematically examined by leisure involvement researchers. These issues have been termed structural constraints in the leisure literature. For example, it might be surmised that highly involved participants would be more likely than would less-involved participants to successfully negotiate structural constraints.

Most of the eight propositions classified here as receiving only moderate to limited support are only partially tested to date. Others (Propositions VIII and XV)have received more attention, but have suffered from methodological shortcomings. These shortcomings, discussed under the headings of the respective propositions, are not insurmountable. Evidence abounds, both

within and beyond the leisure literature, that better ways of examining those propositions and related questions indeed exist.

We concluded an earlier leisure involvement study (Dimanche, Havitz, & Howard, 1991), somewhat lightheartedly, by noting that the jury was still out on Rothschild's (1984) acclimation that "involvement is the greatest thing since sliced bread" (p. 216). Several years and many data sets later, the predictable answer appears to be: "It's not!" But leisure involvement remains an interesting and probably useful construct. We know much more about leisure involvement now than in 1990 and although it has proven to be a reasonably good variable for explaining and predicting leisure behavior the mounting evidence suggests that leisure involvement is a complex topic. It is often tempting to oversimplify, overlook, and overgeneralize in order to make sense of the world. If nothing else, this review provides a compelling example of Boulding's (1983) observation that "Knowledge, furthermore, is by no means the same thing as information, which is only the raw material of knowledge. The process by which information is converted into knowledge involves much more the orderly loss of information than its meaningless accumulation" (p. 11). For every two studies corroborating one set of conclusions, another exists pointing in another direction. One intent of this review was to "lose" information, first by systematically outlining the various findings, then by identifying potential causes of some apparent inconsistencies. We remain convinced that leisure involvement possesses drive properties which influence human behavior; but also that continuous vigilance is necessary to explain numerous paradoxes apparent in the present body of research. Much of the leisure involvement story has been told in the preceding pages. Much more remains to be discovered and written.

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