

The Process of Celebrity Fan's Constraint Negotiation

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Abstract

Celebrities have become an important source of leisure and recreation for people across the globe. This study conceived celebrity fandom in terms of leisure involvement, and, following the work of Hubbard and Mannell (2001), we examined its relationship to leisure constraints, constraints negotiation, and frequency of participation among a sample of Japanese women and men ($n=403$) using a survey method. Importantly, the concept of celebrity involvement was incorporated into the constraints model in lieu of leisure motivation. We predicted that perceived constraints influence negotiation strategies and frequency of participation and celebrity involvement influences perceived constraints, negotiation strategies, and frequency of participation. The results supported all hypothesized relationships. This study expands the applicability of leisure involvement concept, constraints theory and serious leisure to understanding celebrity fandom and highlights the conceptual similarity between leisure motivation and involvement. Given the cross cultural nature of our study, findings also demonstrate the applicability of involvement, constraints, and constraints negotiation among people in a non-western context.

KEYWORDS: *Celebrity, leisure involvement, constraints, negotiation.*

Introduction

This study examines the relationships among celebrity involvement, leisure constraints, negotiation of constraints, and leisure participation within the context of the constraints-effects-mitigation model proposed by Hubbard and Mannell (2001). Importantly, we use celebrity fandom (or involvement) in place of motivation to make predictions about how people experience and negotiate constraints. *Celebrity fandom*

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refers to a state of profound attention and adulation toward a celebrity that is expressed in feelings, attitudes, and behaviors. Our ideas about celebrity fandom are borrowed from theory on leisure involvement.

Although previous studies demonstrate that involvement can serve as an important antecedent for many leisure behaviors and experiences (Bloch, 1993; Ditton, Loomis, & Choi, 1992; Funk, Ridinger, & Moorman, 2004; Havitz & Dimanche, 1997; Havitz & Howard, 1995; Kim, Scott, & Crompton, 1997; Siegenthaler & Lam, 1992; Venkatraman, 1988; Watkins, 1986;), its application to fandom has been virtually ignored. Only two empirical studies by Funk, Ridinger, and Moorman (2004) and Kerstetter and Kovich (1997) have approached (sports) fandom as a type of leisure (enduring) involvement. The association between fandom and leisure involvement is evident from the perspective of serious leisure, which suggests that one's heightened involvement in a chosen leisure activity can provide him/her a source of identity, enduring satisfaction, sociality, and alternative lifestyle. Gibson, Wilming, and Holdnak's (2002) study of University of Florida football fans illustrates that the fandom toward a sports team is a highly involved leisure pursuit and has all the characteristics of serious leisure as outlined by Stebbins (1982, 1992, 1993, 2001). Although sport fans have been examined in previous studies (Gibson et al., 2002; Jones, 2000), fans of a media celebrity/star have never been investigated using the concept of leisure involvement.

The present study attempts to help understand this seemingly neglected research area involving the connection between celebrity fandom and leisure involvement. More specifically, when people engage in celebrity fandom activities, they are subject to various constraints as commonly found in other conventional leisure pursuits. It seems reasonable to assume that avid fans of celebrities are likely to engage in various negotiation strategies to overcome diverse constraints, which helps sustain their level of involvement with celebrities and maintain their identity as a celebrity fan. Thus, there is likely to be a close linkage among celebrity involvement, constraints, and negotiation strategies. Given this conceptual linkage, we examine the effectiveness of celebrity involvement as a conceptual proxy for celebrity fandom within the context of the constraints-effects-mitigation model among a sample of Japanese who were surveyed regarding their perceptions toward a Korean celebrity.

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

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

For this reason, the present study attempts to apply the concept of leisure involvement in place of leisure motivation to test the constraint-effects-mitigation model (mitigation model hereafter), which was strongly supported by Hubbard and Mannell (2001). The mitigation model suggests that people who encounter leisure constraints experience reduced leisure participation. The model also posits that people who encounter leisure constraints seek to skirt these constraints by engaging in negotiation behaviors. The model further holds that leisure motivation has a strong positive influence on efforts to negotiate the constraints encountered by the participants. Having identified the conceptual similarity between leisure motivation and involvement, this study expands our understanding of the relationships among celebrity involvement, leisure constraints, negotiation of constraints, and leisure participation. Simultaneously, it does so within the context of a non-Western context, thus providing rare insight into the cross-cultural applicability of the leisure constructs under investigation.

Literature Review

Leisure Involvement

The study of involvement in the field of leisure and tourism originated from the consumer behavior literature (Havitz & Dimanche, 1997). Researchers considered leisure and tourism to be an expression of one's value or pleasure through high involvement in a leisure/tourism activity. Adopting Rothschild's (1984) definition of consumer involvement, Havitz and Dimanche (1997) suggested that involvement is an:

unobservable state of motivation, arousal or interest toward a recreational activity or associated product. It is evoked by particular stimulus or situation and has drive properties. In other words, leisure involvement refers to how we think about our leisure and recreation, and it affects on our behavior. (p. 256)

Involvement studies in leisure and recreation settings have focused on the impacts of involvement on leisure participants' attitudes and behaviors. Often treated as a psychological antecedent of leisure attitudes and behaviors, involvement has been found to influence the length and frequency of activity participation (Havitz & Howard, 1995; Park, 1996; Schuett, 1995; Venkatraman, 1988), engagement in other activity related behaviors such as club membership and magazine subscription (Bloch, Black, & Lichtenstein, 1989; Schuett, 1993), information search behaviors (Watkins, 1986), and expenditures associated with a chosen leisure activity (Bloch, 1993; Siegenthaler & Lam, 1992). It has also been found to influence preferences and evaluation of the related components of leisure activity (e.g., service providers, facilities, and place attachment) (Gahwiler & Havitz, 1998; Havitz, Dimanche, & Bogle, 1994; Iwasaki &

Havitz, 2004; Kyle & Mowen, 2005) and future intentions to participate in a chosen leisure activity (Kim et al., 1997; McCarville, Crompton, & Sell, 1993). Leisure involvement is conceptually similar to loyalty, although the latter often connotes behavioral consistency toward activities and services providers (Gahwiler, & Havitz, 1998). When seen as conceptually different, leisure involvement is treated as an antecedent of loyalty (Iwasaki & Havitz, 1998, 2004).

It is generally acknowledged that leisure involvement is a multidimensional construct (Havitz & Dimanche, 1997; McIntyre & Pigram, 1992). Previous studies have consistently identified three dimensions of involvement—*attraction*, *centrality*, and *self-expression*—that are particularly salient within leisure and tourism settings. Attraction refers to the perceived importance or interest in an activity or a product, and the pleasure or hedonic value derived from participation or use. Thus, it can be conceived of as a combination of pleasure and importance. Centrality indicates that other aspects of an individual's life are centered on a given leisure activity. According to Scott and Shafer (2001), centrality means "that a person's lifestyle, personal identity, and social networks are constructed around the leisure activity" (p. 330). The last dimension, self-expression (symbolic or sign value attributed by the consumer to the product, its purchase, or its consumption), underscores the extent to which a leisure activity provides an opportunity to express a desired image. These three dimensions represent conceptually distinct aspects of leisure involvement. Combined together, they provide insight into the overall relevance or meaning of an activity in the context of the individual's life (Wiley, Shaw, & Havitz, 2000).

The majority of involvement research has focused only on activities or products as an object of involvement. It is logical to view celebrities as a source of leisure activity or product. A celebrity can become a powerful object of leisure involvement for some fans. Currently, there is no published research that deals with leisure involvement as celebrity fandom. However, literature in the field of sport fandom provides a link to understand the association between leisure involvement and celebrity fandom. The concept of sports fandom has emerged as a way to understand individuals' involvement with iconic figures. For instance, Kerstetter and Kovich's (1997) study of fan behaviors for women's basketball is an intriguing attempt to understand the sports fandom in light of leisure involvement. Their research might be the first attempt to conceptualize fandom (the avid interest in a sports team) as a type of leisure involvement. As previous research on leisure involvement tends to view only conventional leisure activities (e.g., climbing, hiking, bird watching, etc.) as an object of leisure involvement, Kerstetter and Kovich's study helps expand the applicability of the leisure involvement concept to an area that has drawn limited interest from leisure researchers. As the concept deals with individual's involvement with a sporting team or athlete, it bares considerable similarity to individuals' attraction to celebrities in other domains such as movies and music.

Like sport fans (Gibson et al., 1992), celebrity fans not only devote their time and money to celebrity related activities (e.g., watching movies/TV programs that include a favorite celebrity, participating in fan meetings, and purchasing items associated with the celebrity), they also become *emotionally attached* to the celebrity. For avid fans, doing things related to their favorite celebrities becomes an integral part of everyday life, leisure activity and a major part of their self-identity. It makes sense, then, that leisure constraints could constitute a serious threat to fan participation and identification.

Fans faced with leisure constraints are likely to utilize constraint negotiation strategies to defend and protect their self-identity. In the next section we outline a conceptual framework, based on the constraints-effects-mitigation model proposed by Hubbard and Mannell (2001), for examining relationships among celebrity fandom, perceived constraints, constraints negotiation, and frequency of participation in fan activities.

Leisure Constraints

Leisure constraints refer to factors that make leisure participation problematic (Jackson, Crawford, & Godbey, 1993). Over the last two decades, leisure constraints research has become one of the most researched topics in leisure studies (Jackson & Scott, 1999). The research on this issue has made a significant contribution to understanding various leisure behaviors in terms of categorizing non-participants and participants, explaining participants' characteristics, and asking why people do not participate in leisure activities or use leisure services (Crawford & Godbey, 1987; Jackson & Searle, 1985).

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

Constraints Negotiation

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

Constraints negotiation refers to "the strategies people use to avoid or reduce the impact of the constraints and barriers to leisure participation and enjoyment" (Mannell & Kleiber, 1997, p. 341). The idea of constraints negotiation is consistent with the social cognitive view that people actively respond to constraints (circumstances that hamper their goals) by negotiation, rather than passively accepting them and not participating. Hubbard and Mannell (2001) showed that constraints generally had a

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

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

Furthermore, Jackson et al (1993) made a large contribution toward the negotiation research in terms of suggesting the existence of *cognitive* and *behavioral* negotiation strategies. Cognitive strategies are largely based on the cognitive dissonance reduction mechanism; unselected or constrained activity alternatives are devalued and are no longer seen as interesting. Behavioral strategies include taking alternative actions in relation to the chosen leisure activity (e.g., making an effort to learn about other leisure opportunities, altering the timing and frequency of participation, and learning new leisure skills) and changing other aspects of lifestyle (e.g., spending less time at work). Behavioral strategies are further divided into two categories. One category involves modifications to *non-leisure aspects* of one's life in order to accommodate leisure needs (e.g., re-scheduling other activities, cutting back on other expenses). The other category could encompass modifications to *leisure itself* (e.g., efforts to enhance awareness of opportunities, alterations in the timing or frequency of participation, including delayed or reduced participation, and changes in the level of specialization). Consistent with the classification advanced by Jackson et al. (1993), Jackson and Rucks (1995) distinguished two constraint negotiation approaches used by Junior-high and high-school students: cognitive strategies (e.g., pushing themselves harder and ignoring parents) and behavioral strategies (e.g., modifying the use of time and acquiring skills). Negotiation strategies to adapt to or alleviate leisure constraints can be either cognitive or behavioral, but the majority of individuals who negotiate constraints appear to do so behaviorally (Jackson et al., 1993; Jackson & Rucks, 1995). Congruence between leisure constraints and constraints negotiation tactics seems to be an important condition if participation in a chosen leisure activity is to occur (Mannell & Lucks-Atkinson, 2005). For instance, the negative impacts of the most frequently mentioned structural constraint (lack of time) would be alleviated to a great extent via time management negotiation strategies (Mannell & Loucks-Atkinson, 2005).

Conceptual Framework: A Proposed Research Model

Hypothesized relationships among the study constructs are shown in Figure 1. Specifically, the proposed model suggests that perceived constraints influence one's negotiation strategies and frequency of participation in a chosen leisure activity. We propose that celebrity involvement is a proper indicator of participant motivation and influences one's utilization of constraints-negotiation strategies, and frequency of par-

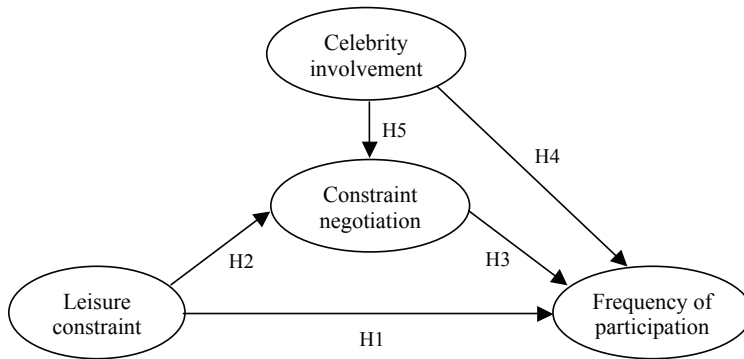


FIGURE 1. A proposed model of leisure constraint negotiation process among celebrity fans

ticipation in fan activities. The linkages among these constructs are explained further in this section.

In general, perceived leisure constraint is conceptualized as having a negative impact on frequency of participation. Several empirical studies have provided evidence that there is a significant negative relationship between these two constructs (Carroll & Alexandirs, 1997; Hawkins, Peng, Hsieh, & Eklund, 1999; Jackson & Witt, 1994; Raymore, Godbey, & Crawford, 1994; Raymore, Godbey, Crawford, & von Eye, 1993). Furthermore, it is argued that perceived leisure constraints can be utilized as an effective indicator to predict participation and non-participation. Therefore, the first hypothesis states:

H1: Perceived leisure constraints will negatively influence frequency of participation in chosen leisure activities.

Since it was recognized that leisure constraints do not always lead to non-participation, several leisure researchers have identified constraints negotiation strategies employed by people, including the acquisition of information, skill development, time and financial management, and interpersonal coordination (Coble, Selin, & Erickson, 2003; Henderson & Bialeschki, 1993; Jackson & Rucks, 1995; Livengood & Stodolska, 2004; Scott, 1991). Furthermore, the types of negotiation strategies people employ have been examined in accordance with different group of people (e.g., women, people with disabilities, and adolescent girls) and the unique leisure constraints they encounter (Henderson & Bialeschki, 1993; Little, 2002).

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

H2: Perceived leisure constraints will positively influence constraints negotiation strategies used by individuals.

H3: Leisure constraints-negotiation strategies used by individuals will positively influence the frequency of participation in a chosen leisure activity.

Havitz and Dimanche (1997) suggested the leisure involvement construct highlights one's interest level and motivational state to participate in a given leisure activity. As Havitz and Dimanche pointed out, a motivational component is almost universally present across various conceptualizations of leisure involvement. Both the concept of involvement and motivation share great similarity in terms of definition, conceptualization, and measurement (see previous sections for the detailed comparisons). Both constructs are seen to be driving forces that direct one's degree of participation in a given leisure activity. Despite this conceptual and operational parallel, involvement and motivation have been independently used in the field of leisure studies. The proposed study attempts to illustrate the seemingly obvious interchangeability of the two variables by substituting the concept of leisure motivation with leisure involvement in the mitigation model.

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

H4: Celebrity involvement will positively influence the frequency of participation in celebrity-related leisure activities.

Although it has not been empirically examined, there also seems to be a strong conceptual linkage between celebrity involvement and constraints negotiation. The possible linkage between the two concepts is more evident when viewed from the perspective of serious leisure. The concept of serious leisure, mainly developed by Stebbins (1982, 1992, 1993, 2001), indicates a state of high involvement in a chosen leisure activity. Among the six unique qualities that characterize serious leisure, a quality of perseverance is a useful feature that may help explain the relationship between a state of high involvement and constraint negotiation. Serious leisure participants (similar to highly involved individuals in a leisure activity) often encounter challenges to their continuous engagement in a chosen leisure activity. Distinguished from casual leisure participants, they are unlikely to discontinue participation but to persevere through difficulties (i.e., leisure constraints).

Several studies of serious leisure have identified several forms of perceived leisure constraints although they were not called constraints. For instance, Stebbins (1992) contended that some intrapersonal constraints (e.g., personal disappointments, tensions and dislikes) are commonly experienced by serious leisure participants. Baldwin and Norris (1999), through the study of the serious leisure experience for American Kennel Club activity participants, documented structural constraints (e.g., monetary

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

H5: Celebrity involvement will positively influence the effort to engage in the constraint negotiation strategies used by individuals.

Methods

Measurement of Variables

Leisure involvement. The level of leisure involvement with Korean mass media celebrities was measured using the scale originally proposed by McIntyre and Pigram (1992). It is based on a three dimensional model (i.e., attraction, centrality, and self-expression) supported by numerous studies in terms of validity and reliability (Havitz & Dimanche, 1997; Wiely, Shaw, & Havitz, 2000). Leisure involvement was measured by asking respondents to indicate how they feel about a leisure activity (in this study, doing activities with Korean stars) on a five-point Likert type scale. A total of 12 items were used to measure individual's leisure involvement with Korean stars/celebrities.

Leisure constraint. Leisure constraints were measured by asking respondents to indicate how important various factors are in limiting their participation in fan activities. The leisure constraints items were developed on the basis of previous studies (Carroll & Alexandirs, 1997; Hubbard & Mannell, 2001; Jackson & Witt, 1994). These constraints items included intrapersonal (6 items), interpersonal (6 items), and structural constraint (6 items). The intrapersonal – interpersonal – structural classification was proposed by Crawford and Godbey (1987) as a useful categorization of leisure constraints. A five-point Likert-type scale was used (1 = “not important” to 5 = “very important”).

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

Frequency of leisure participation. Frequency of leisure participation served as the dependent variable. Leisure activities related to celebrities include watching the movies/TV programs related to one's favorite stars, participating in the stars' fan meetings, getting information about one's favorite stars' through the Internet, news, and magazine articles, talking about one's favorite stars with other people, and purchasing items associated with the stars. To measure frequency of participating in fan activities related to favorite stars, respondents were asked how often they have participated in different aspects of fan activities within the past year. A six-point scale was used to measure the frequency of leisure participation: 1 = "daily or nearly everyday"; 2 = "at least once a week"; 3 = "at least once a month"; 4 = "at least once a year"; 5 = "less than once a year"; and 6 = "never or almost never". For the directional consistency, the items of leisure participation were reverse coded.

Data Collection and Analysis

This study comes from a larger effort to understand relationships among celebrity involvement, constraints, and tourism behavior. The study population was Japanese adults (18 years and older) residing in Japan. A direct, face-to-face survey methodology was used in this study. Questionnaires were administered at the main exit of Haneda International Airport in Tokyo, the capital city of Japan. Although a general survey of Japanese might have been preferred, the study variables (celebrity involvement, constraints, tourism attitudes and behavior) required us to collect data in places where celebrity fans were known to frequent. The Haneda International Airport at Tokyo provided a reasonable context for contacting individuals who had experience traveling and who frequented airports in order to catch glimpses of celebrities.

Three field researchers, all fluent in Japanese, approached potential respondents, outlined the purpose of the research project, and invited them to participate in the survey. After consenting, a self-administered questionnaire was presented to each respondent to complete. Further, the questionnaires were completed in the presence of the field researchers, allowing for rigorous monitoring of the data collection process. Compensations (approximately US \$2-3) was provided to the respondents in order to enhance the response rate.

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

During the survey period, 618 of individuals were contacted by the field researchers; 131 turned down the request to participate in the survey. Consequently, 487 individuals consented to participate in this survey. Among them, 450 subjects returned the questionnaire to the field researchers. A thorough inspection of the collected surveys resulted in dropping 47 questionnaires from the analysis because of

incomplete responses. A total of 403 useable questionnaires were attained at the end of the survey.

Structural Equation Modeling (SEM hereafter), using LISREL (version 8.52), was used in this study. In the previous SEM literatures, a number of fit indices have been recommended. Jaccard and Wan (1996) recommend the use of at least three fit tests. Similarly, Kline (1998) recommends at least four tests. Following their recommendations, this study reports several indices as a measure of fit: chi-square (χ^2), Bentler's comparative fit index (CFI), Bentler and Bonnett's non-normed fit index (NNFI), and standardized root-mean-square residual (SRMR). It is recommended that the indices of CFI and NNFI (each value) have at least .9 for an acceptable fit (particularly close to or more than .95 for CFI), while an SRMR value of less than .1 indicates an acceptable model fit (Kline 1998).

Results

Respondent Sociodemographic Profiles

Table 1 presents key sociodemographic characteristics of the survey respondents. There was a considerably higher presence of female respondents (82.1%) than male respondents (17.9%) and a higher presence of people who were married (85.3%) than were single (14.7%). In terms of education, high school graduates constitute the majority of the respondents (38%) in this study, followed by 2-year college graduates and 4-year college graduates. The overall distribution of different age groups seems to be evenly represented.

TABLE 1
Demographic Characteristics of Respondents

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

The Measurement Model: Reliability and Validity of the Scales

Following Anderson and Gerbing's (1988) recommendation, the properties (reliability and validity) of measurement model were assessed before estimating the structural paths to test the hypothesized relationships between the latent variables. Confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) was used to examine the adequacy of the measurement model on convergent validity, discriminant validity, and reliability. An examination of the measurement model showed a good fit to the data: CFI = .96; NNFI = .95; and SRMR = .054. Values greater than .9 for CFI and NNFI, and value less than .1 for SRMR are the indicative of good fit. Convergent validity can be defined as the agreement among indicators of a scale (Bagozzi, Yi, & Phillips, 1991). The convergent validity was confirmed by all items of which standardized loadings were at least .70 on the specified factors (see Table 2). All loadings were statistically significant ($p < .05$). The item-to-total correlation scores also exceeded the commonly recommended level of .40 (Kline, 1998).

Discriminant validity refers to the principle that the indicators for different constructs should not be so highly correlated as to lead one to conclude that they measure the same thing. It is achieved when measures for different constructs are not strongly correlated among themselves. Discriminant validity was assessed in this study by calculating the square root of the average variance extracted (AVE) for a given construct. This indicator was found to be higher than the absolute value of the standardized correlation of the given construct with any other constructs (Fornell & Larcker, 1981; Hatcher, 1994). None of the correlations of the constructs was higher than the square root of the average variance extracted (AVE).

The reliability coefficients of four constructs were also found to be satisfactory, which means that the constructs are internally consistent. Cronbach's coefficient alpha

TABLE 2
The Properties of Measurement Model

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

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

and composite reliability indices (ρ_c) surpassed cut off point (.70) recommended by Nunnally (1978) and Bagozzi (1980) (see Table 3). The average variance extracted (AVE) surpassed .50, the threshold for an acceptable level (Bagozzi & Yi, 1988). These results from the validity and reliability tests collectively suggest that the proposed measurement model is suitable for the further analysis.

TABLE 3
Correlation Estimates (Φ)

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

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

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

The Structural Model

Because the measurement model revealed a reasonable representation of the data, the structural paths were estimated to test the hypothesized relationships between the constructs (Anderson & Gerbing, 1988). As shown in Table 4, the structural model fits the data well, with $\chi^2 = 399.78$ ($df = 91$, $p < .001$), CFI = .96, NNFI = .95, SRMR = .05. Figure 2 reports the standardized coefficient for each path in the model. All the structural path coefficients were significant at the level of .01. Hence, the hypothesized relationships among the constructs were supported empirically.

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

H2 postulates a positive relationship between leisure constraints and constraint negotiation. The results show that the level of perceived leisure constraints has a positively significant effect on constraint negotiation ($\gamma_{21} = .60$, $t\text{-value} = 12.34$). Consequently, H2 was accepted in this study. This reveals that the more people perceive leisure constraints, the more they are likely to use constraints negotiation strategies.

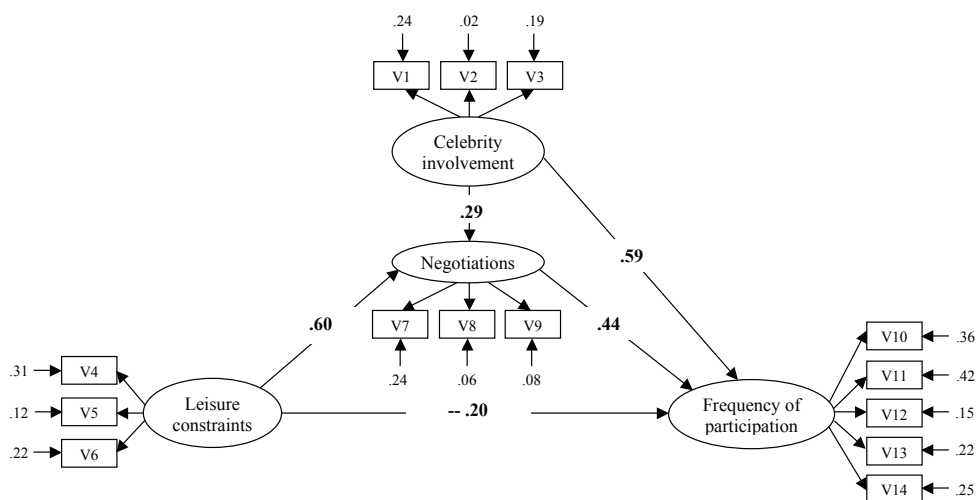
H3 posits that constraints negotiation is positively related to the frequency of leisure participation. As hypothesized, the result shows that there is a significantly positive relationship between constraints negotiation and leisure participation ($\beta_{12} = .44$, $t\text{-value} = 8.72$). Thus,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

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

TABLE 4
Structural Path Estimates

Hypotheses	Paths	Estimates	t-value
H1 (γ_{11})	Leisure constraints \rightarrow Frequency of participation	-.20	- 4.26
H2 (γ_{21})	Leisure constraints \rightarrow Constraint negotiation	.60	12.34
H3 (γ_{12})	Constraint negotiation \rightarrow Frequency of participation	.44	8.72
H4 (γ_{12})	Celebrity involvement \rightarrow Frequency of participation	.59	12.50
H5 (γ_{22})	Celebrity involvement \rightarrow Constraint negotiation	.29	6.76
Goodness-of-fit measures			
Chi-square = 399.78, df = 91, $p < .001$			
CFI = .96			
NNFI = .95			
GFI = .88			
SRMR = .05			
Goodness-of-fit measures			
Constraints negotiation = 43%			
Frequency of leisure participation = 63%			

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



Squared multiple correlation (SMC) - Constraints negotiation = 43%;

Frequency of leisure participation = 63%

Keys: V1=Attraction; V2=Centrality; V3=Self-expression; V4=Intrapersonal constraints;

V5=Interpersonal constraints; V6=Structural constraints; V7=Intrapersonal negotiations;

V8=Interpersonal negotiations; V9=Structural negotiations; V10=Programs watching;

V11=Fan meetings; V12=Celebrity information obtaining; V13=Talking;

V14=Purchasing items

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

FIGURE 2. Leisure constraint negotiation path model among celebrity fans estimated

activities that are closely related with their favorite star/celebrity than individuals who are less involved.

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

Discussion

This study contributes to an emerging understanding of celebrity fandom and leisure participation with the following conclusions and insights. First of all, this study provided an innovative approach to understand the phenomenon of celebrity fandom. While much literature highlights a psychopathological aspect of the fandom (Guttman, 1986; Jenkins, 1992; Leerhsen, 1986), this study suggests that people's attachment to a celebrity can be better understood as a novel form of leisure activity, which has been overlooked by leisure scholars. For many avid fans studied in this research, an attachment to a celebrity is not a symptom of paranoia but actually a means of attaining pleasure, expressing self-identity, and developing social networks. Focusing on such positive aspects commonly found in other conventional leisure activities (e.g., boating, fishing, and hunting), the present study contributes to bringing this rather overlooked phenomenon into the domain of leisure studies. Future research should delve more into differences between the celebrity fandom and conventional leisure activities although there exists striking similarities between them.

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

Third, this study helped expand the applicability of leisure constraint theory. Leisure constraints theory has been predominantly tested in North American contexts. To the best of authors' knowledge, this model has not been tested in Asian and other international settings. Therefore, it can be argued that the findings from this study helped confirm the cross-cultural validity of the leisure constraints theory. Specifically,

more research should be conducted in diverse cultural settings to enhance the generalizability and validity of the leisure constraints-negotiation mitigation model and the derivation of its using the concept of leisure involvement examined in this study.

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

It may seem logical to postulate that the continued participation in a certain leisure activity becomes more feasible with the absence of perceived constraints. However, as illustrated in other studies, the high level of involvement in a chosen leisure pursuit brings the perceived constraints to greater prominence. The continuity of the leisure activity is contingent upon how one successfully negotiates through the perceived constraints. It is, therefore, not the absence of constraints but the active adoption of negotiation strategies that enables the continued participation in a leisure activity. The adoption of negotiation strategies, as shown in this study, is driven by the level of one's involvement in a chosen leisure activity. That is, this study contributes to understanding the underlying mechanism of how one can sustain his/her participation in a chosen leisure activity despite the various constraints that otherwise could hinder one from continuous participation.

Limitations and Future Research

This study has several limitations. The first limitation is related to the sample utilized in this study. Although a systematic random sampling was conducted at the various points at the airport, the site for sampling was limited to one specific international airport. A representative sample of the Japanese population would have been useful in generalizing the results of this study. Therefore, future research should be conducted in more diverse contexts with different population in order to enhance the external validity of the study results.

Second, this study utilized cross-sectional data. It is commonly believed that human perceptions like leisure involvement require a period of development to take form. Also, involvement is not a static psychological state or attitude but a dynamic process that typically progresses through various developmental stages. However, this study did not examine these developmental aspects of leisure involvement with a celebrity. Future research could be carried out on the evolving nature of leisure involvement and its relationship with constraints and negotiation. A longitudinal study may be an appropriate way to address this issue.

Third, this study posited that celebrity involvement directly affects the adoption of constraints negotiation strategies and frequency of leisure participation. How-

ever, the role of celebrity involvement as a moderating variable seems to be equally appealing in relation to these two constructs. As people encounter various constraints to participating in fandom activities, the efforts to negotiate the constraints are likely to be determined by their level of involvement with the celebrity. People who are not highly involved with the celebrity are less likely to adopt negotiation strategies than highly involved would because the celebrity related activities are perceived to be an important element of everyday life for the highly involved people. Future research should investigate the role of celebrity involvement in moderating the level of constraints negotiation and frequency of leisure participation.

Lastly, it is clear that celebrity fans experience various leisure constraints as found in other conventional leisure activities. Although not examined in this study, it seems worthwhile to explore the relationship between the level of fan involvement and the types of leisure constraints (structural, intrapersonal, interpersonal) experienced. As people are more involved with a celebrity, they tend to utilize more resources (e.g., time, money) on that specific leisure activity. The available resources for any one individual are finite. The increased utilization of one's finite resources on a certain leisure activity may incur conflicts over other family obligations or/and social roles. Such conflicts can automatically lead to increased intra- and interpersonal emotional tensions. That is, the structural constraints that come along with the increased involvement in a given leisure activity, in turn, may affect intra- and interpersonal constraints. Different types of constraints may require different types of negotiation strategies. This conjecture should be further explored in future research to advance our understanding of the usefulness of the constraints-negotiation model tested in this study.

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