

RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN ACTIVE LEISURE AND ACTIVE VACATIONS

By

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To my parents

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## LIST OF TERMS

INVOLVEMENT	Belief structure associated with ego-value that leads to extreme attitudes
LEISURE INVOLVEMENT	Belief structure that encourages extreme leisure attitudes generated from identification between ego-value and leisure activity
HABITUAL BEHAVIOR	Behavior associated wholly or partially with unconscious components resulting from repetitive behaviors and that encourages consistency between past behavior, current behavior, and future behavior
HABITUAL LEISURE BEHAVIOR	Leisure behavior associated wholly or partially with unconscious components resulting from repetitive leisure behaviors and that encourages consistency between past leisure behavior, current leisure behavior and future leisure behavior
NEEDS/MOTIVES	General end state like self-regard gained from achievement of specific goals (Eagly & Chaiken, 2005)
MOTIVATION	Engine of motives to guide thoughts and behaviors (Eagly & Chaiken, 2005)
VACATION MOTIVATION	Engine of motives to guide thoughts and behaviors to travel
SPORT TOURISM	Leisure-based travel that is temporarily away from home to participate in physical activities, to observe physical activities and to visit sport-related attractions (Gibson, 1998b, p.49)
ACTIVE SPORT TOURISTS	People who travel to take part in sport and physical activities (Gibson, 1998b)
LEISURE ACTIVITY	Activity people take part in during their free time, usually close to home
VACATION ACTIVITY	Activity people take part in when they travel away from their home for a vacation (i.e., for pleasure and stay for at least one night)
ACTIVE LEISURE	Leisure related to participation in sports, physical activities, and active outdoor recreation
ACTIVE VACATIONS/TOURISM	Vacations in which participation in sports, physical activities, and active outdoor recreation is an important part of the vacation experience, regardless of primary or secondary motivation to travel

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With an increase in active life styles which incorporate active leisure pursuits, interest in active vacation has increased, subsequently, the range of sport-tourism types, especially active sport tourism has become increasingly popular. The link between leisure and tourism has been discussed by researchers in terms of a psychological and behavioral connection. Particularly, while tourism behaviors tend to be more hedonic-oriented, they are rooted in leisure behaviors, and can be explained by individuals' attitudes, habits, or personality. However, few researchers have empirically examined the leisure-tourism connection. Thus, this study set out to empirically examine if active leisure participation is connected to participation in active vacations and if so, to examine the complexities of this relationship. Data were collected from UF Alumni Association members using an on-line survey and ultimately 316 active leisure-active vacation participants were identified.

The results provide a more in-depth understanding of the relationship between active leisure participation and active vacations. The findings support the leisure-tourism continuum suggested by researchers<sup>1</sup>. First of all, the significant direct and indirect influences of leisure involvement and leisure habits on vacation motivation and vacation behaviors support the

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<sup>1</sup> Carr, N. (2002). The tourism-leisure behavioral continuum. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 29, 972-986.

leisure-tourism connection. Second, many of the participants chose activities from the same category such as water sports for leisure and water sports for vacations but there were slight differences in the activities identified as favorite leisure or vacation activities. Seemingly, many of them preferred experiencing novel, more hedonic activities during vacations, but their values or active lifestyles remained constant. Consistent with this, the majority of respondents preferred more novel than familiar destinations for their vacations. While novel experiences were pursued by many respondents, they still maintained the same active lifestyles and preferred the same category of physical activities while on vacation. Last, the respondents who reported they visited their family or friends or had different primary motivations for their trips also participated in active sports and physical activities while on vacation.

Based on these findings, an Expanded Framework of Active Leisure (EFAL) was proposed to explain a wider range of sport tourism types than had been previously identified, considering both activity and destination, based upon the suppositions of previous work. Moreover, this framework was generated from psychological and behavioral patterns of a sample of participants who were not members of a specialized sports group sample. However, some of the types of active vacationers identified were hard to explain using the theories framing this study. Therefore, it is suggested that more information about external factors such as destination attractions combined with internal factors such as personality should be used to explain different types of active sport tourism.

## CHAPTER 1 INTRODUCTION

Increasingly more people are concerned about healthy and active lifestyles (Glyptis, 1991). Consequently, many individuals have adopted active leisure pursuits which in turn have influenced tourism behaviors and opportunities as more people have sought active vacations (Chon & Singh, 1995; Fluker & Turner, 2000; Hall, 1992; Jefferson, 1995; Redmond, 1991; Sung, 2004). Indeed, over the past ten years the term sport tourism has been used to describe sport and physically active vacations. Sport tourism of various types has become increasingly popular and many communities are using sport to attract tourists (Redmond, 1991; Ritchie, 1998). Most researchers agree there are both passive, primarily spectator-oriented event-based sport tourism and active forms where tourists travel to take part in sport (Gammon & Robinson, 1997; Gibson, 1998a, 1998b; Hinch & Higham, 2001; Nogawa, Yamaguchi, & Hagi, 1996; Standeven & DeKnop, 1999). Taking a lead from Redmond (1991), Gibson (1998a, 1998b) proposed a third type called “nostalgia” sport tourism and refers to travel associated with sport attractions and other sports-themed vacations.

Mega event-based sport tourism such as the Olympic Games and the FIFA football World Cup tends to draw the most attention from academics and the industry. However, besides event-based sport tourism, numerous recreational sport activities, programs, facilities, and resorts have become popular with active sport tourists (Gibson, 1998a; Glyptis, 1991; Redmond, 1991). In a study of 220 tour companies, Adventure Travel Trade Association (ATTA) found that clients tended to rank such activities as hiking, kayaking, rafting, cycling, and mountain biking as more popular vacation activities than more passive pursuits (JOPERD, 2007). Moreover, in a study of sports-related travel to Florida, golf was found to be the most popular reason for visiting the state when compared to all other sports-related opportunities including all forms of event sport

tourism with the exception of motor sports because motor sport tourists did not participate in the study (Villamil & Cruz, 2005).

Nonetheless, while active lifestyles and regular participation in active leisure seem to be associated with the increasing popularity of active sport tourism, there has been little empirical research on the relationship between every day leisure activity and choice of vacation behavior. Existing studies have tended to treat leisure and tourism contexts as completely unrelated entities. This lack of connection between leisure and tourism has made it difficult to gain a real understanding as to how tourist behaviors relate to the wider life context of individuals.

Mannell and Iso-Ahola (1987) postulated that leisure and tourism have a psychological and behavioral relationship from an experiential standpoint. Developing this line of thought further, Carr (2002) noted that individuals' norms, values, preferences, personality, and habits are likely to induce similar behavioral patterns between leisure activities and tourism behaviors. A similar finding was made by Brey and Lehto (2007) who explained behavioral consistency between leisure and tourism using the concept of leisure involvement. Particularly, physical activity tends to be a bridge connecting leisure, recreation, and travel within the overall context of healthy and active lives (Bocarro, Kanters, & Casper, 2006; Godbey, Caldwell, Floyd, & Payne, 2005; Henderson, 2005a, 2005b; Henderson, & Bialeschki, 2005; Sallis, Linton, & Kraft, 2005).

Active living is a way to include physical activity in everyday life, while participating in sport and physical activity is seen as part of these active lives and tends to be regarded as an important part of the leisure of these individuals (Henderson, 2005b). Physically active lifestyles have increased the demand for active vacations (Fluker & Turner, 2000). For example, according to the American Volkssport Association (2008), there are 350 walking clubs throughout the US, and over 3,000 events are held every year. Participants take walks close their homes as well as

traveling to go on walks further. They also occasionally report taking part in other sports such as biking, swimming, or skiing and further traveling for those sports. This example shows how people who are absorbed in sports, physical activities, and active outdoor recreation in the leisure context are getting involved in sports, physical activities and active outdoor recreation while on vacation.

In North American sport tourism studies in the 1980s and the early 1990s, there was a tendency to ignore active vacations and to focus on mega sport events and event based sport tourism, while in European sport tourism research there was more of a focus on active sport tourism from the beginning of the 1980s (e.g., De Knop, 1987; Glyptis, 1982). In recent years, active sport tourism is beginning to spread beyond the European context and researchers around the world have investigated various types of active sport tourism including: mountaineering tourists (Pomfret, 2006), participants in the Masters Games (Ryan & Locker, 2002; Trauer, Ryan, & Locker, 2003), recreational runners (McGehee, Yoon, & Cardenas, 2003), golf tourism (Gibson & Pennington-Gray, 2005), and snow sports (Hudson, 2000; Williams & Fidgeon, 2000).

Involvement and the habits of people participating in active leisure activities seem to be the most important variables in understanding the psychological and behavioral relationships between leisure and vacations/tourism (Brey & Lehto, 2007; Maddux, 1993; Valois, Desharnais, & Godin, 1988). Involvement is a belief related to ego-value (Sherif & Cantril, 1947), and habit or habitual behavior refers to a behavior partially or entirely associated with unconscious mental processes that emerge from repeating an activity (Verplanken, Aarts, Knippenberg, & Moonen, 1998). Both leisure involvement and leisure habit encourage people to limit their choices and as a result, reject alternative leisure activities (Sherif & Cantril, 1947; Verplanken, et al., 1998). This helps maintain behavioral consistency even in different environments (Havitz & Dimanche,

1997). As such, this psychological and behavioral process helps to understand the close relationship between leisure and vacation/tourism preferences and behaviors.

### **Statement of the Problem**

While there have been few empirical studies about the connection between leisure and tourism, many researchers have pointed out that understanding the relationship between leisure and tourism is important because psychological and behavioral influences on participation in leisure activities and in vacation activities are likely to be strongly shared (Brey & Lehto, 2007; Carr, 2002; Fedler, 1987; Mannell & Iso-Ahola, 1987; Moore, Cushman, & Simmons, 1995). Of particular interest to this study, while active sport tourism opportunities have expanded in popularity in response to demand from people who are physically active or involved in sports during their leisure (Glyptis, 1991; Redmond, 1991), the relationship between active leisure and vacation/tourism behaviors is underdeveloped empirically. We know little about how, or if leisure involvement influences tourism behaviors, in particular the relationship between active leisure and active sport tourism. There have been some studies in which leisure involvement has been investigated in relation to future leisure activity or in developing leisure activities (Gahwiler & Havitz, 1998; Iwasaki & Havitz, 2004; Kim, Scott, & Crompton, 1997). However, there has been little focus on how leisure activity involvement in everyday environments may influence vacation/tourism behaviors occurring in different environments away from the routine.

In addition to examining psychological involvement with leisure activities, it is suggested that a more in-depth understanding may be achieved through examining the habitual behaviors associated with leisure activities. The underlying premise of the involvement construct is that an individual's choice of behaviors is conscious and intentional. However, behaviors, especially those related to lifestyles, are not always deliberate and intentional (Bentler & Speckart, 1979; Fazio, 1990; Triandis, 1977). While engaging in a new activity requires or involves intentional

choice, over time repetitive activity becomes habitual and unconscious behavior partly or wholly (Beatty & Kahle, 1988; Triandis, 1977). Hence, along with involvement, it is proposed that considering habitual behavior will be complementary in predicting future behaviors. Particularly, habit tends to be a more significant variable in physical activity than other leisure activities (Valois, Desharnais, & Godin, 1988). However, habit should not be operationalized and measured merely by frequency of past behaviors. It is a multidimensional construct including various features such as automaticity, limited information processing and quicker reaction to certain situational cues, as well as regularity (Aarts, Verplanken, & Knippenberg, 1997; Verplanken & Orbell, 2003).

Furthermore, even though leisure involvement and habit influence vacation/tourism behaviors, tourism motivation may mediate the association between leisure and tourism. Presumably, to alleviate the impacts of dissonance between leisure activities and tourism activities, people are motivated to balance tourism activities with their leisure activities (Festinger, 1957; Kelly, 1987). Iso-Ahola (1982, 1983) asserted that people have two main motivations to travel: seeking and escaping. Seeking is a motivation whereby individuals strive to gain intrinsic rewards, and escaping is a motivation where individuals attempt to get away from their routine environments. More specifically, Beard and Ragheb (1983) suggested that individuals are motivated by four different motivational dimensions: *intellectual*, *social*, *competence/mastery*, and *stimulus avoidance* motives. Ryan and Glendon (1998) applied Beard and Ragheb's leisure motivation scale to a tourism setting and found that it was a valid measure of tourism motivation. In many tourism studies researchers have attempted to categorize tourism behaviors from tourism motivations (Bieger & Laesser, 2002; Cha, McCleary, & Uysal, 1995;

Formica & Uysal, 1998), or have tried to infer tourism motives from observed behaviors (Bryant & Morrison, 1980; Davis & Sternquist, 1987).

As such, a study of the relationship between leisure activity involvement, leisure habit, vacation/tourism motivation and vacation/tourism behavior might provide an initial empirical and theoretical foundation for the leisure-tourism continuum proposed by Carr (2002).

Additionally, furthering the understanding of a tie between active leisure behaviors and sport tourism behaviors is likely to give rise to some ideas for future sport tourism research that are still underdeveloped.

This study contributes to testing empirically the linkages between leisure and tourism, and establishing a theoretical model of this relationship. Particularly, as the relationship between leisure involvement, leisure habit, tourism motivation, tourism behaviors, and future tourists' behavioral intentions is tested, it may be possible to see how leisure activity involvement and habit are related to tourism behaviors.

This study contributed to measuring more complex factors of habitual behavior by means of self-perceived habit constructs in addition to actual behavioral frequency, which could produce more reliable results. From these results, a theoretical framework was developed suggesting an explanation of the relationship between leisure and vacation/tourism, especially the relationship between active leisure and active sport tourism. As such, this study contributed to the growing body of knowledge in sport tourism, particularly to understand the 'why' of sport tourism instead of the 'what' (Gibson, 2004).

Furthermore, this study had implications for establishing sport tourism policy, marketing, and product development by providing a better understanding of the leisure-tourism linkage. Indeed, existing studies have tended to separate active leisure participants who are immersed in

sports, physical activities, and active outdoor recreation from tourists who are involved in sports, physical activities, and active outdoor recreation. This approach hinders the whole leisure-tourism process, especially in developing policy, marketing strategies, or products to satisfy both leisure participants and tourists. The supply side of leisure and tourism might offer opportunities that can satisfy people's needs by providing activities that are more consistent across the two contexts. More positively, the supply side can provide interesting products for new leisure forms and tourism forms developed from the dynamic interaction between leisure and tourism. For example, some individuals travel to develop their favorite leisure activity in a familiar destination during vacations, whereas other people want to experience new leisure activities similar to their favorite leisure activity in a different destination. Both the cases might have different vacation behaviors, but they stem from the same root. Also, some groups of people who participate in certain leisure activities often generate or need to make trips to satisfy their shared specific interest. Conversely, people who meet in tourism settings often maintain their friendships in leisure settings and may create new leisure activity groups once they return home. The supply side could actively respond to these new situations.

Finally, this study may have implications for improving people's quality of life by satisfying the needs of people who want to maintain and develop their preferred leisure activities in tourism settings, or alternatively who want to have the chance to participate in new tourism activities developed from leisure activities. Particularly, this study could encourage active and healthy lifestyles of people to extend from the leisure realm to the tourism realm. People's interest and needs for physical and psychological health in everyday leisure may be more satisfied by taking part in sport tourism (Standeven & De Knop, 1999). As physical activities and

mental well-being have a close relationship (Ingham, 1990), a synergetic relationship between leisure activities and tourism activities may enhance people's health and overall quality of life.

### **Theoretical Model**

For the purpose of this study, a theoretical model is proposed to show the relationship between leisure involvement, leisure habit, vacation motivation and vacation behavior (Figure 1-1). The basic premises of this model are that involvement with preferred leisure activities encourages repetitive behaviors. Overtime repetitive leisure behaviors become habitual behaviors that are characterized as behaviors that do not need deliberation due to well learned schemata (Beatty & Kahle, 1988). Greater involvement leads to this habitual behavior. More specifically, the process of the micro-units (i.e., beliefs, attitudes, and behaviors) comprising this involvement-habit connection is that beliefs influence attitudes, and in turn, attitudes influence behaviors. However, on the contrary, there is an alternative assumption that habit might increase involvement. Several studies supported this assumption that behaviors produce beliefs (Bem, 1965; Chaiken & Baldwin, 1981; Fazio, 1986; Schlenker & Trudeau, 1990). Self-perception theory (Bem, 1965) assumes that people infer their beliefs and attitudes from their past behaviors. Thus, in turn, these inferred beliefs and attitudes become stronger through behaviors (Fazio, Sherman, & Harr, 1982). This means that an action by itself encourages involvement to occur or increase. This has been underpinned by the results from some experimental studies related to commitment theory. Miller (1965) found that after people were forced to write down a specific issue, they began having positive beliefs towards this issue and then, became involved in this issue. Halverson and Pallak (1978) found that people who were encouraged to verbally express their attitudes towards a certain issue in public increased their involvement with the issue more than people who were not encouraged to express their attitudes towards the issue. Miller and

Marks (1996) also postulated that purchasing a product over a long period increases involvement. Accordingly, both involvement and habits could enhance each other.

Both involvement and habit encourage people to narrow their range of beliefs and attitudes towards certain objects (Kahle, 1984; Sherif & Cantril, 1947; Verplanken & Orbell, 2003), and as a consequence, to reject other alternative activities, inhibit attitude change, and promote consistent behavior (Miller, 1965). Particularly, involvement encourages consistent behavior at the conscious level (Sherif & Hovland, 1961), whereas habit enhances it at the unconscious level (Triandis, 1977). Certainly, researchers in leisure studies have found that leisure involvement and past behavior influence future leisure behaviors (Gahwiler & Havitz, 1998, Kim, Scott, & Crompton, 1997; Prichard, Havitz, & Howard, 1999), however, as yet nobody has examined habit and leisure.

In this respect, leisure involvement and leisure habit may also influence vacation/tourism motivation, and vacation/tourism behavior, although inherently tourism takes place in a different environment away from a routine environment. Nonetheless, leisure and tourism as entities share similar features (e.g., quality of experience, intrinsic motivation, perceived freedom, free time, etc). Thus, the possibility that psychological and behavioral consistency exists between both leisure and tourism contexts is high (Carr, 2002; Hamilton-Smith, 1987; Mannell & Iso-Ahola, 1987; Moore, Cushman, & Simmons, 1995). For example, given that individuals are motivated to travel to develop their preferred leisure activities, leisure and tourism behaviors are likely to be consistent. Even if people may be motivated primarily to visit family or friends (Moscardo, Pearce, Morrison, Green, & O'Leary, 2000), people who are immersed in a particular leisure activity are likely to keep their leisure activities while visiting friends or their family during a

vacation. That is, distinct from their primary motivation to travel, their main activities during a vacation may be the same, or similar to their preferred leisure activities.

For each relationship depicted in the theoretical model, the leisure involvement-tourism motivation link is accounted for by many theories that hypothesize the influence of beliefs on attitudes (e.g., Carlson's (1956) expectancy-value model, Fishbein and Ajzen's (1975) theory of reasoned action). The relationship between leisure habit and tourism motivation is explained by Triandis' (1977) theory, Bentler and Speckart's (1979) model, and Bem's (1965) self-perception theory assuming that habits or past behaviors influence beliefs and attitudes.

Particularly, to reduce the dissonance between leisure and tourism activities, people may be motivated to balance their choice of tourism activities with their leisure activities (Festinger, 1957; Kelly, 1987). The relationship between leisure habit and tourism behavior is also explained by Triandis' (1977) theory, Bentler and Speckart's (1979) model, and Verplanken, Aarts, and Knippenberg's (1997) habit model that hypothesize the influence of past behaviors on future behaviors. The relationship between leisure involvement and tourism behavior is accounted for by theories that assume the influence of beliefs or attitudes on behaviors and the relationship between tourism motivation and tourism behavior can be explained by the impact of attitudes on behaviors. In particular, the relationship between tourism motivation and tourism behavior has received a lot of attention from researchers, and a significant relationship has been found (e.g., Crompton, 1979; Dann, 1981; Deci, 1975; Iso-Ahola, 1982, 1983; Pearce & Caltabiano, 1983; Yoon & Uysal, 2005).

To help illustrate how this theoretical model can be used to understand the relationship between leisure involvement, leisure habit, vacation/tourism motivation, and vacation/tourism behavior (Figure 1-1), the following scenario is proposed. As people get involved in running,

people run everyday for exercise. This habit of running enhances involvement with running. In turn, running involvement reinforces habitual running. People who habitually run and are highly involved in running during their leisure time narrow down their acceptable range of other leisure activities, and in turn reject taking part in other leisure activities (Sherif & Cantril, 1947; Iwasaki & Havitz, 2004). This narrow range of acceptable leisure activities (i.e., a strong attitude towards a specific leisure activity) is likely to encourage people to keep running even while on vacation (Wood, Tam, & Guerrero-Wit, 2005). Furthermore, similar attributes between leisure and tourism encourage consistent running from a leisure setting to a tourism setting (Carr, 2002). People are likely to be motivated as a part of their vacations to maintain consistency of running or some people might take their interest in running one step further and use their vacations to take part in organized running events such as marathons. They may also be more likely to participate in other active tourism pursuits such as water sports, bicycling, golf, skiing, or adventure sports.

Basically this study hypothesized that physically active people are more likely to take part in their preferred leisure activity during their vacations, provided that they are highly involved in their leisure activity. Specifically, given that people are physically active in their leisure, they are more likely to be physically active in tourism settings when they travel. In brief, people who have an intense involvement with sports, physical activities and active outdoor recreation during leisure have a higher probability of being active sport tourists.

### **Purpose of Study**

The purposes of the study are to identify the types of leisure and vacation activities that physically active people take part in, to examine the relationship between leisure involvement, leisure habit, vacation/tourism motivation, and vacation/tourism behavior and to further establish

a theoretical foundation for the connection between active leisure and vacation behaviors. More specifically, goals of this study were:

1. to identify the types of leisure and vacation activities that physically active people take part in,
2. to assess their involvement level in active leisure activities,
3. to evaluate the habit strength associated with their active leisure activities,
4. to examine their vacation/tourism motivation related to active leisure activities,
5. to investigate their vacation/tourism behaviors related to active leisure activities, and
6. to test and obtain predictive validity of the relationship between leisure involvement, leisure habit, vacation/tourism motivation, and vacation/tourism behavior through structural equation modeling.

### **Research Questions**

For the purposes of the study, the following research questions were examined:

- **Research question 1a:** what types of favorite leisure activities do physically active people take part in?
- **Research question 1b:** What are the participation patterns in the favorite leisure activities of the respondents?
- **Research question 2a:** What types of favorite vacation activities do the respondents participate in?
- **Research question 2b:** What are the vacation patterns of the respondents?
- **Research question 3a:** Is there a similarity between the favorite leisure and favorite vacation activities of the respondents?
- **Research question 3b:** What are the participation patterns in the favorite leisure activities of the respondents during vacations?
- **Research question 4:** What are the levels of involvement in the favorite leisure activities of the respondents?
- **Research question 5:** What are the levels of habit associated with the favorite leisure activities of the respondents?
- **Research question 6:** What are the levels of motivation associated with the favorite vacation activities of the respondents?

- **Research question 7:** What are the patterns of vacation behavior related to the favorite vacation activities of the respondents?

### **Hypotheses**

To examine the theoretical linkages among the constructs, the following hypotheses were tested:

- **Hypothesis 1:** Involvement with active leisure and habit associated with active leisure are correlated.
- **Hypothesis 2:** Involvement with active leisure has a direct influence on vacation motivation.
- **Hypothesis 3:** Habit associated with active leisure has a direct influence on vacation motivation.
- **Hypothesis 4:** Involvement with active leisure has a direct and indirect influence on active vacation behavior.
- **Hypothesis 5:** Habit associated with active leisure has a direct and indirect influence on active vacation behavior.
- **Hypothesis 6:** Vacation motivation has a direct influence on active vacation behavior.

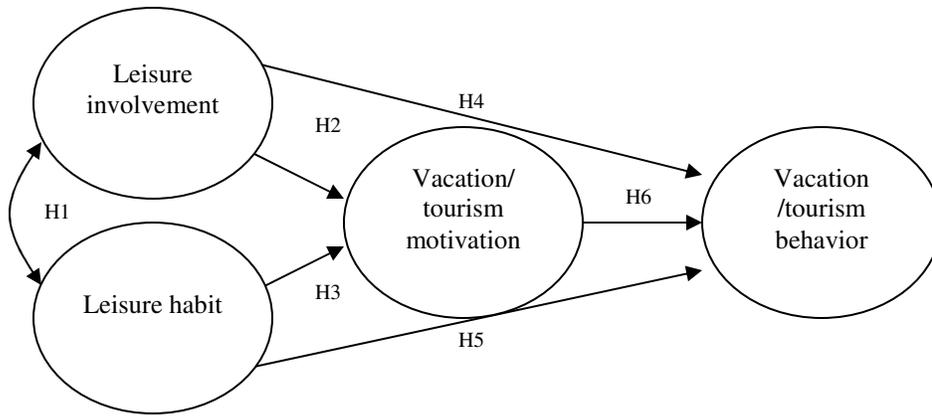


Figure 1-1. Full model of the relationship between active leisure and active vacations

## CHAPTER 2 REVIEW OF LITERATURE

### **Leisure and Tourism**

#### **What Is Leisure?**

Over the centuries leisure has been described in many different ways. For the Romans, leisure was free time away from work (De Grazia, 1962), whereas leisure was described by Aristotle as an opposite to work, namely a non-work state in which labor never exists (Cooper, 1999). However, many researchers pointed out that this simple distinction of work versus non-work has not reflected the true characteristics of leisure. Thus, another way that has been used to describe leisure was as activity. Pieper (1952) and De Grazia (1962) defined leisure as an activity delimited to spiritual and cultural activity for contemplation and worship with a focus on the quality of activity.

Developing this perspective, many leisure researchers suggested that the primary factors associated with the quality of leisure activity are perceived freedom, intrinsic motivation, self-expression, and self-development (Gunter, 1987; Gunter & Gunter, 1980; Iso-Ahola 1979; Neulinger, 1981a, 1981b, 1982; Tinsley & Tinsley, 1986). Csikszentmihalyi (1990) suggested that the quality of leisure activity is closely related to enjoyment gained from optimal or flow experiences that occur when challenges and skills of activity are balanced.

However, leisure researchers realized that even if the aforementioned internal factors are critical to the quality of the leisure activity, these factors are interactively influenced by social structures such as social roles, social supports, and the pervasive constraints of available time and money to take part in leisure activities (Kelly, 1987; Neulinger, 1981b; Samdahl, 1988, 1991). From this view, Kelly (1987) suggested leisure is contextual and is influenced by

existential and social factors. As such, leisure is described as “structured action with a core of self-determination” (Kelly, 1992, p253) and seems to be embedded in everyday lifestyle.

Where leisure is defined as an activity, and the main components to determine this activity are perceived freedom, self-expression, intrinsic motivation, self-determination, and social structural factors, what types of activity constitute leisure? Two approaches, *objective* and *subjective* leisure types have been discussed in the leisure literature (Neulinger, 1974). Objective leisure refers to activities occurring in physical leisure settings. As an illustration, objective leisure activities are golfing, playing tennis, watching a movie, or appreciating the arts in settings such as golf courses, tennis courts, theaters, or museums. Subjective leisure refers to activities subjectively felt or perceived as leisure. Subjective leisure activities could be all activities in which individuals feel the core internal factors of leisure such as perceived freedom, intrinsic motivations, or self-expression (Jafari, 2000).

Some studies have strived for a better understanding of leisure activities through a combination of objective and subjective perspectives. Tinsley and Kass (1978) identified ten leisure activities in which their respondents participated (e.g., watching TV, reading books, attending concerts, jogging, playing tennis, bicycling, scuba diving and mountaineering, watching basketball, playing cards, and drinking and socializing), and then investigated how these leisure activities were related to 45 internal needs such as self-esteem, relaxation, achievement, social status, and so forth. They found that 33 of the 45 needs were significantly related to the activities, and they reported that particularly several needs such as advancement, catharsis, reward, getting along with others, independence, activity, ability utilization, tolerance, and exhibition had the greatest discrimination among leisure activities. Likewise, Iso-Ahola (1979) asserted that when objective leisure activities are combined with intrinsic reasons, these

activities can be defined as true leisure activities. In a similar vein, Shaw (1984) defined pure leisure as activities that are freely chosen and intrinsically motivated.

Lounsbury and Hoopes (1988) compared the five-year stability of actual leisure activities and leisure motivational factors. They created five factors from among more than 100 leisure activities developed by McKechnie's (1975) Leisure Activities Blank (LAB): easy leisure (e.g., driving, visiting friends, etc), sports/recreation (e.g., basketball, jogging/running, camping, etc), domestic activities (e.g., cooking, sewing), organizational activities (e.g., civic organizations, public meetings, political activities), and intellectual activities (e.g., concerts, lectures). They also extracted six leisure motivational factors (i.e., supervising others, achievement, physical activity, social interaction, mental activity, and creativity/crafts) from leisure motivation items (Tinsley, Barrett, & Kass, 1977). They found that most actual leisure activities indicated stability across the five years, whereas leisure motivational factors revealed relatively lower stability. However, Lounsbury and Hoopes assumed that if people had focused on the motivations associated with several preferred leisure activities, they could have gained greater stability. In summary, the major conclusion of the previous studies is that even though objective leisure activities are varied, perceived freedom, self-expression, intrinsic motivation, and self-determination are likely to be mainly conceived of as the core entities of leisure irrespective of activity.

### **What Is Tourism?**

To simply define tourism is very difficult because tourism is very complex, heterogeneous, and dynamic (Butler, 1999; Cohen, 1979). Cohen (1974) described tourism using fuzzy set theory, which refers to a vague concept devoid of a clear boundary to define it. However, in general, tourism is related to visiting a specific place for vacations, having fun, and visiting family and friends, spending leisure time involved in various sports, relaxing, or touring, and for

some researchers tourism includes business (Goeldner & Ritchie, 2003). A technical definition of a tourist described by the National Travel Survey of the Travel Industry Association of America (TIA) is one who travels away from home for a distance of 100 miles or more one-way, or who is involved in trips spending one or more nights regardless of distance (Goeldner & Ritchie, 2003). Broadly, tourists have been classified into two types of traveler by their main purposes even if tourists have many specific reasons for travel (Leiper, 1979): leisure travelers and business travelers. In contrast to business travelers, “leisure tourists are defined as people who travel for pleasure and thus, not under any obligations to frequent specific destinations or facilities, concentrating their touristic activities to specific times” (Jafari, 2000, p.356).

However, some scholars have not agreed with including any business or work related travelers in the definition of a tourist. In accordance with this tradition, Cohen (1974) depicted a tourist as a person who is not in pursuit of work and is not traveling because of obligation or production. More specifically, tourists described by Cohen have several key characteristics. Tourists should have a round trip in a limited time (temporary) and non-recurrent and non-instrumental purpose associated with their trips. Non-recurrent and non-instrumental characteristics are closely related to pleasurable and novel experiences sought by tourists. Cohen’s (1974) ultimate definition of tourists is “a voluntary, temporary traveler, traveling in the expectation of pleasure from the novelty and change experienced on a relatively long and non-recurrent round-trip” (p. 533).

Supporting Cohen’s view that tourism is a form of leisured activity, Smith (1977) defined a tourist as “a temporarily leisured person who voluntarily visits a place away from home for the purpose of experiencing a change” (p.1). Iso-Ahola (1983) also noted that recreational or leisure travelers are ones who travel to gain enjoyment or pleasure, and enjoy leisure activity within the

context of leisure behaviors. Leisure travel described by Iso-Ahola is characterized as intrinsically motivated activities, and self-expression reflecting needs for optimal experience. Supporting Cohen's (1974) and Iso-Ahola's (1983) perspective of leisure travel as non-work travel, Yiannakis and Gibson (1992) depicted tourists as people who engage in touristic activity, for pleasure, without duty and instrumental payoffs.

Cohen (1974) postulated that there is more than one type of tourist. Using a continuum of novelty and familiarity he identified a typology containing four different types of tourists or what he referred to as tourist roles (Cohen, 1972). He suggested that people who seek the highest level of familiarity in tourism experiences were depicted as organized mass tourists, whereas people who seek the highest level of novel experience were portrayed as drifters who try to live the way that the residents live. Between these types of tourist roles, Cohen suggested that individual mass tourists seek a higher level of familiarity and explorers seek a higher level of novelty in their tourism experience. Cohen's (1972) typology is based on tourists' behavioral patterns, or what he terms tourist roles.

Pearce (1982) developed Cohen's work further by identifying fifteen types of traveler role, which could be divided into five categories: environmental traveler, high contact traveler, spiritual traveler, pleasure first traveler, and exploitative traveler. Developing Cohen and Pearce's ideas, Yiannakis and Gibson (1992) suggested that one problem with Pearce's work was the conceptual fuzziness in his definition of traveler and tourists. Defining a tourist as leisure based travel (Cohen, 1972), Yiannakis and Gibson distinguished fourteen leisure based tourist roles: sun lover, action seeker, anthropologist, archaeologist, organized mass tourist, thrill seeker, explorer, jetsetter, seeker, independent mass tourist, high class tourist, drifter, escapist, and sport lover. Furthermore, Yiannakis and Gibson investigated how each of the tourist roles

was characterized by three dimensions of tourist experience/preference: simulation-tranquility, structure-independence, and familiarity-novelty. Gibson and Yiannakis (2002) found in their later study that preference for each of these tourist roles was closely linked to an individual's socio-psychological needs, both unsatisfied and satisfied needs.

### **What Is the Relationship between Leisure and Tourism?**

In the early days of work in the sociology and anthropology of tourism, tourism was consistently viewed as a “special form of leisure” (Cohen, 1974). Mieczkowski (1981) demonstrated that recreation is included in the leisure sphere because recreation is an experience that takes place during leisure time, and the nature of most tourism is recreational. From this perspective, Butler (1999) suggested that “tourism is something which takes place during leisure time...because tourism also implies travel, and therefore some activity on behalf of the tourist, then it is logically a part of leisure and recreation” (p. 98).

Nevertheless, in the introduction of the special issue, *Interrelationship of Leisure, Recreation, and Tourism* of the *Annals of Tourism Research*, Fedler (1987) pointed out that a common problem raised by the authors of the articles included in this special issue was that conceptual problems result in an obstacle to specifying any theoretical relationship between leisure, recreation, and tourism, and result in an inadequate understanding of the association between the three domains. Fedler also pointed out that most authors in the special issue had commented that leisure and recreation have been researched in one realm most commonly within the discipline of leisure studies, whilst tourism has been studied in another realm within that of tourism studies, due to unknown reasons. Consequently, they had been isolated from each other, even though leisure, recreation and tourism share common psychological and behavioral outcomes. From suggestions by all of the authors in this special issue, Fedler concluded that an integrative approach with a well established conceptual and theoretical relationship would

benefit leisure, recreation and tourism. In this special issue, Mannell and Iso-Ahola (1987) presented psychological and experiential approaches to understand the relationship between leisure and tourism and Colton (1987) suggested social meanings and roles shared by leisure, recreation and tourism from a symbolic interaction perspective. Hamilton-Smith (1987) identified two dimensional fields consisting of subjective perception and objective environmental impacts to explain the relationship between leisure and tourism behaviors. Taking a geographical point of view, Jensen-Verbeke and Dietvorst (1987) emphasized the importance of spatial management to reflect an increasing need for integrating leisure, recreation and tourism. From a management standpoint, Harris, McLaughlin and Ham (1987) also raised the issue of integrative environmental and resources management based on the commonality of leisure, recreation and tourism needs.

More specifically, in their article, “Psychological Nature of Leisure and Tourism Experience” of the aforementioned special issue, Mannell and Iso-Ahola (1987) suggested that leisure refers to everyday activities embedded in people’s lives, and touristic activities are infrequent leisure episodes in people’s lives. They explained that both leisure and tourism behaviors are not only influenced by a distinction between work time and free time, but also common psychological and experiential characteristics. In particular, to explain the quality of experience influencing leisure and tourism activities, Mannell and Iso-Ahola referred to the previous literature describing that true leisure experience is related to freedom of choice, enjoyment, intrinsic motivation, self-determination, self-development (Csikszentmihalyi, 1975; Kelly, 1983; Neulinger, 1974), and true tourism experiences are associated with authenticity and a quest for values and meanings (MacCannell, 1973; Meyersohn, 1981; Przeclawski, 1985). From this perspective, Mannell and Iso-Ahola pointed out that previous studies had provided

empirical evidence in which subjectively perceived reasons and experiences of leisure and vacations have been repeatedly categorized into several similar need dimensions without variation and appear as equally important (Beard & Ragheb, 1983; Lounsbury & Hoopes, 1988; Tinsley et al, 1977; Tinsley & Kass, 1978), whereas non-experience-related factors such as demographics seemed not to be important determinants of leisure and vacation experience and satisfaction.

From a similar perspective as Mannell and Iso-Ahola (1987) but with more consideration of the socially perceived meanings through a symbolic interactionist perspective, Colton (1987) demonstrated that leisure, recreation and tourism are not objective activities but meanings, values and attitudes behind action, and these meanings are subjectively interpreted. Activities such as swimming, bicycling, hunting, fishing, hiking, snow skiing or camping are socially perceived as recreation activities and at the same time, tourism activities. According to Colton, this interpretation is learned from social interaction with social groups such as family and friends, and leisure, recreation, and tourism have socially shared meanings in terms of benefits, needs, and satisfaction. However, more detailed explanation related to symbolic interactionism of leisure, recreation and tourism remained for future work.

To more systematically categorize the relationship between leisure and tourism behaviors, Hamilton-Smith (1987) identified two dimensional fields: subjective perception (i.e., existential) and objective environmental influences (i.e., structural). Certain types of tourism share subjective leisure attributes such as intrinsic motivations (Neulinger, 1981), perceived freedom (Kelly, 1983), flow (Csikszentmihalyi, 1975), personal competence and self-determination (Deci & Ryan, 1985), and stimulus-arousal (Ellis, 1973). Leisure and tourism behaviors also are influenced by time, space and social structure (e.g., class and status). Consequently, four

dimensions were identified from existential and structural features of leisure and tourism. As an illustration, individuals who are highly positive in both existential and structural dimensions of leisure and tourism are deemed to be a serious leisure participant and an authenticity-seeker in tourism. People who are highly positive in the existential domain but negative in the structural dimension seek pure leisure without an ultimate goal, and travel to escape from routine. However, when individuals are negative in the existential domain and positive in the structural domain, they take part in leisure as if it is an occupation at the elite levels of competition, and choose extrinsically motivated and goal-directed travel such as winning the competition. This idea is similar to a combination of serious leisure (Stebbins, 1982) and tourist roles (Cohen, 1979).

Likewise, Ryan (1994) argued that intrinsic motivations and enjoyment experiences conceptually overlap in leisure and tourism. Furthermore, he suggested that Beard and Ragheb's (1983) Leisure Motivation Scale (LMS) derived from the hierarchical needs of Maslow (1970) could be applied to tourism motivations. The four motivation factors in the LMS are: *intellectual*, *social*, *competence-mastery* and *stimulus-avoidance*. Later, in a more specific study, Ryan and Glendon (1998) applied Beard and Ragheb's Leisure Motivation Scale to study vacation behaviors and choices and then, subsequently found that the leisure motivations had a high degree of reliability and validity in a tourism context.

Currie (1997) developed the liminoidal, inversionary, and prosaic (LIP) behavior framework underlying the impact of daily behaviors on tourism behaviors. Arguing that former work had tended to describe tourism behaviors as opposite activities of home-based activities, he emphasized that tourism behaviors may be rooted in daily activities. Burch's (1969) familiarity concept and compensatory concept were reviewed for upholding his argument. On one hand,

using the assumption of the familiarity concept, he postulated that particular activities that individuals enjoy in their daily life could be maintained or developed during vacation. Although individuals may have new experiences in a novel environment while on vacation, the experiences could be based on their daily routine activities. On the other hand, the compensatory concept is related to unfamiliar behaviors. That is, some people consider vacation behaviors as an opportunity to avoid regular routine behaviors. According to Currie's LIP behavior framework, familiarity-seeking behaviors could be connected to prosaic vacation behaviors in a liminoid space (Turner, 1969), whereas compensatory behaviors might relate to inversionary vacation behaviors. Even though both the familiarity and compensatory-seeking behaviors might result in different patterns of vacation behaviors, Currie highlighted that both the prosaic and inversionary behaviors are a reflection of individuals' routine lifestyles.

Similarly, Carr (2002) described how leisure and tourism can be consistently united on a continuum. Even though tourism behaviors might be more hedonic-oriented than leisure behaviors, some individuals retain the same values from their everyday life. Carr's leisure and tourism continuum identifies three primary reasons for this consistency: subjective norms and attitudes, preference and personality, and deep-rooted habits. First, as individuals are strongly influenced by their subjective norms and values, they exercise self-control so as to keep the same attitudes even in new environments. For example, some people maintain a sexually conservative attitude in both home and vacation settings. Sub-cultural values may be another part of this consistency in subjective norms and values. Membership of a specific subculture such as those associated with various sports may result in somewhat consistent behaviors between leisure and tourism contexts. Second, individual preference and personality may enhance the consistency between leisure and tourism behaviors. Some people prefer more secure and familiar settings and

therefore they choose chain hotels and franchised restaurants when they travel (Cohen, 1972; Ryan & Cave, 2005). Third, Carr (2002) explained the parallel between leisure and tourism by deep-rooted habits. During vacation, habitual behaviors such as social skills or physical activity acquired from everyday life appear spontaneously in tourism contexts.

In a more recent study, Brey and Lehto (2007) suggested that behavioral consistency between leisure and tourism could be explained by leisure involvement. Pointing out that previous studies have stressed the importance of leisure and recreation in tourism product development (Chubb & Chubb, 1981; Clawson, Held, & Stoddart, 1960), Brey and Lehto suggested that leisure involvement plays a critical role in the decision making process for travel choices. To empirically investigate this supposition, they asked their study participants about the frequency of their daily recreation activities, and then, whether they took part in these same activities during their vacations. Their findings revealed that golf, jogging, and biking among different leisure sport activities had the highest levels of participation frequency in both leisure and tourism contexts. Even though Brey and Lehto's study can be critiqued for a lack of complexity in investigating the degree of involvement with leisure activities and how this translates to the tourism context, their study can be regarded as a good first step in investigating this relationship, particularly the apparently strong relationship between physical activity participation in both leisure and tourism contexts.

Likewise, Henderson (2005a, 2005b) suggested that physical activities, leisure, recreation, and travel are interrelated, and might be explained by the psychological benefits gained from active and healthy lifestyles. Psychological benefits such as pleasurable experiences of physical activities in every day leisure life facilitate recreational choices, which in turn, may encourage people to continue to be involved in travel associated with these activities as part of their overall

lifestyles. This extension of enjoyable experiences from leisure to tourism is likely to contribute to increasing the overall quality of life (Godbey, et al., 2005; Ingham, 1990; Sallis, et al., 2005). Physically active leisure as a part of active lifestyles seems to influence the number of people who engage in active vacations and sport-related tourism activities (Chon & Singh, 1995; Fluker & Turner, 2000; Redmond, 1991). Some researchers suggest that leisure lifestyles could explain travel patterns more precisely than socio-demographics (Bieger & Laesser, 2004). Sung (2004) attempted to understand trip characteristics through leisure lifestyles including leisure involvement. Based on their lifestyles, Sung classified adventure travelers into six subgroups, general enthusiasts, budget youngsters, soft moderates, upper high naturalists, family vacationers, and active soloists and found that the six subgroups were different in travel decision-making styles, preferred travel activities, travel information sources, travel expenditures, and types of preferred destinations. Hallab, Yoon, and Uysal (2003) found a positive relationship between active and healthy living attitudes and active and healthy travel pursuits. In another study, Hallab and Gursoy (2006) found that positive attitudes towards exercise as an active and healthy leisure style encouraged people to seek more information on active forms of travel.

### **Sport as Leisure and Tourism**

Seemingly, sports, physical activities and active outdoor recreation appeal to people as both leisure and tourism activities. Walking, running, bicycling, swimming, playing tennis, and golf are popular as leisure activities as well as tourism activities (Brey & Lehto, 2007; De Knop, 1987; Tinsley & Tinsley, 1986). People are involved in these sports, physical activities and active outdoor recreation in either casual or serious ways (Jones & Green, 2006). Indeed sports, physical activities and active outdoor recreation have often been linked to the concept of serious leisure. Stebbins (1982) postulated that serious leisure activities are characterized by six distinctive elements: perseverance, career, personal effort to acquire knowledge, training or skill,

durable benefits such as self-actualization or self-expression, self-identification, and a unique ethos (i.e., social worlds). As an illustration, to be immersed in bicycling, people should persevere through hardships, have long-term achievement with bicycling, attempt to acquire more knowledge and skills related to bicycling, gain real enjoyment and self-actualization through bicycling, and have their self-identity tied to bicycling. Furthermore, this commitment to cycling is enhanced further through social world membership (Unruh, 1979).

In a study of recreational road runners, many of whom also exemplify the characteristics of serious leisure, McGehee, Yoon and Cardenas (2003) investigated their participation in running and running-related tourism. In terms of behavioral patterns between different levels of involvement with recreational running, the high involvement group tended to have higher levels of participation in road races and tended to make more overnight trips than those with medium levels of involvement. McGehee et al's study classifies participation in road races as a form of active sport tourism and as such is part of the growing attention being given to sports-related travel or sport tourism.

Then, what is sport tourism? The historical origins of sport tourism described by Standeven and De Knop (1999) were the ancient Olympic Games in 776 B.C. (Finley & Pleket, 1976), followed by football tournaments and crossbow contests in Medieval times (500-1400 A. D), international tennis and archery tournaments viewed as intellectual activities in the Renaissance (1400-1600), and international sports exchange through the Grand Tour in the Pre-modern world (1600-1800). In the nineteenth and early twentieth centuries, sport tourism was increasingly influenced by industrialization. Under colonialism as one part of industrialization, European countries engaged in the so-called civilizing of the native peoples of North America and beyond, and sport and tourism were used as a means of cultural diffusion. Moreover, technology

advanced by industrialization improved transportation, which resulted in more travel and encouraged sports participants and spectators to move out of their home towns. As a result, particularly, skiing, climbing, football, tennis, cycling, hiking, and baseball became popular in North America, activities with roots in the European countries. However, it was not until the mid 1970s when travel industry analysts and a growing body of academics started writing about the potential of sport related tourism (Schreyer, 1976). As an initial academic endeavor, sport tourism was studied by a British scholar, Sue Glyptis (1982). She focused on the importance of active sport activities undertaken on vacation. She compared sport tourism participation patterns among tourists in six European countries (i.e., France, Germany, Sweden, Netherlands, Spain, and Britain). As her study was commissioned by the Sports Council of the United Kingdom, her goal was to examine better ways for sport tourism development in a benchmarking process. Overall, she found that participation in active forms of recreation was increasing in the six countries, whereas passive leisure forms were in decline. She also found that sport and physical recreation played a major part in tourism. Glyptis reported that more and more people in the six countries had taken part in nature and health sports activities such as walking, cycling, swimming, and canoeing during vacation on account of an increasing interest in the social and health benefits of sports rather than competition. Similarly, De Knop (1987, 1990) demonstrated that active sport tourism participation was replacing passive sport tourism participation as a new international trend. In turn, he suggested that there was an increasing overlap between everyday leisure activity and vacation activities. As such, the early focus of both academics and providers of sport tourism tended to be on active sport tourism, especially in the European context.

However in contrast, in the 1980s North America's sport tourism studies still put more focus on mega event based sport tourism (Ritchie, 1984), even though there was some attention

on outdoor adventure recreation as a form of sport tourism at the end of 1980s (Ewert, 1987). To recover from the worst economic situation resulting from the world recession of the early 1980s, local communities attempted to expand their interest into new service industries (Roche, 1992, 1994), and their choice to achieve this goal was mega and hall mark sports events as the accompanying media promotion was thought to attract more international tourists as well as domestic tourists into their communities. Therefore, the overall trend of North America sport tourism studies in the 1980s tended to focus more on event sport tourism, particularly the large scale rather than the small scale sport events, with an emphasis on passive sport tourism (e.g., spectators or sport fans) rather than active sport tourism (i.e., travel to take part in sports). Furthermore, economic and social impacts as perceived by the residents were the specific focus of these studies as opposed to social, cultural, and health benefits perceived by both residents and tourists.

Despite the different foci between European and North American academics, on both continents there was a tendency to regard sport and tourism as separate areas even though they recognized that sport and tourism are interrelated. Glyptis' (1991) notion that "sport and tourism tend to be treated by academic and practitioner alike as separate spheres of activity. Each has its own journals, academic departments, learned societies, and government agencies" (p.165) reflected this tendency. Tourism-relevant organizations merely treated mega sporting events as a way to attract more visitors, and sports organizations limited their efforts to sport spectators and sporting events within the stadium rather than cooperating with the tourism-related agencies in their communities.

In the mid 1990s, however, sport tourism as an academic endeavor began to develop (Gibson, 1998a, 1998b). Many of the early writings were devoted to defining sport tourism.

Sport tourism was generally defined as sport-related activities that involved traveling away from home to participate (Gibson, 1998a, 1998b; Hall, 1992; Hinch & Higham, 2001; Nogawa, et al., 1996; Standeven & DeKnop, 1999; Weed & Bull, 1997). For more specific definitional approaches to sport tourism, Hall (1992) distinguished between adventure tourism, sport tourism, and health tourism. Adventure tourism is defined as outdoor touristic activities, often performed in the natural environment away from home with some level of risk, whereas sport tourism is defined as travel to participate in or attend sports with non-commercial motives. Health tourism is described as travel away from home with health as the most important motive. The types of adventure, sport, and health were classified as having active and competitive dimensions. Health tourism tends to be viewed in terms of non-competitive motives, sport tourism in terms of competitive motives, and adventure tourism in the middle between non-competitive and competitive. As less active tourism, spa-relevant health tourism, yacht adventure tourism, and spectating sport tourism were given as examples. As examples of more active tourism, scuba diving, climbing adventure tourism, and ocean racing sport tourism were included. However, this distinction has a limitation in that except for several activities at the extreme ends of a continuum, most motives and activities in adventure, sport, and health tourism tend to overlap.

Kurtzman and Zauhar (1995) defined sport tourism as the use of sport for touristic endeavors. Seemingly, this definitional approach put more weight on tourism rather than an integrative perspective of sport and tourism. Distinct from the 1980s, they classified various types of sport tourism activities: sport tourism events (e.g., the Olympic games, regional/national/international sport games, championships, scheduled league games professional and amateur teams, friendship games, etc), sport tourism tours (e.g., professional sport games tour, sport adventure tour, game safaris, cycling/climbing tours, etc), sport tourism cruises (e.g.,

sport celebrity cruises, sailing, scuba cruises, fishing, canoeing, etc), sport tourism resorts (e.g., golf resorts, fitness and spa resorts, camping, etc) and sport tourism attractions (e.g., sport museums, sport theme parks, bungee jumping, stadiums, etc). Their classification was very much based on the attributes of each type of sport tourism as an attraction.

In contrast, Nogawa, et al. (1996) defined sport tourists as visitors who spend at least 24 hours away from home, taking part in a sport event as a primary reason and visiting other attractions as their secondary reason. This definition is based on motivations and is notable as it is one of the first to address the issue of primary and secondary motivations in sport and tourism. This study is also notable in that it is the first sport tourism study to distinguish between excursionists (i.e., day trippers) and tourists in the sport tourism realm. However, their definition is more oriented to the event based sports and it seems insufficient to embrace recreational activities or outdoor based sport tourists.

Gammon and Robinson (1997) attempted to provide a more integrative definition of sport tourism. They described sport tourists as individuals or groups taking part in competitive or recreational sport in either active or passive ways in the vacation environment away from their routine life. Gammon and Robinson also distinguished sport as a primary motivation (i.e., sport tourism) from tourism as primary motivation (i.e., tourism sport). Their approach was more comprehensive than previous definitions as it encompassed individual and group, active and passive, and primary and secondary motivations. They also addressed the issue of competition as related to sport tourism. They used the term hard sport tourism to describe sport tourists who participate in competitive events, and soft sport tourists are those who participate in recreational sporting activities. Furthermore, they describe hard tourism sport as those sport tourists for whom sport is a secondary motivation for their trip, but are still competitive, whereas soft

tourism sport is related to visitors who may dabble in recreational sport while on vacation. Despite their endeavor to develop a more specific definition, the distinction between soft sport tourism and hard tourism sport is not likely to be evident. Even though they noted that this distinction is important in consumer segmentation and services, it is questionable if clearly distinct services can be provided between soft sport tourism and hard tourism sport.

Gibson (1998b) defined sport tourism as “leisure-based travel that is temporarily away from home to participate in physical activities, to observe physical activities and to visit physical activities-relevant attractions” (p.49). Specifically, she defined sport tourist as three types: 1) active sport tourists who travel to take part in sport, 2) event sport tourists who travel to watch sport, and 3) taking a lead from Redmond’s (1991) work, nostalgia sport tourists who visit sport tourism attractions such as halls of fame, famous stadia, or sport-themed cruises.

According to Standeven and DeKnop (1999), sport tourism is delineated as travel for non-commercial, holiday and commercial, non-holiday or business reasons to take part in or observe sporting activities. Furthermore, they suggested that there should be passive and active sport tourism under a distinction of holiday and non-holiday. For example, holiday active sport tourism consists of holiday sport activities and sport activity holiday (i.e., holiday sport activities is travel where sport is secondary, whereas sport activity holiday is travel in which sport is a main motivation of the trip), and holiday passive sport tourism comprises casual observer and connoisseur (i.e., connoisseur observers are those who regularly watch sports and are avid fans, whereas casual observers are those who enjoy attending an event incidentally). However, they did not provide any specific forms of passive and active sport tourism under non-holiday. However, by including commercial reasons, non-holiday, their definition distinguished it from previous definitions.

Hinch and Higham (2001) defined sport tourism as “sport-based travel away from the home environment for a limited time, where sport is characterized by unique rule sets, competition related to physical prowess, and a playful nature”(p. 49). They identified three dimensions of sport tourism: the sport activity dimension, the temporal dimension, and the spatial dimension. The sport activity dimension entails the rule structure, physical competition, and playfulness. The temporal dimension consists of duration, seasonality, and evolution. The spatial dimension comprises location, regions, and landscape. This framework seems to be valuable for researchers as it enables them in comparing different levels of competition by specified temporal and spatial factors, or different spatial and temporal dimensions for elite or recreational sport tourists.

Deery, Jago, and Fredline (2004) criticized Gammon and Robinson’s (1997) definition of sport tourism as too broad. They argued that the key distinguishing characteristic of sport tourism is the level of competitiveness associated with a sport event. They postulated that if a sport is non-competitive, it should be regarded as recreational or leisure tourism rather than sport tourism. Additionally they concluded that sport tourism and sport event tourism are synonymous and they discounted the existence of any other type of sport tourism. However, their arguments are also ambiguous in several perspectives. Firstly, suppose that we identify sport tourism as other than that associated with events distinguished solely by level of competition, are individuals’ primary motivations to participate in an event always about competition? Other studies suggest that the primary motivations for taking part in event sport tourism may also entail socializing, exercise or pure enjoyment in which case are these tourists recreational tourists or sport tourists? In many respects, by defining sport tourism solely in terms of competitive sport events is very narrow and as such only encompasses a small segment of the overall sport tourist population. Certainly the early writings by Glyptis (1982) and DeKnop (1991) provided

sufficient evidence to suggest that numerous sport tourism forms involving minimal levels of competition exist. Hall (1992) and Hinch and Higham (2001) would also support this position. Moreover, Robinson and Gammon's (2004) argument that sport tourism encompasses both primary and secondary motivations seems to be important, in that "the secondary motives had an enriching affect upon the primary ones...therefore, secondary motives should not be perceived as inferior or second rate, but rather as sources of enrichment to the primary ones" (pp. 224-225). This perspective is likely to be supported by Gibson's (2004) notion that people have multiple roles rather than one single tourist role while on vacation.

Sport tourism research in the 1990s and 2000s has become more diverse in its research foci. Research on the mega events has continued (e.g., Gratton, Shibli, & Coleman, 2005), however, there has been growing attention on recreational forms of active sport tourism such as bicycling and adventure tourism as well as on active sport tourists who take part in small scale sport events. Ritchie (1998) studied bicycling tourism as active sport tourism. In his study, the types of bicycling tourists consisted of hard-core recreational cyclists, *enthusiasts* on one end of a continuum and soft-core bicycle tourists, *occasional riders* on the opposite. The main motivation of enthusiasts is cycling itself, whereas for occasional riders, cycling is one enjoyable mode of transportation among various alternatives when touring destinations. This continuum is very similar to leisure specialization (Bryan, 1977), behavioral loyalty (Iwasaki & Havitz, 2004), and serious leisure (Stebbins, 1982) that have mainly been used in leisure studies. From Ritchie's notion that "bicycling is perceived by tourists as an integral part of vacation and as a positive way of enhancing leisure time" (Ritchie, 1998, p. 568), we can infer that active sport tourists have some behavioral connection between their leisure activities and tourism activities.

As a form of active sport tourism, Pomfret (2006) generated a conceptual framework of mountaineering adventure tourists. In his conceptual framework of adventure tourism, push and pull motivational factors, personality, and lifestyles may influence participation in adventure tourism, and all those factors affect the cognitive and emotional experience during adventure activities. This experience is in turn combined with motivations, personality, and lifestyles in the decision making process associated with future participation.

In another form of active sport tourism, focusing on small-scale sport events, Ryan and Lockyer (2002) investigated how importantly participants perceive Master's Games-relevant elements and how they were satisfied with the event. Indeed, Trauer, et al. (2003) dimensionalized sport tourists who participated in the 2000 and 2002 South Pacific Masters' Games held in New Zealand into four types based on the degree of social-sport orientation and the degree of competence involvement. High competence involvement and high sport orientation were found to be associated with the serious competitor group, while low competence involvement and high social orientation were related to the novice/dabbler group.

In fact, the current pattern of active sport tourism studies is likely to concentrate more on internal factors of those tourists (e.g., motivations and involvement) (Gibson, 2004). Moreover, as shown in the examples such as hard and soft competitive groups or individuals whose primary motivation is sport (i.e., sport tourist) versus primary motivation is tourism (i.e., tourism sportists) (Gammon & Robinson, 1997), or sport-social oriented groups (Trauer, et al., 2003), and a variety of types segmented by temporal, spatial, and activity (Hinch & Higham, 2001), active sport tourism is diverse in its types.

## **Involvement**

### **Theoretical Foundation in Social Psychology**

Several researchers have suggested leisure involvement as an important variable to better understand individuals' participation in active sport tourism, especially in the connection of leisure to tourism (e.g., McGehee et al., 2003; Trauer et al., 2003). The study of involvement originated from social judgment theory formulated by Sherif and Cantril (1947). Social judgment theory explains how an individual's perception influences the judgmental process and why the individual who is greatly involved in a certain object tends to look for same or similar ones to the object with which they are involved. According to social judgment theory, an individual's existing attitudes refer to lenses through which to judge a newly incoming message. These attitudes interpret meanings of the message and further judge the information. People have different positions toward this incoming information in this regard. Social judgment theory posited that a variety of positions are categorized into three ranges: the latitude of acceptance, the latitude of rejection and, the latitude of non-commitment. Many positions within agreement (e.g., from *slightly agree* to *strongly agree*) are included in the range of acceptance, and different levels of disagreement likewise range in the latitude of rejection. However some people have a neutral position considering neither agreement nor disagreement, which is in the latitude of non-commitment. In the persuasion process, people who have acceptable and non-committal attitudes toward the message are more easily persuaded but individuals with attitudes in the range of rejection are hard to change. The larger latitude of acceptance, the easier it is to change attitudes. Specifically, if an individual has a wider range of acceptance, he/she has a narrower range of rejection and more room to change their existing attitudes (Sherif, Sherif, & Nebergall, 1965).

A crucial determinant that influences this larger latitude of rejection whereby attitudes resist change is ego involvement (Sherif & Cantril, 1947; Sherif & Hovland, 1961). Ego-

involvement is a structure in which individuals project their self-concept to objects, and further affirm the value of self through such objects (Sherif & Cantril, 1947). When a given issue is very critical to the self-identity of an individual, it is assumed that he/she becomes ego-involved in the issue and takes an extreme position (the so-called anchor position) on that issue. High ego involvement is associated with a narrow latitude of acceptance (Sherif, et al., 1965). When becoming immersed in an issue, people use fewer categories, instead of a diversity of positions, in developing their attitudes toward the issue (Sherif & Hovland, 1961). This narrow range of viewpoints toward a highly involving issue could make the interpretation of incoming information biased because if the message issue is closer to the anchor position within the latitude of acceptance, people perceive this message as more akin to their position and judge it as more acceptable. Existing attitudes in this highly involved position strive to maintain consistency by assimilating or contrasting a given issue (Sherif et al., 1965). Sherif, Kelly, Rodgers, Sarup, and Tittler (1973) further suggested that when attitudes of individuals are more ego-involved, their future behaviors are better predicted.

Johnson and Eagly (1989) paid more attention to the relationship between involvement and persuasion (i.e., attitude change). They defined involvement as “a motivational state induced by an association between self-concept and an activated attitude” (p.290). A highly involving issue would generate less attitude change, which leads to selective perception to maintain consistency with it and minimizes the impact from external sources (Johnson & Eagly, 1989). However, Johnson and Eagly argued that social judgment theory did not cover different types of involvement in its formulation, and three different types of involvement might have different impacts on attitude change (persuasion): value-relevant involvement, outcome-relevant involvement, and self-impression-relevant involvement. Value-relevant involvement is identical

with ego-involvement mentioned in social judgment theory, whereas outcome-relevant involvement refers to the involvement on the specific consequence that an individual wants to acquire, and self-impression-relevant involvement relates to involvement with the impression that an individual wants to show to others. They found that value and impression involvement revealed a similar pattern to the traditional assumptions of social judgment theory such that high involvement results in a wider range of rejection and less persuasion, but the relationship between outcome-relevant involvement and persuasion is unstable in relation to the quality of the argument (i.e., the strength of argument).

Against this finding, Petty and Cacioppo (1990) argued that value and outcome-relevant involvement should be regarded as one type of involvement termed issue involvement because both are not clearly distinguished from each other and not separately measured in the persuasion process. They argued that issue involvement encompasses all issues associated with personal importance regardless of more abstract values (e.g., freedom) or more concrete goals (e.g., obtaining an education) and it is not necessary for involvement to be overspecified. That is, an issue in which an individual is highly involved is an intrinsically important and personally meaningful issue (Petty & Cacioppo, 1996). However these specified types of involvement and their measurement in social judgment theory are still arguable. In particular, how much different kinds of involvement will be influenced by the content of a message such as the strength or credibility of the argument and how accurately these involvements are measured have been the crux of the matter in these debates. Nonetheless, these arguments stand on the assertion that all of these involvements are related to self-perception. Two ways to measure these involvements have mainly been used in social psychology. One way is to distinguish members from non-members of a group to see the difference between the high-involvement group and the low-

involvement group (Sherif & Hovland, 1961), and the other way is to classify the participants by self-reported rate on the level of involvement in a given issue (Powell, 1977).

### **Consumer Involvement**

To predict future behaviors, marketing studies started having an interest in the involvement concept because it was posited that ego involvement that stimulates a narrow latitude of acceptance and reinforces resistance to attitude change is more likely to lead to consistency of behavior (e.g., Day, 1970; Havitz & Dimanche, 1990). Specifically, in consumer behavior research, ego involvement has been used to predict the buying behavior of consumers (e.g., Bloch, 1981; Mitchell, 1979; Robertson, 1976; Rothschild, 1984). However, conceptual and operational definitions of involvement in consumer behaviors have varied by different studies. For example, interest (Day, 1970), belief strength (Robertson, 1976), the internal state including arousal and interest (Mitchell, 1979), and the perceived importance of values (Lastovicka, 1979) were used as the terms to conceptualize consumer involvement in the 1970s. Further Houston and Rothschild (1978) even classified involvement into situational concern, consistent behavioral concern, and decision making concern.

In the 1980s, definitions of involvement became more specific to deal with the more complex aspects related to consumption of products or brands. A general pattern of approaches to involvement was developed to further classify this construct. Internal (i.e., personal value), external (i.e., influences from objects), and situational involvement (Bloch & Richins, 1983), enduring involvement such as self, pleasure and leisure activity and situational involvement such as products or brands (Bloch & Bruce, 1984; Richins & Bloch, 1986), and mental and behavioral involvement (Stone, 1984) were attempts to account for different elements included in involvement. Furthermore, emotional attachment (Bloch, 1981) or affective response (Manfredo,

1989) were included in involvement definitions in addition to interest and arousal. Appendix A presents different definitions of involvement.

In the mid 1980s, several scales to measure involvement were developed. The unidimensional semantic scale, Personal Involvement Inventory (PII) developed by Zaichkowsky (1985) and the multidimensional Likert scale, Consumer Involvement Profile (CIP) developed by Laurent and Kapferer (1985) are the representative scales that have been used to measure responses. Zaichkowsky's PII provided the 20 adjective pairs such as "essential," "desirable," "important," "interesting," "relevant," "useful," "valuable" to measure unidimensional involvement. On the other hand, Laurent and Kapferer's IP scales provided five multifaceted domains of involvement: 1) the importance of the product perceived by the consumer, 2) the sign-value related to the product identified with group standards, 3) continuous interest, 4) a perceived risk related to the likelihood for a mispurchase and the negative consequences occurring from a mispurchase, and 5) emotional values such as pleasure. Later, Assael (1998) categorized importance, interest, and emotional values into enduring involvement, and risks and sign values into situational involvement. Particularly, Beatty, Kahle, and Homer (1988) noted that situational involvement is influenced by environments, prices, services, or alternatives.

Many researchers in the consumer behavior studies have applied Zaichkowsky's (1985) PII and Laurent and Kapferer's (1985) IP to measure product involvement and purchase involvement. For example, Warrington and Shim (2000) used eight items adapted from the PII scale to measure product involvement. However, their product involvement consists of situational involvement toward the use of a product in a specific situation and enduring involvement toward the relationship of the product to people's central values over the buying situation. The items were measured on a 7-point semantic differential scale such as "*unimportant* (1) to *important*

(7),” “*no concern* (1) to *concern* (7),” and “*unappealing* (1) to *appealing* (7).” Using the IP scale, Quester and Lim (2003) employed 16 items consisting of hedonic value, importance, risk probability, risk consequences, and sign value dimensions to measure the product involvement and the purchase involvement on the basis of a 5 point-Likert scale where 1 = *totally disagree* and 5 = *totally agree*.

### **Leisure Involvement**

The approach to involvement in the field of leisure studies has been similar to that of consumer behavior although the major difference is that in leisure studies, more focus has been put on enduring involvement in ego-valued activities. Many leisure researchers have viewed the idea of involvement as one of the most important factors in determining the quality of leisure experience in terms of long-term participation, even though a range of terms and similar concepts such as flow, specialization, commitment, serious leisure, and loyalty have been used (Backman & Crompton, 1989, 1991; Bryan, 1979; Buchanan, 1985; Csikszentmihalyi, 1975; Mannell & Iso-Ahola, 1987; Neulinger, 1974; Stebbins, 1982; Warnick & Howard, 1985).

The concept of specialization developed by Bryan (1979) is considered an original framework from which to observe involvement with leisure activities. Bryan noted that a specialized process from general to particular leisure participation could be described by the extent to which people are involved in or committed to a particular leisure activity and its associated leisure social groups. The suggested method of measuring this degree of involvement or commitment was to examine equipment ownership, skills used in leisure activity, and preference for particular leisure settings. Wellman, Roggenbuck, and Smith (1982) in their study of seriousness of canoeists in canoeing adapted the concept of specialization and measurement suggested by Bryan (1977) to include past experiences and current participation in river canoeing, equipment ownership, social interaction with other canoeists through organizations,

purchase of magazines or books, participation in kayak building and formal canoeing instruction, and the perceived role as a canoeist in their life. Focusing more on the product and equipment-oriented leisure involvement, Bloch and Bruce (1984) used a sample consisting of members of local sports car clubs and customers of fashion clothing boutiques. They examined involvement with products (i.e., automobiles and clothing) and satisfaction, and found a positive relationship between involvement and satisfaction.

However, pointing out that Bryan (1977) had merely concentrated on behavioral aspects with the purpose of observing the degree of involvement or specialization in a leisure activity, many researchers (Buchanan, 1985; Schreyer & Beaulieu, 1986; McIntyre, 1989) suggested that psychological aspects along with behavioral components should be studied. Leisure commitment is a concept that has been used to understand psychological components of leisure specialization (Buchanan, 1985). Leisure specialization was considered to be an observable manifestation of leisure commitment. Furthermore, Buchanan attempted to comprehensively associate the concept of commitment with existing leisure theories such as leisure conflict (Kanter, 1968), leisure social worlds (Bryan, 1977; Unruh, 1979), leisure substitution (Vaske, 1980), and serious leisure (Stebbins, 1982), as well as leisure specialization (Bryan, 1977). Buchanan regarded commitment as a concept similar to involvement, loyalty, dedication, and attachment, however, he felt that if the concept of commitment was operationalized appropriately, this might contribute to the higher predictability of leisure behavior. To describe leisure commitment, Buchanan used Becker's (1960) side bet concept (i.e., investment such as financial or extended activities derived from the main bet or activity) and Kiesler's (1968) commitment definition as a binding to behavioral acts. Leisure commitment was defined as a binding of an individual to a specific leisure behavior producing emotional attachment, relevant roles and behaviors, and benefits. It

was further suggested that the three major components of leisure commitment are a rejection of alternative behaviors due to a focused behavior, a function of side bets, and some affective attachment to the goals and values of a role, an activity or an organization. He noted that the amount of past experience, the centrality of participation to lifestyle and the degree of investment could be used to measure this leisure commitment.

Similarly, Schreyer and Beaulieu (1986) endeavored to connect the concept of commitment to specialization. They examined the relationship between recreational activity commitment (i.e., the relative importance compared to other recreational activities) and the choice of certain environments (i.e., specialization operationalized by behavioral frequency consisting of participation history in wilderness recreation, the average number of trips made per year, and the number of different wilderness areas visited). However, they did not clearly account for why they studied the relationship between activity commitment and destination specialization instead of activity specialization. It seems to be important to distinguish between activity and destination because individuals could consistently visit one place instead of different wilderness areas despite participating in wilderness recreation for a long time. In addition, there was no apparent explanation as to why relative importance was regarded as commitment, whereas the history of different destination choices is deemed specialization.

Buchanan (1985) strived to associate the concept of commitment with specialization in more sociological terms, whereas McIntyre (1989) suggested the concept of enduring involvement should be linked to specialization from a more psychological perspective. McIntyre specified the concept of involvement in a leisure experience-oriented way. He described enduring involvement as a central role of leisure activity in an individual's personal life. McIntyre (1989) suggested the leisure involvement scale adapted from involvement items

developed by Arora (1982), Bloch and Bruce (1984), and Laurent and Kapferer (1985) in consumer research. Distinct from consumer involvement, McIntyre's leisure involvement scale consisted of centrality, attraction, and self-expression dimensions with the removal of the risk dimension. McIntyre suggested that the risk factor should be included in situational involvement that it is irrelevant to leisure experiences. His study found that campers who used three different types of camp site revealed different levels of centrality, whereas they were not significantly different in attraction and self-expression. McIntyre and Pigram (1992) took a more multi-dimensional approach (i.e., behavioral, affective, and cognitive), combining Little's (1976) specialization loop with three factors (i.e., centrality, attraction, self-expression) of leisure involvement. They examined past experience in the behavioral aspect, enduring involvement (i.e., centrality, attraction, self-expression) in the affective aspect, and familiarity in the cognitive aspect to compare four groups of specialized campers. This multidimensional approach seems to be more suitable for understanding different types of leisure activity that cannot be exactly examined by Bryan's (1979) behavioral approach. For example, the need of higher level skills or equipment purchase varies across the types of activities. Indeed, Bloch, Black, and Lichtenstein (1989) found that involvement with equipment (i.e., running shoes) purchase was not significantly related to psychological components (i.e., importance and favorability) toward running.

McIntyre (1989) focused more on enduring involvement in the leisure and recreation contexts, whereas Havitz and Dimanche (1990) took purchase-related situational components such as risk probability and risk consequences into consideration in the tourism context. The inclusion of the risk factor in the tourism context seems to be reasonable due to more impact of financial and time risks and more influence of promotion and advertising on the travel decision

making. Similarly, other tourism studies included the risk dimension in the tourism settings (Gursoy, & Gavcar, 2003; Jamrozy, Backman, & Backman, 1996).

However, the levels of spending time and money vary across the types of tourism activities, although certain risks associated with purchasing goods exist. Madrigal, Havitz and Howard's (1992) study shows an example that different types of leisure and tourism activity may have different levels of risk. They assumed that purchase involvement would entail risk facets because family vacations need a high-involvement purchase decision, but the risk dimension was found not to be closely related to other dimensions of involvement. There were several possible reasons why the risk facet had low communality with the other involvement dimensions. One reason was small sample size and the other reason was that the difference between the family vacation purchase process and general product purchase process may lead to low communality (Madrigal et al., 1992). The risk items associated with purchasing might not reflect this family experience aspect. Risks associated with family-related vacation experiences rather than risks associated with purchasing a product would be better examined separately, leading to a higher communality. Another possible reason unexplained by Madrigal et al. (1992) is that pleasure, importance, and sign-related items were more relevant to family vacation experiences, whereas risk-related items were related to the family vacation destination choice, even though a destination is confined to a place, but experiences encompass all activities, places, and people. However, differing from Madrigal et al., Havitz and his colleagues (Havitz, Dimanche, & Howard, 1993; Havitz, Green, & McCarville, 1993) applied the CIP scale including the risk domain (Laurent & Kapferer, 1985) to different leisure, recreation, and tourism activities and demonstrated they obtained acceptable reliability and validity.

Kim et al. (1997) also adapted the CIP scale including the risk facets to examine the relationship between involvement and commitment with bird watching. However, they considered that the involvement construct consists of importance-pleasure, risk, and sign, while centrality is included in the commitment construct. Kim et al. concluded that centrality would be a more appropriate indicator to examine commitment after they reviewed Johnson's (1973) commitment concept that consists of personal and behavioral (i.e., behavioral commitment comprised of social and cost commitment) persistence. Perceived risk was found to be negatively related to other involvement dimensions (i.e., importance-pleasure and sign). This finding verified Havitz and Dimanche's (1999) assumption that participants who are relatively less involved in an activity might perceive higher risks than people who are more highly involved in an activity (Havitz, Dimanche, & Bogle, 1994).

Several leisure researchers have also been interested in distinguishing involvement from commitment. Bloch, et al. (1989) examined the relationship between recreational commitment and involvement with equipment. Recreational commitment was considered psychological (i.e. the importance of running, favorite activity, and time spent thinking about it), behavioral (i.e. the number of races participated in, the number of running magazines read, the mile run per week), and experience (i.e. years of experience as a runner). Equipment involvement was operationalized as perceived importance and knowledge (i.e. familiarity) and outcome of equipment involvement, as spending levels and opinion leadership (i.e., equipment-related discussions and information). Multidimensional constructs of both involvement and commitment were confirmed but several factors between two constructs did not have a significant relationship. For example, psychological commitment to running had a positive effect on the perceived importance of running equipment involvement, whereas behavioral commitment was

not significantly associated with the perceived importance factor of equipment involvement, but had a significant relationship with the knowledge dimension in equipment involvement.

However, the distinction between commitment and involvement in their study is not clear. Both commitment and involvement were considered to have the same meaning as each other (i.e., perceived importance), but were applied to activity and equipment, respectively. If their meanings are not much different from each other, it is ambiguous why they used the commitment term for activity and the involvement term for equipment. In contrast to Bloch et al. (1989), Siegenthaler and Lam (1992) attempted to discriminate between commitment and involvement toward the same object (i.e., recreational tennis). They hypothesized that commitment in tennis is indicated by continuance, sacrifice, and dedication and ego-involvement in tennis is indicated by self-image, interest, enjoyment, centrality, and importance. However, these hypotheses were rejected even if another hypothesis that both constructs would be correlated was accepted.

Furthermore, beyond the distinction between involvement and commitment, some researchers also distinguished loyalty from those of involvement and commitment. As part of this phase of involvement research, Gahwiler and Havitz (1998) examined social worlds, leisure involvement (i.e., attraction, sign, risk probability, risk consequence, centrality), psychological commitment (i.e., cognitive complexity, resistance to change, volition, position involvement) and behavioral loyalty (i.e., frequency, spending time) of YMCA members. Particularly, this study supported the utility of Bryan's (1979) idea about specialized members of leisure social worlds using Unruh's (1979) social worlds categories. They found that members of deeply engaged social subworld groups were not only more highly involved in leisure activities but also more psychologically committed and behaviorally loyal to the service provider, in this case the YMCA. In a similar study, Iwasaki and Havitz (1998, 2004) found the influence of leisure

involvement (i.e., attraction, sign, centrality, and risk) of fitness participants on psychological commitment (i.e., informational complexity, volitional choice, and position involvement) and behavioral loyalty to a recreation agency was significant. But risk probability had a negative correlation with the other involvement factors, reconfirming their assumption that those who are highly involved are less concerned about their poor choice.

In the first decade of the 21<sup>st</sup> century, several researchers started focusing on involvement combined with contextual constructs such as place attachment (Bricker & Kerstetter, 2000; Kyle, Graefe, Manning, & Bacon, 2004a; Kyle & Mowen, 2005). Most of these studies did not take the risk dimension into consideration and tended to use McIntyre's (1989) involvement dimensions. Kyle and Mowen (2005) assumed that leisure involvement (i.e., attraction, centrality, self-expression) would influence commitment (i.e., place dependence and identity, affective attachment, value congruence, and social bonding) to a public leisure service provider in Cleveland Metroparks settings and this assumption was partially supported. Later, questioning the validity of the involvement factors, however, Kyle, Absher, Norman, Hammitt, and Jodice (2007) tested five involvement factors, creating social bonding, identity-expression and identity-affirmation factors along with attraction and centrality. They found that a correlated factors model was the best fit model as compared to a single factor model, an uncorrelated factors model and a hierarchical model. The researchers found that the identity-related items have some variability between two different settings.

However, this study did not explain the theoretical and conceptual differences between identity-expression and identity-affirmation. If identity-affirmation means self-affirmation theory (Steel, 1988), the given items do not seem to reflect this theory, adequately. According to self-affirmation theory, people cannot be troubled by inconsistency provided they can affirm their

larger identity in a way irrelevant to the concerned problem. For example, some students do not have good academic performance, but if they think they are very good athletes, their overall self-identity is not threatened by their poor academic performance. In other words, individuals can maintain their self-esteem by generating a global positive self-view, whereas self-verification theory (Swann, 1992) assumes that people are troubled by inconsistency and are motivated to reduce the relevant issue. In this process, they tend to look for others' evaluations to be consistent with their own self-perceptions. For example, if some individuals think they are athletic, but other people do not evaluate them in the same way, their self-identity is threatened and thereby, they attempt to look for more evaluations consistent with their athletic images from other people. Even though the aforementioned theories were not deemed for the study, used by Kyle et al. (2007), the item, "I identify with the people and image associated with \_\_\_\_" for identity-affirmation and the item, "You can tell a lot about a person by seeing them \_\_\_\_" for identity-expression are not distinct. It looks like both the items belong to either identity-affirmation or identity-expression.

Rather, self-identity and social identity are proposed to examine more specifics of identity. Self-identity is an individual level identity, whereas social identity refers to the identification of the self with a social group (Thoits & Virshup, 1997). From a social identity theory perspective (Tajfel, 1978; Tajfel & Turner, 1979), people can enhance their self by identifying themselves with positively valued groups. For example, people who prefer, or are highly involved in active leisure can identify themselves with other active leisure participants and feel more positive about their identity by comparing like minded participants of their ingroups with those of less active leisure groups or the outgroups. Social identity refers to self-enhancement in this regard. Self-identity focuses more on self-consistency in which an individual strives to have balance between

their existing self-definition and their newly generated self-view to decrease uncertainty (Heider, 1958). Consistency between an existing self-view and the attitudes developed from participation in leisure or tourism activities refers to self-identity, whereas self-enhancement is derived from identifying themselves with other active leisure participants and refers to social identity.

To sum, involvement is defined as a belief structure related to self-value that was formed within the social environment and that leads to extreme perception or attitudes. This belief structure fosters consistent behavior. Particularly, involvement with participation in leisure activities is more likely to relate to enduring characteristics rather than situational characteristics. Enduring involvement is characteristic of literally “endure” that results from consistent participation in certain leisure activities and might diminish perceived risks. The centrality and identity components of involvement seem to be more important in understanding enduring leisure involvement. Specifically, identity is critical in social judgment theory (Sherif & Cantril, 1947). From this perspective, self-identity and social identity (Thoits & Virshup, 1997) are likely to be valuable for better understanding specific identities of leisure participants.

### **Habitual Behavior**

Involvement is a psychological factor, whereas habitual behavior is an automatic behavior which reinforces the behavioral consistency between past behavior and current behavior. Even though the theories of reasoned action and planned behavior (Ajzen, 1985, 1991; Fishbein & Ajzen, 1975) have been employed in numerous academic areas related to behavioral research as well as social psychology to predict future behavior, these theories have excluded the influence of an unconscious component on behaviors. These theories hypothesize that attitudes, subjective norms, and perceived control lead to behavior mediated by behavioral intention (Ajzen & Fishbein, 1981).

Social psychologists demonstrated that people are not always conscious, intentional, or deliberate when they behave (Bentler & Speckart, 1979, 1981; Triandis, 1977). Therefore, Triandis included habit in addition to intention to predict behavior. Triandis (1977, p 9) postulated that the probability of an act depends on three major factors: 1) the strength of the habit of emitting the act, which is indexed by the number of times the act has already occurred in the history of the organism, 2) the behavioral intention to emit the act, and 3) the presence or absence of conditions that facilitate performance of the act. Accordingly, the stronger the habit and intention, the higher the probability to act. When in new social situations, where behaviors have not become unconscious, the weight of intention may be greater than in familiar situations. In contrast, habit has a stronger impact on behavior in social situations where the act has already occurred in the past. At the outset, cognitive factors like attitudes and norms are activated, but over the passage of time, a behavioral shift away from these cognitive factors occurs, and eventually habit becomes more influential.

Triandis (1977) suggested that most non-verbal behaviors are controlled by habit as many people behave without thinking about how to act. Two ways to measure habit are frequency of behaviors reported by the respondents and the degree of agreement with a given statement by respondents (Triandis, 1977). By using both approaches, self-perceived habit and actual habit can be attained and may complement each other. In Bentler and Speckart's (1979) model, attitudes and past behavior were highly significant in predicting future behavior, whereas intentions were not. Some studies found that habit influences intention significantly (e.g. Bagozzi, 1981; Charng, Piliavin, & Callero, 1988), but in other studies, habit had a direct impact on behavior without intention (Albarracin, & McNatt, 2005; Mittal, 1988; Montano & Taplin, 1991; Verplanken, Aartz, & Knippenberg, 1994).

Theories such as social adaptation theory (Beatty & Kahle, 1988; Kahle, 1984) and thought theory (Anderson, 1990) are in favor of a standpoint that habit facilitates the attitude-behavior link because habit forms a well learned schema leading to behavior. This schema refers to grouping numerous objects into several subjective categories, which makes it easy to automatically extract necessary information from the appropriate category. Even though habit itself is defined as repeated behavior without deliberation, this cognitive formation of the schema behind habit is operating (Kahle, 1984). In such a manner, it is postulated that the attitude that is consistent over time leads to repeated behavior whereby habit becomes better to predict future behavior (Beatty & Kahle, 1988). Furthermore, when the behavior becomes routine, future behavior is more predictable in examining attitude, intentional and habit, unintentional. For example, provided that frequency of group fitness attendance and attitudes towards participation in group fitness are asked together, the predictability of future participation in the group fitness is improved.

Jaccard and Blanton (2005) addressed that in general, social psychologists have used three ways to see the consistency between past behavior and future behavior. One is that causal factors that have influenced behavior in the past continue to influence behavior in the future, thereby resulting in behavioral consistency across time but this model does not regard direct impact of past behavior on future behavior to see the past behavior-future behavior consistency (i.e., a proxy model, Ajzen, 1991; 2002).

Another is that past behavior encourages attitudes or beliefs that are consistent with the behavior and those attitudes or beliefs developed from past behavior have an influence on future behavior (i.e., a mediator model, Aronson, 1969; Bem, 1967, 1972; Cooper & Fazio, 1984; Steele, 1988). In terms of cognitive dissonance theory, dissonance is a negative state that occurs

whenever an individual holds two or more inconsistent cognitions simultaneously. To alleviate this negative state, people change one or both cognitions to make them consistent. In this manner, people attempt to change attitudes that are different from past behavior, whereby they justify their past behavior and feel more comfortable. As an alternative explanation to cognitive dissonance theory, self-perception theory (Bem, 1967, 1972) is consistent with the assumption in which people have attitudes consistent with past behavior. However, unlike cognitive dissonance theory, people in the self-perception process do not necessarily feel discomfort. When individuals need to report an attitude, they often infer it from the implications of a past behavior that happens to be salient to them through a situational cue. Instead of an internal negative state, an external situation could cause current behaviors by inducing the inference of attitudes consistent with their past behaviors.

Finally, habit accounts for the variance that past behavior, intention, or attitudes could not explain in the past-future behavioral link (i.e., a habit model, Triandis, 1977, 1980; Ouellette & Wood, 1998; Verplanken & Ouellette, 2003). In a habit model, behavior cannot be predicted without past behavior, which is different from other models. The repetition of the past behavior creates the new psychological construct of habit. Both social adaptation theory (Beatty & Kahle, 1988; Kahle, 1984) and thought theory (Anderson, 1990) of the earlier notion account for this unique psychological process of habit in which schemata formed through adaptive process to environment is associated with unconscious behaviors.

In terms of a conceptual definition and the measurement of habit, many studies have described it as behavioral repetition and frequency. However, several researchers postulated that habit entails more complex components such as automaticity, goal-obtaining concepts, situation sequences, less complex information processing, and efficiency of behavior (Aarts, et al., 1997;

Bargh, 1989; Betsch, Fiedler, & Brinkmann, 1998; Honkanen, Olsen, & Verplanken, 2005; Verplanken & Orbell, 2003; Wood, Quinn, & Kashy, 2002). Triandis (1980) described habit as situation-behavior sequences that are automatic. Verplanken and Aarts (1999) defined habit as “learned sequences of acts that have become automatic responses to specific cues, and are functional in obtaining certain goals or end states” (p. 104). One difference between habit and attitudes pointed out by Oskamp et al. (1991) is that habit is a behavior but attitudes are not, and thus, habit needs the presence of the appropriate stimuli, whereas attitudes occur even in the absence of the stimuli. To measure habit, Verplanken and Orbell (2003) and Verplanken, Friberg, Wang, Trafimow, and Woolf (2007) developed the Self Report Habit Index (SRHI) that consists of different components such as frequency, lack of awareness, lack of control, and mental efficiency.

Influential studies that explain the psychological processes of habit have mainly investigated the relationship between habit and intention, informational involvement of habitual behaviors, and reinforcers of habits. Some studies found that strong intention is associated with weak automaticity (see, Betsch et al, 2004; Heckhausen & Beckmann, 1990; Orbell, Hodgkins, & Sheeran, 1997; Ouellette & Wood, 1998). Honkanen, et al. (2005) found that well-developed intention was influenced by attitude and ambiguous intention was affected by past behavior, and further the strength of habit was more related to past behavior-based intention rather than attitude-based intention. In terms of habit and information acquisition, individuals with habitual patterns had little deliberate information acquisition (Ronis, Yates, & Kirscht, 1989) or engaged in little information processing (Verplanken, Aarts, & Knippenberg, 1997). Some studies found that variables reinforcing habit were social benefits or incentives (Bamberg, Ajzen, & Schmidt, 2003; Fujii & Kitamura, 2003), behavioral efficiency, profitability and convenience (Verplanken

& Holland, 2002), stable situations and opportunities to behave (Ouellette & Wood, 1998) or the favorability of intention (Wood, et al., 2005).

Habitual behavior has primarily been used in the fields of health studies and consumer behavior, focusing especially on exercise habits (e.g., Davis, Brewer, & Ratusny, 1993; Godin, Valois, Shepherd, & Desharnias, 1987; Iso-Ahola & Clair, 2000; Maddux, 1993; Valois et al., 1988), eating habits (e.g., Jimenez, Lendoiro, Garcia, Perez, & Simal, 2006), and consumption habits (e.g., Eagly & Chaiken, 1993; Verplanken, Herabadi, Perry, & Silvera, 2005). Particularly, in exercise and physical activities, habit was found to be more important in predicting future behavior in terms of behavioral consistency than attitudes, norms, and perceived control (Norman & Smith, 1995). Habit also induced the same exercise patterns despite environmental change (Wood et al., 2005). It is likely that exercise or physical activities are more susceptible to habit rather than other attitudes or beliefs because they are more closely related to biological components such as addiction. Several researchers studied bicycling habits as a travel mode: a strong bicycling habit was related to quicker reaction to bicycling related destination information than other transportation related destination information (Aarts & Dijksterhuis, 2000), and stronger bicycling habits were associated with simpler strategies or rules in the decision making process (Verplanken et al., 1997), and less access to new information or alternatives (Verplanken, et al., 1998).

Overall, the earlier literature shows two types of habitual behavior. One is a single habitual action and the other is a habitual sequence of multiple activities. Eating (e.g., Conner, Fitter, & Fletcher, 1999; Oliver, Wardle, & Gibson, 2000), smoking or drinking (e.g., Chassin et al, 1981; Gruenewald & Treno, 1996), or seat belt use (e.g., Ozminkowski, et al., 2004) correspond to a single habitual action. Examples such as the consumption process involved in entering and

ordering at a restaurant (e.g., entering, giving coat, being seated, studying the menu, ordering, etc, Abelson, 1981), travel mode choices based on situational cues (e.g., Aarts et al., 1997; Matthies, Klockner, & Preibner, 2006) or food choices (e.g., Honkanen et al., 2005) are pertinent to a habitual sequence of multiple activities. Specifically, routine lifestyles (e.g., getting up, brushing teeth, and wearing clothes in the morning) are a habitual ordering of a variety of single habitual actions.

In addition, there may exist a slightly different habit from the previous examples, this is the idea of expanded habit rooted from one single habit. As an illustration, people with a bicycling habit as a routine leisure activity may participate in periodic bicycling events during their vacation. This habitual pattern is distinct from merely a single habit or a cluster of multiple habits. Given that individuals have strong bicycling habit, such a strong habit could foster them to categorize even different environments or external objects into a schema related to bicycling. More specifically, individuals actively create one schema by classifying various tangible and intangible external stimuli into a similar context and then making these different stimuli automatically connect one another. It is likely that individuals expand the domain of habitual schema through spontaneously contextualizing different objects and circumstances into a homogeneous category. Hence, multiple habits in a habitual schema might be associated with various situational cues. This habitual schema is similar to some theoretical claims as to how knowledge is processed by experts. Experts are used to saving large amounts of knowledge within a narrower schema, thereby easily retrieving information from the schema (Lewandowsky & Kirsner, 2000).

To explain, habit explains partially or wholly unconscious parts guiding behavior. In particular, as people's lifestyles do not always entail intentions, the behavioral process of leisure

physical activities in routine lifestyle may be more clearly explained by habitual behaviors. Furthermore, the fact that leisure physical activities in routine environments appear similar even in different environments such as vacations might be more clearly understood with the aforementioned habitual schema.

## **Motivation**

### **Motivation Theories**

Although leisure involvement and leisure habit might influence vacation/tourism behavior, the link between leisure and vacations is likely to be mediated by tourism motivation because tourism motivation closely guides vacation/tourism behavior (Crompton, 1979; Iso-Ahola, 1983; Pearce & Caltabiano, 1983). Then, what is motivation? To describe motivation, Eagly and Chaiken (2005) distinguished how motivation is different from needs and motives, even though classic needs theorists such as Murray (1938) did not distinguish needs from motives or motivation. According to Eagly and Chaiken, needs refer to a general end state such as self-regard gained from achievement of specific goals such as a good job and motives refer to the goals or end-states that people strive to reach. Motivation refers to the engine of motives that guide thoughts and behaviors. Needs and motives seem to be the same. However, by this definition, needs are more abstract, and motivation is more concrete. In a similar vein, some studies suggest that needs lead to motivations and then motivations guide behaviors (McDonough & Crocker, 2007). That is, needs are more related to internal drives such as self-relevant rewards, whereas motives or motivations refer to behavioral goals to satisfy the internal drives. For example, when needs occur from disequilibrium (Murray, 1938) or dissonance (Festinger, 1957) such as loneliness, people strive to decrease this dissonance by taking some action such as meeting new friends, which is a motivation. Although people have different

motives, they could have the same needs in this respect (Gnoth, 1997). Accordingly, needs are a broader concept, and motivation is a more specific concept (Eagly & Chaiken, 2005).

Gnoth (1997) also attempted to distinguish motives from motivations for a more in-depth understanding of tourist behaviors. His distinction between motives and motivations is that motives (i.e., latent needs) are related to lasting dispositions resulting from long-held learned behaviors (Hull, 1943), whereas motivations refer to situation-specific goals through the interaction between an object and a situation (Hartmann, 1982). His approach is very similar to Eagly and Chaiken's (2005) distinction, and their ultimate claim is the same despite employing different logical processes. According to Gnoth, even if motives underlie directions or targets, motivations entail concrete targets or objects through the interaction of motives and situations. For excitement or relaxation motives, for example, individuals could have motivations to go to a specific destination or beach, and they might express "I am going to Bali because of its pleasurable weather" or "I will go to the theme park" for a new experience.

However, different from Eagly and Chaiken's (2005) distinction, Gnoth (1997) tried to explain motives in the behavioral realm (i.e., behaviorism), and motivations in the cognitive realm (i.e., cognitivism). According to Gnoth, motives function to narrow the perceived gap between the ideal self and the actual self. Therefore, a felt need to self-actualize is viewed as a motive. Gnoth claims that this is supported by drive theory (Hull, 1943). When a deprivation is reduced satisfactorily, people tend to remember this behavioral process and subsequently learn it as a satisfactory process so that their behaviors become habits. From this perspective, motives are relevant to retrospective, non-selective activity, and learning from the past. In contrast to motives, motivations might be explained by expectancy value theory (Aronson & Carlsmith, 1962) in the cognitive realm. Motivations underlie knowledge as an anticipatory factor to predict

behaviors, whereby motivations are a forward-looking concept rather than a retrospective approach. Gnoth described motivations as situational parameters and thus, often ephemeral. Furthermore, with the combinational view of behavior analysis and cognitive psychology, Gnoth attempted to apply the motive-motivation distinction to push and pull motivations of tourism (Crompton, 1979; Dann, 1977) in which motives are tourism push factors (i.e., internal factors) and motivations are tourism pull factors (i.e., external factors or destination attractions), and they are in a dynamic relationship (Atkinson & Birch, 1974).

Despite his interesting point of view to distinguish motives from motivations with behavioral analysis and cognitive psychology, his attempt to explain motives through behaviorism (i.e., behavior analysis) seems to be misleading. Behaviorism has a basic assumption that all of an organism's behaviors are observable and explicit (Skinner, 1938). Radical behavior analysis and cognitive psychology have had a long history of debates about the scientific evidence about observable and unobservable aspects of human behaviors (Chiesa, 1994). Behavior analysis attempts to discover the principles or rules of an organism through experimental conditioning, and extend their principles to all species (Pierce & Cheney, 2004). Behaviorists argue that all organisms' behavior including human behavior should be explicitly observed and measured, resulting in a situation whereby unobservable or implicit parts (e.g., cognitions and emotions) of human beings have rarely been accepted by behaviorism. On the contrary, cognitive psychology has conceived such implicit aspects as parts of human behavior (Zuriff, 2003). The verbal behavior of humans was a main argument between behavior analysis and cognitive psychology, and as such has not been sufficiently explained by Skinnerian behaviorism (Chomsky, 1959; Lena, 2002; Palmer, 2004; Place, 1997) even though post-Skinnerian behavior analysis attempted to establish global rules of verbal behavior by creating

relational frame theory (Hayes, Barnes-Holmes, & Roche, 2001). However, motives (e.g., self-actualization or self-realization as push factors) that Gnoth (1997) included in the behaviorism domain are rather more implicit and unobservable than motivations. Therefore, the motive-motivation distinction through the behaviorism-cognitivism distinction is likely to cause more confusion in this regard.

With a different standpoint from Gnoth (1997), Iso-Ahola (1999) suggested biological needs and psychological motivations as underpinning leisure and tourism. Needs are more associated with physiological needs such as hunger, whereas motivations are more relevant to higher levels of psychological needs such as self-actualization. In this respect, needs are at a lower level of the hierarchical structure than motivations which are more cultivated because physiological needs such as hunger are scarcely called motivations.

Nevertheless, most researchers have hardly distinguished the difference between needs, motives, and motivations. To better understand the aforementioned distinctions, more specific needs theories should be reviewed. Applied studies such as marketing, leisure, or tourism have developed relevant motives or motivations from several needs theories. In particular, two main psychological need theories for defining and developing leisure and tourism motivations have been used: manifest needs theory (Murray, 1938) and hierarchical theory of needs (Maslow, 1970). According to manifest needs theory, needs occur from an inner state of disequilibrium, and in turn drive motivations to behave. For the alleviation of this internal tension or the elimination of the inner disequilibrium, people are driven to behave in certain ways. This psychological process is similar to cognitive consistency theories such as cognitive dissonance theory (Festinger, 1957) in which individuals strive to reduce dissonant states. However, needs occur under the absence of something needed but dissonant state appears under the presence of

the situation in which individuals need to opt for one among equally attractive alternatives. Moreover, distinct from a dissonance theory, manifest needs theory includes biological or physiological needs in addition to psychological or cognitive needs. Biological needs are related to eating and having sex, whereas psychological needs are associated with achieving, affiliating and having autonomy. Needs that are more salient or manifest to individuals drive their behavior.

Similar to Murray (1938), Maslow (1970) also distinguished physiological needs from psychological needs. However, he suggested that needs assume a hierarchical order. Physiological needs are more basic than psychological needs. To reach psychological needs, individuals should have already satisfied their physiological needs. He identified five hierarchical needs: physiological needs, safety and security needs, love and belongingness needs, esteem and autonomy needs, and self-actualization needs. Physiological needs correspond to the lowest level of needs, and self-actualization belongs to the highest level of needs. In this hierarchical model, conceivably, if people are hungry, they do not concern themselves with other higher needs such as love or self-esteem. Likewise, if people feel unsafe, they are no longer interested in other psychological needs. However, later some researchers argued against the idea that all people hierarchically achieve their needs. For example, although some backpackers are unsatisfied with the low level needs such as hunger or safety yet, they explore cultural or historical experiences and also seek intimate relationship through social interaction (Max-Neef, 1991).

In addition to these two theories, self-determination theory developed by Deci (1975) and Deci and Ryan (1985) has been influential particularly in leisure, sports, and recreation studies. Self-determination is conceived as a continuum where at one end is amotivation (non self-determined end) and at the other end is intrinsic motivation (self-determined end). Extrinsic

motivation is placed in the middle of the continuum (Deci & Ryan, 2000). According to Deci and Ryan (1985, 2000), the fundamental needs to determine this range consist of competence, relatedness, and autonomy. Competence is a need to experience mastery or to have optimal experience in the physical and social environment, relatedness is a need to have intimate relationships with other people, and autonomy is a need to have self-regulation or self-control over one's behavior. Deci and Ryan (2000) suggest that amotivation has no self-regulation and its locus of causality is impersonal, whereas intrinsic motivation has intrinsic regulation and its locus of causality is internal. Regulation in extrinsic motivation entails external regulation, introjected regulation, identified regulation, and integrated regulation by the degree of regulation, and further their locus of causality are external, somewhat external, somewhat internal, and internal, respectively. This range has often been used to explain social well being and health. That is, a state closer to intrinsic motivation is healthier and more enjoyable than one that is closer to extrinsic motivation (Deci & Ryan, 1985, 2000). In terms of physical activity, physical exercise associated with self-determined motivation (i.e., intrinsic motivation) tends to be more stable than extrinsically motivated physical exercise (Chatzisarantis & Biddle, 1998). Thus, manifest needs theory (Murray, 1938), the hierarchical theory of needs (Maslow, 1970), and self-determination theory (Deci & Ryan, 1985) have been the foundational theories in developing approaches to tourism, leisure, and sports motivations.

### **Tourism Motivation**

People travel for a range of reasons. Historically, escaping the heat and seeking social interaction at the summer resorts in Roman times, taking a pilgrimage tour in the Middle Ages, and participating in the Grand Tours at the end of eighteenth century have been prevalent forms of travel. These journeys show that the historical origins can be used to explain present day tourism motivations (Goeldner & Ritchie, 2003). For example, to avoid hot or cold weather,

people travel to cooler or warmer places during vacation. This motivation has been denoted as “escaping” motivations (Iso-Ahola, 1980). Seeking social interaction has become one of the most important motivations in post modern society as many modern people feel lonely in today’s highly individualistic society (Kelly, 1983). To have religious or spiritual experience such as a pilgrimage tour is also an important motivation of post modern people as they want to fulfill their spiritual needs in their stressful lifestyles (Rinschede, 1992). Motivations that can be explained from the Grand Tour are to explore new things and to gain knowledge based on intellectual curiosity (Brodsky-Porges, 1981). Current educational tourism helps individuals to achieve this motivation. However, needs or motivations in post modern society are multidimensional in response to the complexity of today’s social structures and environments.

Dann (1977, 1981) described tourism motivations as a meaningful state of mind which encourages individuals to travel. He used the concept of pull factors and push factors to understand tourist motivations. Pull factors are associated with the external attraction of a destination (e.g., sunshine, sea, or specific resorts) drawing tourists, whereas push factors are associated with internal states. Dann suggested that tourists are influenced by two push motivations: anomie and ego enhancement. Anomie is similar to Murray’s (1938) disequilibrium concept that is described as loss of balance. However, Dann’s anomie is more closely connected to social influences and is aligned with a sociological perspective. That is, the gap between an individual and his or her societal values results in an anomic state. He explains that individuals may feel tension in today’s mass society. As an illustration, people feel conflict from wars, strikes, or violent situations. Anomie pushes people to get away from these uncomfortable states. The other push factor that Dann identified is ego-enhancement. He argues that to enhance their ego through social recognition or prestige, people travel. This notion is akin to the Theory of

Leisure Class described by Veblen (1899) in which leisure class conspicuously consumes their leisure to exhibit their social status.

Under the same push and pull concept, Crompton (1979) identified seven push factors and two pull factors associated with tourism motivations. Pull factors are derived from destinations, whereas push factors arise from the socio-psychological states of individuals. According to Crompton, the two main pull factors are novelty and education and particularly relate to cultural motives. Crompton distinguished between tourism for pleasure and non-pleasure tourism. Applying the specific and non-specific motivations suggested by Howard and Sheth (1969), Crompton postulated that specific motivations are satisfied by pleasure tourism, but non-specific motivations are satisfied by other activities. Through in-depth interviews, he found the following socio-psychological, or push, internal motivations with vacations, escape from the routine, exploration of self, relaxation, prestige, regression, enhancement of kinship, and facilitation of social interaction, and the following cultural, or pull, destination attractions motivations associated with vacations, novelty and education. Crompton's study is significant in that it provided further studies with the foundations for understanding decision making, specifically understanding the dynamic interrelation between push and pull factors. Indeed, Crompton argued that push factors are much more influential than pull factors in choosing a destination.

Tourism motivations described by Iso-Ahola (1982, 1983) also rely on the idea of push-pull factors. However, slightly differently, he focused on the seeking and escaping processes inherent in internal motivations. Seeking is a motivation where individuals strive to gain intrinsic rewards, and escaping is a motivation where individuals attempt to get away from their everyday life and environments. Iso-Ahola's escaping motivation is similar to the anomie of Dann (1977, 1981) and escape from the routine of Crompton (1979). However, Iso-Ahola suggests that

seeking motivation is a result of the interaction between push and pull factors. In other words, seeking motivation does not arise merely from the attractiveness of destinations. Motivations emerge from a combination of a variety of sources, rather than from one source. More specifically, he proposed interpersonal and personal dimensions of escaping and seeking. Escaping from the personal world is associated with personal problems and difficulties, whereas escaping from the interpersonal world relates to co-workers, family members and friends. Seeking personal rewards is relevant to feelings of mastery, ego-enhancement, and prestige, whereas seeking interpersonal rewards refers to increased social interaction.

Pearce and Caltabiano (1983) investigated tourist motivations based on Maslow's hierarchy of needs. Further they developed the idea of the Travel Career Ladder (TCL), and found that travel motivations are quite well fitted to Maslow's (1970) hierarchical needs. The TCL is based on the idea of associating an individual's level of travel experience with lower and higher order needs. These needs consist of relaxation (i.e., biological needs), stimulation (i.e., safety and security needs), relationship development, self-esteem, and fulfillment (i.e., self-actualization needs). The lowest level of this ladder is a relaxation need. The next level is a stimulation need. The third level is a relationship need. A self-esteem need is at the fourth level. The final level is a fulfillment need. Different from Maslow's hierarchical model, however, each level consists of internal and external needs. For example, self-esteem's internal needs refer to the development of skills, competence, and mastery, and external needs are relevant to social rewards or prestige. Overall, self-esteem needs are satisfied by social recognition as well as internal mastery. Fulfillment of these needs occurs, once the internal and external needs are identified, which is the optimal level where people reach a peak experience. However, according to the TCL, individuals begin with the different levels of motivation, as being affected by their personality,

experiences, and skills. For example, an individual's motivation could start from a stimulation level, instead of a relaxation level. The model is dynamic and flexible in this respect. Later, Pearce and Lee (2005) modified the travel career ladder, but reconfirmed the basic factors (i.e., relaxation, relationship, and self-development) as useful for all tourist behaviors.

As already mentioned above, Gnoth (1997) viewed motives, *push motives* as internally driven (e.g., self-actualization, excitement, relaxation, etc) arising from deprivation, and as more global than motivations, whereas motivations, *pull motivations* refer to specific goals associated with destination attractions. He gave several examples of the dynamic flow between push motives and pull motivations such as categorization of tourists according to their needs, different destinations sought by *psychocentric* and *allocentric* tourists (Plog, 1974), and different tourist roles generated from the different types of behavior that they seek in the tourism settings.

Since the late 1980s, tourism researchers have tended to address the interaction between push and pull factors (Coltman, 1989; Yiannakis & Gibson, 1992; Yoon & Uysal, 2005). Yiannakis and Gibson (1992) suggested that individuals are motivated by internal push factors, but they decide specific destinations from the optimal combination of push and pull factors and which facilitate the ability to enact various tourist roles (e.g., sun lover, archaeologist, or jetsetter). In their later study, Gibson and Yiannakis (2002) investigated the relevance of need clusters based on life stage and gender and the typology of tourist roles established by their previous study. Their results tentatively upheld that such clusters push individuals to select certain tourist roles. They found, for example, that men peak in terms of their interest in the anthropologist role when they are 50 years old, but women reached peak interest in this role five years later than men. Their interpretation as cultural constraints such as motherhood concerning

this finding is interesting because they regarded more social and cultural influences on push factors.

From the dynamic perspective between push and pull, Ryan and Glendon (1998) also investigated how tourist clusters and tourism motivations are related. Tourists were clustered into eleven groups: unimaginative relaxers, relaxing moderates, relaxed discoverers, positive holiday-takers, intellectual active isolates, competent intellectuals, mental relaxers, active relaxers, noisy socializers, friendly discoverers, and social relaxers. Tourism motivations were identified with the four factors from Beard and Ragheb's (1983) LSM: relaxation, social, intellectual, and mastery. One of findings indicated that mental relaxers were high on relaxation motivation but they were low in other motivations, while active relaxers were high on relaxation and mastery motivations, medium in intellectual motivation, and low in social motivation. Thus, they suggested that different types of tourism motivation tended to be associated with different vacation types.

Including more utilitarian destination values, Fodness (1994) developed a leisure traveler motivation scale and identified five factors: knowledge function, punishment minimization, reward maximization, self-esteem value-expressive, and ego-enhancement value-expressive. The knowledge function factor is similar to Crompton's (1979) education and novelty motives. The punishment minimization factor is almost identical to Crompton's escape from a routine, and the reward maximization factor is similar to regression (i.e., nostalgia) motives of Crompton. The ego-enhancement value-expressive factor is related to Crompton's prestige motives. However, the items of the self-esteem value-expressive factor are closely related to seeking destination attractions such as luxury food, good restaurants, the importance of accommodations, and fashionable places. As work on tourism motivation continued, researchers began including more

specific items measuring destination attractions such as entertainment, resorts, sports, and budget accommodations as well as natural and cultural attractions (Turnbull, & Uysal, 1995), drinking opportunities, personal connection to history, change of routine environment, travel distance (Sirakaya & McLellan, 1997), casino/gambling, reliable weather, tennis, cleanness, local cuisine, and water sports (Yoon & Uysal, 2005).

### **Leisure and Sport Motivation**

The study of leisure motivations has taken a slightly different path from tourism motivations. While researchers studying tourism motivations have taken both the influence of destination attributes (i.e., pull) and the push factors into consideration, studies on leisure motivations have focused more on the optimal experience of activity, and tend to focus on more of a range of emotional and cognitive benefits of activities (i.e., push). Leisure motives such as harmavoidance, justice, nurturance, responsibility, sentience, social status, succorance (Tinsley, 1978), altruism and creativity (Crandall, 1980) have been identified. In particular, leisure motivations are associated with the mental and physical well being of individuals in their social environment (Csikszentmihalyi, 1990; Kelly, 1987; Shaw, 1984). For example, the flow state emerges from the balance between the skills and challenges on activities, and is the ultimate happiness and enjoyment state sought by people (Csikszentmihaly, 1990). Flow experience and perceived freedom are important for the quality of leisure activity and life (Iso-Ahola, 1979; Neulinger, 1981b, 1982; Tinsley & Tinsley, 1986). Iso-Ahola's (1999) seeking and escaping motivations based on the concept of optimal level of stimulation (Berylyne, 1960) have also been used to explain the flow or optimal experience of leisure activity. People who are less stimulated in their routine life may strive to seek more stimulation to achieve flow experiences through their leisure. By contrast, people who are over stimulated may try to escape from the stimulation (e.g., stress or tension).

Leisure motivations provided a foundation in the development of tourism motivations (Iso-Ahola, 1980, 1982; Ryan, 1994). Leisure motivations (i.e., intellectual, social, competence/mastery, and stimulus avoidance motives) identified by Beard and Ragheb (1983) have often been applied to tourism motivations with good reliability and validity (Ryan, 1994; Ryan & Glendon, 1998). These leisure motives seem to be less affected by different external variables. Indeed, Graefe, Ditton, Roggenbuck, and Schreyer (1981) demonstrated that river floaters in different environments shared the same leisure motivation structure across diverse settings. As such, leisure motivations have been applied across different types of vacations and diverse samples.

Sport motivations also have the same basic structure of seeking and escaping (McDonald, Milne, & Hong, 2002). People take part in sport activities to seek optimal level of stimulation and to escape from stress. Indeed, similar motivations have been found among people who take part in sport, exercise, and fitness (Duda, 1988; Fluker & Turner, 2000). More specifically, Recours, Souville, and Griffet (2004) identified four dimensions of sport participation motivations: competition, exhibitionism, sociability, and playing to the limit. Other studies have included intellectual, accomplishment, stimulation, optimal experience (Pelletier, et al., 1995), interest and enjoyment (Frederick & Morrison, 1996), and mastery, health, recognition, solitude, and social affiliation (Raedeke & Burton, 1997).

In fact, motives in leisure, tourism, and sport participation have similar basic components because they have used social psychological theories as their foundation. In the structure of seeking and escaping, individuals behave to satisfy the physiological and psychological needs. Particularly, the previous literature shows that fundamental motives across leisure, tourism, and

sport participation seem to share four domains: social interaction, competence or achievement, relaxation or escaping from stress, and exploration or knowledge.

### **Summary**

The relationship between leisure and vacation/tourism has been explained by psychological and behavioral factors, notably, psychological meanings such as perceived freedom and behavioral patterns in structural environments such as free time and space have been identified (Colton, 1987; Hamilton-Smith, 1987; Iso-Ahola, 1983; Kelly, 1983). From this perspective, Carr (2002) postulated that attitudes, preferences, and habits encourage people to behave consistently between leisure and tourism contexts. In further empirical study, Brey and Lehto (2007) found that the likelihood of taking part in similar activities on vacation as in general leisure is higher for activities such as golfing and jogging than other activities such as entertainment, dining, and cultural activities.

As such, sports, physical activities and active outdoor recreation seem to play an important role in connecting leisure to vacations/tourism. Henderson (2005a, 2005b) noted that physical activity, leisure, recreation and travel are related and can be integrated to form an active and healthy lifestyle. Enjoyable physical activity experiences are related to recreational activities in leisure contexts, which may encourage relevant travel. This process seems to increase the quality of life related to a healthy lifestyle (Coleman & Iso-Ahola, 1993; Henderson & Ainsworth, 2002, 2003; Iwasaki, 2003). Consequently, active leisure pursuits may influence the choice of active vacation pursuits (Chon & Singh, 1995; Glyptis, 1991; Hall, 1992; McGehee, et al., 2003; Redmond, 1991).

However, little empirical study has investigated the relationship between leisure activities and tourism behaviors, especially in terms of active leisure and active vacations. To investigate this relationship, leisure involvement and habits seem to be very important factors because both

encourage people to focus on fewer activities, rejecting other alternative activities, and encourage individuals to maintain behavioral consistency (Bentler & Speckart, 1979, 1981; Johnson & Eagly, 1989; Sherif & Cantril 1947; Triandis, 1977; Verplanken & Orbell, 2003). Supporting this perspective, several researchers have demonstrated that psychological and behavioral leisure involvement significantly influences future leisure behavioral consistency (Iwasak & Havitz, 2004; Kim et al., 1997). However, previous literature related to leisure involvement has tended to focus only on leisure settings.

This study assumed that there would be an impact of leisure involvement and habit on vacation/tourism behaviors but the association between leisure and vacation/tourism would be mediated through tourism motivation. Motivations have been widely used to predict tourism behaviors because motivations guide behaviors (Crompton, 1979; Iso-Ahola, 1982, 1983). Indeed, Ryan and Glendon (1998) found that the Leisure Motivation Scale developed by Beard and Ragheb (1983) was useful in explaining vacation/tourism activities. Beyond asking which tourism motivations predict tourism behaviors, many researchers have examined actual tourism behaviors by either asking whether people took part in certain tourism activities (Fesenmaier, Vogt, & Stewart, 1993) or how much they agree with the given statements related to certain behaviors (Bakeman & Casey, 1995; Stanton-Rich & Iso-Ahola, 1998). In fact, it is assumed that all variables, involvement, habit, motivations and behaviors are likely to directly and indirectly influence one another (Albarracin et al., 2005; Tormala & Petty, 2002).

## CHAPTER 3 METHODS

The purpose of this study was to investigate the psychological and behavioral connections between active leisure and active vacations/tourism. In particular, this study assumed that active leisure pursuits related to sports, physical activities and active outdoor recreation would influence vacation/tourism behaviors. Particularly, using a cross-sectional survey design, the study was designed primarily for structural equation modeling to examine if two exogenous variables (i.e., leisure involvement and leisure habit) associated with active leisure have causal relationships with two endogenous variables (i.e., vacation motivation and vacation behavior) associated with active vacations. This chapter presents the data collection procedure (i.e., including the sampling design and procedure), instrumentation, participant description, and data analysis.

### **Data Collection**

To locate a population who are diverse in their interests and who are likely to take a range of vacations, the study population was the UF Alumni Association members. Another reason why the alumni members were chosen as the study sample is that in previous literature active sport tourists have been identified as having higher education (i.e., college graduates or over) (Delpy, 1998; Gibson, 1998b) and the alumni members of a university or college would be comprised of individuals with at least a bachelor's degree. Therefore, the likelihood of this population being involved in active leisure and active sport tourism was considered to be relatively high. Possibly, a high level of education is also associated with discretionary income (Griliches & Mason, 1972) and thereby making it possible to extend participation in their favorite leisure activities by traveling to different environments. Furthermore, those who have a high level of education and discretionary income may pay more attention to their health (Ettner,

1995; Veenstra, 2000) and thus pursue being active during their leisure and their vacations. The UF Alumni Association members seem to be an appropriate sample in this regard.

The sampling frame was the database of the Alumni Association of the University of Florida. The researcher received access to the UF Alumni database as a member of the UF Alumni Association. A systematic random sample was drawn from the list of the UF Alumni database. The targeted population size ( $N$ ) (i.e., the total number of members of the UF Alumni Association) is 200,000 and this population size was the same as the sampling frame. Based on this population size, the sample size ( $n$ ) with 2% margin of error at the 99% confidence level was calculated at 4,063 (Kish, 1995). However, since undeliverable email addresses and a low response rate resulting from characteristics of web-surveys (Dillman, 2000) were anticipated, 80% of the total sample size was added. Thus, the ultimate sample size was 7,313. The sample interval (i.e., the sample size divided by the targeted population size) was 1/25. According to systematic sampling procedures, every 25<sup>th</sup> name was selected from the sampling frame.

In terms of testing structural equation modeling (SEM), no absolute guidelines exist to determine the sample size, but a general rule of thumb is that a sample size of 200 is considered sufficient and may be necessary for a complicated SEM (Kline, 2005). However, too large of a sample size (i.e., exceeding 400) is associated with over sensitivity and leads to poor goodness-fit-measures based on maximum likelihood estimation (Hair, Anderson, Tatham, & Black, 2003). Accordingly, a more appropriate way of designing sample size identification in structural equation modeling is to use a ratio of the number of cases to the number of free parameters of 10:1 (Hair et al., 2003; Kline, 2005).

A web survey was used for this study because it was deemed the most appropriate way to access a probability sample of this size. Moreover, having access to the e-mail addresses of the

members of the sampling frame made it a logical choice. Dillman (2000) noted that the internet survey has certain advantages such as the ability to access a geographically dispersed sample, low cost, and shorter data collection period despite some disadvantages such as low response rates and poor control of response situations. To overcome these disadvantages, this study attempted to follow Dillman's suggestions about respondent-friendly email messages and a well-designed web survey.

### **Instrumentation**

The instrument consisted of fixed choice, partially closed-ended and open-ended questions (Appendix E). The final questionnaire was divided into three broad sections: leisure, vacation, and demographics. More specifically, the leisure section included 11 questions (i.e., a type of favorite leisure activity, leisure involvement scale, leisure habit scale, behavioral involvement with leisure activity, and leisure activity participation patterns during vacation). The vacation section contained ten questions (i.e., a type of favorite vacation activity, vacation motivation scale, vacation behavior scale, vacation behavioral involvement, and vacation participation patterns). The demographics section included seven questions, gender, year born, educational level, employment, income, racial or ethnic background and residence.

### **Face Validity and Pre-Test**

The questions about the type of leisure activities and vacation activities were used to distinguish the respondents who take part in active leisure and vacations from those who do not. In the initial survey designed for a preliminary study, categorical multiple choices of leisure activity types were provided and respondents were asked to select one category. Five categories of leisure activities were adapted from the leisure dimensions of Lounsbury and Hoopes (1988) based on the leisure activity blank developed by McKechnie (1975): "sports, physical activities and active outdoor recreation-related leisure," "cultural, arts and history-related leisure,"

“entertainment, dining and shopping-related leisure,” “domestic activities-related leisure (e.g., cooking, sewing, gardening, etc)” “organizational activities-related leisure (e.g., civic, or political activities)” and “other.” Along with the multiple choice question, the respondents were asked to specify their favorite leisure activity in the chosen category. In the same way, the six vacation categories adapted from the vacation activities developed by Davis and Sternquist (1987) and Pizam et al. (2004) were used: “sports, physical activities and outdoor recreation-based travel,” “visiting scenic natural attractions-based travel (e.g., National parks),” “culture and history-based travel,” “entertainment (e.g., theme parks, gambling), dining and shopping-based travel,” “beach-based travel,” “visiting family, relatives, and friends-based travel” and “other.” Like the leisure activities, the respondents were asked to specify their most preferred vacation activity within the chosen category. These questions were to sort participants into active leisure and active vacation categories based on the respondents who had chosen the dimension, “sports, physical activities and active outdoor recreation-related leisure and vacation.”

After the face validity of these questions was established by four graduate students, the principle researcher pre-tested the items with 114 paddlers who participated in the Paddle Florida event held from March 20<sup>th</sup> to 27<sup>th</sup>, 2008. However, some problems within the leisure and vacation categories were found. Although the participants were asked to choose one category and to express their favorite activity, some respondents selected several categories, being confused with the given vacation categories. For example, those who enjoyed water-related sports chose both the “sports, physical activities and active outdoor recreation-based vacation” or “beach-based vacation” categories. Several respondents recognized “camping” as “sports, physical activities and active outdoor recreation,” whereas other people perceived it as included in the “visiting scenic natural attractions” domain. Therefore, instead of providing the categorical

multiple choices, an open-ended question was used in the current study for the purpose of eliminating confusion between categories by asking the UF alumni members to describe one of their favorite leisure and vacation activities.

### **Content Validity**

Face validity and logical validity are two types of content validity. Face validity is used to measure validity at face value, whereas logical validity involves more strict processes, depending on the evaluation of a panel of experts (Rubio, Berg-Weger, Tebb, Lee, & Rauch, 2003). Both face validity and logical validity were used to examine the validity of the leisure involvement scale, leisure habit scale, vacation motivation scale, and vacation behavior scale. These scales were adapted from the scales already employed in the existing leisure and tourism literature, with the exception of the habit scale that has only ever been used in the psychology literature. The wording of all the scales was modified and a few items of the scales were newly created for the purpose of this study. The content of each item for all of the scales was evaluated by 12 experts by asking them to assess relevance, representativeness, and clarity of each item belonging to each pre-assigned factor.

### **Content validity procedure**

A panel of experts was selected from the academic fields of leisure, tourism, sport and psychology. The criteria used to select the experts were to approach individuals who had developed the corresponding scales or had extensively investigated those scales and who were most knowledgeable about the subject matter. Evaluation of these criteria was based on the quality and the number of publications in the relevant areas. The number of content experts is recommended from a minimum of three to a maximum of 20 (Gable & Wolf, 1993; Lynn, 1986). Rubio et al. (2003) suggested a sample size of ten experts as the most appropriate number. However, at the initial stage, the researcher selected 30 potential content experts, anticipating

that the larger number of experts would provide more information as well as satisfy concerns about the response rate. An email cover letter, the informed consent, the survey questionnaire for content validity and one-page additional material to explain the study model and hypotheses were approved by the IRB on 21<sup>st</sup> May 2008 (Appendix B). The email cover letter explained the purpose of the study was to establish content validity and thus, asked the experts to open the word files containing the informed consent, the questionnaire and the additional material, attached to the email cover letter if they agreed to be a member of the panel of experts. The purpose of the study, the study benefits, confidentiality, voluntary participation, an opportunity to withdraw anytime without penalty, no risk associated with the study, and no compensation were referred to in the informed consent. However, any anonymity-relevant notion was not stated in the informed consent because the content validity study cannot guarantee anonymity of the experts because the researcher may need to contact the experts to clarify their answers and comments after their feedback (Rubio et al., 2003).

The format of the content validity questionnaire was designed on the actual survey that would be used for alumni members, but was slightly modified so that the expert members could rate three criteria (i.e., relevance, representativeness, and clarity) and write in their comments (Appendix C). Some instructions concerning the ways to evaluate, the definitions of the terms, the sources of scales and the content validity scale points were added to give them clear guidelines. The experts were asked to score each item already assigned to a factor, instead of asking them to propose a factor congruent with each item. In this process, the expert members were asked to rate on three criteria (i.e., relevance, representativeness, and clarity) employed for logical validity (Grant & Davis, 1997), using the 5 point scale (1=*unacceptable*, 2=*poor*, 3=*acceptable*, 4=*good*, 5=*excellent*). Relevance was assessed to demonstrate how closely each

item is relevant to the construct; representativeness assessed how much each item represents the construct; and clarity assessed how clearly each item was worded.

The content validity survey was emailed to 30 experts on 26<sup>th</sup> May 2008. However, most experts did not reply until the middle of June. Several experts emailed back to explain that they could fill out the survey after the middle of June because they were on their summer vacation. Accordingly, an email reminder was sent to those who had not answered by June 20<sup>th</sup>, 2008. The content validity survey was open until August 20<sup>th</sup>, 2008, assuming that the experts' summer vacation would be finished in the middle of August as they are faculty of the universities where fall semester starts in the middle of August. The final sample size was 13 members out of 30 experts with 43.3% response rate, but one survey was incomplete. As a consequence, the evaluations from 12 experts were used for the content validity analysis.

The four scales to be evaluated were as follows:

**Leisure involvement scale:** First, for the leisure involvement scale, 19 involvement items were adapted from those used by Kim, Scott, and Crompton (1997), Gahwiler and Havitz (1998), Pritchard, Havitz, and Howard (1999), and Kyle, Grafe, Manning, and Bacon (2004). Almost all of these items were originally based on the Consumer Involvement Scale (CIP) developed by Laurent and Kapferer (1985). The multidimensional construct of the CIP (Laurent & Kapferer, 1985) consists of *interest* (i.e., centrality), *pleasure* (i.e., hedonic value), *sign*, and *risk importance* (i.e., importance of negative consequences), and *risk probability*. Adapting this multidimensional involvement construct, McIntyre (1989) created leisure activity-oriented items. McIntyre dropped the *risk* factor and added the *centrality* factor. He also reworded the *sign* factor to form the *self-expression* factor, and combined the *pleasure* value with *interest* value and then, renamed them *attraction*. Several studies in the leisure and recreation field have established

the scale's validity and reliability, adapting the CIP (Havitz & Dimanche, 1997; Havitz, Dimanche, & Howard, 1993; Havitz, Green, & McCarville, 1993), even though some researchers have argued that, by and large, the reliability of the *risk* dimension in leisure activities had failed (Kim et al., 1997; Kyle, Absher, Norman, Hammitt, & Jodice, 2007; McIntyre & Pigram, 1992). For the purpose of this study, the involvement items were categorized into *hedonic* including three items, *central* including six items, *social* including two items, *self-identity* including four items, and *risk* dimensions including four items. For the *hedonic* dimension, one satisfaction item (Kyle et al., 2004) and one pleasure item and one enjoyment item (Gahwiler & Havitz, 1998) were used. For the *central* dimension, importance and interest items as originally proposed by the CIP (Laurent & Kapferer, 1985) were included. Additionally, a commitment item used by Kim et al. (1997), a position involvement item used by Pritchard et al. (1999), and two *centrality* items used by Kyle et al. (2004) were contained in the *central* dimension. Two social items used by Gahwiler and Havitz (1998) were included in the *social* dimension. The *self-identity* dimension was comprised of the items from the sign value used by Gahwiler and Havitz and from the *self-expression* factor employed by Kyle et al. (2004). For the *risk* dimension, four items selected from the *risk probability* and *risk consequence* factors used by Gahwiler and Havitz were employed. The leisure involvement scale for content validity is depicted in Table 3-

1

**Leisure habit scale:** Second, for the leisure habit scale, this study used the items adapted from the self-reported habit index (SRHI) including regularity, lack of awareness, lack of control and mental efficiency components developed by Verplanken and Orbell (2003). Verplanken and Orbell used test-retest to establish the reliability of the index. The results indicated a high internal reliability in which the Cronbach's alphas of the pretest and posttest were .89 and .92,

and a high test-retest reliability reporting a significant correlation of .91 ( $p < .001$ ) between two the tests. While Verplanken and Orbell (2003) measured the habit items as a single factor, however, this study considered the habit construct as multidimensional because several researchers including Verplanken and Orbell have often demonstrated three main characteristics of habit, *lack of awareness*, *frequent*, and *resistant* (i.e., *lack of control*) in their studies (Aarts, et al., 1997; Betsch, et al., 1998; Honkanen, et al., 2005; Wood, et al., 2002). Accordingly, the adapted 12 habit items were categorized into three factors: *automatic* including four items, *regular* including five items, and *resistant* including three items. Leisure habit scale for content validity is presented in Table 3-2.

**Vacation motivation scale:** Third, for the vacation motivation scale, the researcher extracted 32 items, a shorter version of the LMS suggested by Beard and Ragheb (1983), representing the *socializing* domain including eight items, the *competency/mastery* domain including eight items, the *stimulus avoidance* domain including eight items, and the *intellectual* domain including eight items from the 48 Leisure Motivation Scale (LMS) items developed by Beard and Ragheb. The leisure motivation scale has been widely used in leisure studies and was applied to tourism by Ryan and Glendon (1998). The four motivation factors identified by Beard and Ragheb have high Cronbach's coefficient alphas in the leisure realm: *socializing* ( $\alpha = .92$ ), *competency/mastery* ( $\alpha = .91$ ), *stimulus avoidance* ( $\alpha = .90$ ) and *intellectual* ( $\alpha = .90$ ). The four motivation factors applied to tourism by Ryan and Glendon (1998) also had reasonable Cronbach's alphas: *social* ( $\alpha = .81$ ), *competency/mastery* ( $\alpha = .64$ ), *stimulus avoidance* ( $\alpha = .76$ ) and *intellectual* ( $\alpha = .69$ ). The vacation motivation scale for content validity is presented in Table 3-3.

**Vacation behavior scale:** Last, for the vacation behavior scale, six vacation participation items were adapted from the leisure participation scale used by Ragheb and Tate (1993) and the self-report leisure behavior items used by Stanton-Rich and Iso-Ahola (1998). Ragheb and Tate's original six items are related to regularity and commitment of leisure participation ( $\alpha=.89$ ) and Stanton-Rich and Iso-Ahola's original six items refer to regularity and social networks of leisure behaviors ( $\alpha=.73$ ). The vacation behavior items adapted from both the scales were reworded to be applied to vacation behavior. In addition, five decision behavior items were adapted from eight decisional involvement items (i.e., its reliability ( $\alpha$ ) was .83) developed by Verplanken, Aarts, van Knippenberg, and van Knippenberg (1994). These decisional behavior items were reworded for vacation decision behavior. The vacation behavior scale is illustrated in Table 4-4.

### **Content validity analysis**

Two methods were used to analyze the data for content validity: one sample t-test and Content Validity Index (CVI) suggested by Davis (1992). For the one sample t-test, the average score and standard deviation of each item as evaluated by the 12 experts were analyzed. All scores were found to be significant at the  $p < .001$  level. The mean values that are 3.0 (=acceptable) or above were deemed valid. The results showed that the mean scores of all the items were higher than 3.0 in the relevance, representativeness, and clarity criteria but one item (i.e., "this leisure activity makes me feel weird if I do not do it"). This item is part of the resistant domain of leisure habit scale and attained an average of 2.80 with its clarity. Several panel experts suggested that the word, "weird" should be changed to "strange" or other words. The one sample t-test content validity results are presented in Table 3-5.

The CVI was used to assess the extent to which the experts agreed with relevance, representativeness, and clarity in relation to its associated factor. For this assessment, all scores

rated on a 5 point scale were changed to dummy variables. “*Unacceptable*” and “*poor*” were grouped into disagreement (=0), whereas “*acceptable*,” “*good*” and “*excellent*” were included in agreement (=1). According to Davis (1992), to measure the CVI, the total number of agreement (i.e., the number of experts who agreed on each item) was divided by the total number of agreement and disagreement (i.e., the total number of experts). A score of .80 or more was considered valid (Lynn, 1986). The CVI measure is useful to obtain information concerning the level of agreement of the expert members regarding each item. However, this measure is more conservative than one sample t-tests. The results showed that all four of the items of the *risk* dimension of the leisure involvement scale were higher in disagreement than the other dimensions in all the relevance, representativeness and clarity criteria, ranging from .42 to .67. Of the *regular* dimension of the leisure habit scale, the item, “this leisure activity is typically me” was rated low in its agreement of relevance, representativeness and clarity, ranging from .50 to .58. The item, “this leisure activity makes me feel weird if I do not do it” from the resistant dimension of leisure habit scale also had low agreement scores on the three criteria, ranging from .58 to .67. Of the vacation motivation scale, around half of the expert members disagreed that the items, “to be active” and “to keep in shape physically” are relevant to (.67 and .58) or representative of (.58 and .58) the *competence/mastery* domain. More than half of the experts disagreed that the item, “to unstructure my time” had clarity (.42). Around half of them also disagreed with the clarity of the item, “there is no doubt in my mind about taking part in my favorite vacation activity” in the *decision behavior* domain (.58) of the vacation behavior scale. The CVI content validity results are reported in Table 3-6

Along with rating on the items, quantitatively, the expert panel members also provided open-ended feedback. Their comments were mainly related to the reasons why certain items

were scored low and they provided suggestions about better wording. For example, in terms of the leisure involvement scale, for the item “I would rather do my favorite leisure activity than do most anything else,” a suggestion was made to eliminate the word, “most.” One of the experts pointed out that the item, “I enjoy discussing my favorite leisure activity with my friends and family” was double-barreled and therefore, was changed to “my friends or family” for the final version of the Alumni survey. A few members pointed out singular-plural conflicts. One of the experts suggested that two items included in the *self-identity* domain of the leisure involvement scale seemed to be more associated with social identity and identity would be better divided into *social identity* and *self-identity*. Considering this suggestion, on the basis of relevant literature, several items were newly created for the two factors, *social identity* and *self-identity* in the final survey. The *risk* dimension had entirely low scores in the content validity analysis. The problems raised by many experts were that “risk” seems not to be a relevant measure of involvement with leisure activity and the “risk” items are not really related to “risk” meanings. Another expert suggested that the “interest” item should be included in the *hedonic* domain. For the final survey, the *risk* dimension was excluded from the leisure involvement scale and “interest” was moved to the *hedonic* domain. The revised final questionnaire is shown in Table 3-7.

The main concerns with habit items were related to wording. For example, as the experts suggested, “this leisure activity belongs to my routine” was reworded to “this leisure activity is a part of my routine” and “this leisure activity makes me feel weird if I do not do it” was changed to “I feel strange if I do not participate in this activity.” According to the suggestions of using partially automatic characteristics instead of totally unconscious characteristics, the item “I do not need any effort to think about doing this leisure activity” was modified to “I do not need much of an effort to think about doing this activity” and “I do this activity without thinking” was

changed to “I do this activity without much thinking.” Furthermore, the item, “this leisure activity is typically me” was removed as the item was evaluated as unsuitable for the *regular* factor (Table 3-8).

The vacation motivation scale suggestions were made to reduce its length by eliminating the items with lower factor loadings presented in the original article of Beard and Ragheb (1983). Moreover, some “double-barreled” items pointed out by several experts had lower factor loadings in Beard and Ragheb’s (1983) original study. For the final survey, 18 items of 32 leisure motivation scale (LMS) items were employed. As it was pointed out that the items, “to be active” and “to keep in shape physically” are not suitable for the *competence/mastery* factor, a new factor name, *active/competence* was generated. The revised vacation motivation scale is presented in Table 3-9. Likewise, the vacation behavior items were also reworded on the basis of feedback, but there were minor changes such as “take an adequate amount” to “spend an adequate amount,” “useless” to “frustrating,” and “usually find” to “attempt to find.” The revised vacation behavior scale is shown in Table 3-10.

On the whole, the items that had low scores in the quantitative evaluation and had suggestions for modification in the open-ended comments were changed or deleted and furthermore, new items and factors were created. More specifically, the items that received the negative feedback in the assessment of clarity were reworded on the basis of the experts’ comments, whereas the names of factors were changed for the items with low scores in the assessment of relevance and representativeness. Besides the modification of the given scales, other questions to be included in the final survey were modified, following the suggestions of experts. One member of the expert panel suggested specifying each degree of a 7-point Likert scale (i.e., 1=*strongly disagree*, 2=*disagree*, 3=*somewhat disagree*, 4=*neither*, 5=*somewhat agree*,

6=*agree*, and 7=*strongly agree*) across all the scales of the four constructs. After all modifications, face validity was assessed by three faculty members and three doctoral students of the Department of Tourism, Recreation and Sport Management of the University of Florida for the revised questionnaire.

In the final survey, simple words were chosen, instead of complicated or pedantic words and vague words were avoided. Double-barreled items were revised as previously discussed. To eliminate biased results from unequal comparison, the number of positive and negative options included in a question was made equal and both sides of psychological perception were equally stated such as two options of agreement at each side, for example, *strongly agree* and *agree* at one side, and *strongly disagree* and *disagree* at the other side. To avoid an order impact, the items within one factor were separately distributed to be mixed with other items included in other factors. The brief instructions and explanations about the terms (e.g., the difference between leisure and vacation) were provided to guide the respondents because of the need for clarity with a self-administered survey.

### **Data Collection Procedures**

The researcher contacted the Alumni Association of the University of Florida in January 2008 and received access to the database as a member of the UF Alumni Association on 6<sup>th</sup> February 2008. The informed consent, protocol and relevant documents (i.e., the survey questionnaire and an email cover letter) were approved by the Institutional Review Board (IRB) on 10<sup>th</sup> October 2008 (Appendix D). The informed consent included the study purpose, the study benefits, participation without compensation, voluntary participation, confidentiality, security, a chance to withdraw without penalty and an assumption that no potential risks were associated with participation. The informed consent also informed them that their responses would not be linked to their names and would automatically go into a database file. On 20<sup>th</sup> October 2008, an

email cover letter and the informed consent were distributed via e-mail to 7,313 members that were drawn using systematic random sampling procedures from the list of the UF Alumni Association database. The email cover letter requested that the email recipients take part in the study and then, if they agreed to participate in the survey, they were asked to read the informed consent located below the email cover letter and access the URL housing the link to the survey that was posted on the College of Health and Human Performance website of the University of Florida.

To increase the response rate, the email message was personalized by using each member's name instead of just calling them 'UF Alumni members' (Dillman, 2000). The email message was also designed to be respondent-friendly by emphasizing their identity as UF alumni members such as being part of the Gator Nation (e.g., "go gators!" as a closing). In addition, the email message stressed why their participation in the survey would be important. Each email cover letter also contained information about the study purpose, voluntary participation and instructions to access the URL. Furthermore, the respondents were informed that if they were interested in seeing the results of the study, the principal investigator would share a summary of the results with them.

Seven days after the first e-mail, a follow up message was sent to all of the respondents, with the exception of those who were unwilling to participate, on 27<sup>th</sup> October 2008. This message was to thank the participants who had already completed the questionnaire, and to serve as a reminder to participate for those who had not yet done so. However, as 4,353 of 7,313 email addresses were found to be undeliverable due to incorrect addresses or system errors, the researcher decided to draw new email addresses from the data base list. Every 25<sup>th</sup> name was selected, but from a different starting point in a list consisting of individuals who had not been

selected during the first wave of sampling. The survey was sent to 500 new members on 2<sup>nd</sup> November 2008 and later a reminder was emailed to them on 6<sup>th</sup> November 2008. However there were around 378 undeliverable email addresses as well. From the entire sample, six respondents emailed back to decline participating. The on-line survey was closed on 1st December 2008. Excluding undeliverable emails, 703 out of 3082 surveys were received and the response rate was 23%. Out of 703 respondents, the original number of participants classified as active leisure and active vacationers were 322. However, six surveys of the 322 were incomplete. Accordingly, the final usable sample was 316. The participants consist of both sport tourists ( $n = 183$ ) and tourist sports ( $n = 133$ ).

Sport tourists are defined as those who travel to participate in sports, physical activities and active outdoor recreation as a primary motivation, whereas tourist sports are defined as those who participate in sports, physical activities and active outdoor recreation while on vacation but their primary motivation is to travel (Gammon & Robinson, 1997). Some tourist sports from the study sample reported their favorite vacation is to visit family or friends but this motivation does not reflect what kind of favorite activities they participate in during these vacations. Therefore, as a supplementary question, the respondents were also asked to describe the favorite activities they mainly take part in with their family or friends during their visits. Those who answered their favorite activities were related to sports, physical activities and active outdoor recreation while on vacation were included in the study target sample. In addition, other tourist sports from the study sample described their favorite vacation activities as “hiking to explore (or along with exploring) new places,” “walking or hiking or camping or swimming to spend time with their family or friends,” and “golf/hiking/camping to enjoy new scenery (or with sightseeing).” As an additional step, to determine whether sport tourism and tourism sport should be combined or not,

confirmatory factor analysis and structural equation modeling of the constructs (i.e., leisure involvement, leisure habit, vacation motivation, vacation behavior) of both the samples were separately implemented and the results were compared. Notwithstanding that the mean value of physical motivation of sport tourists was slightly higher than that of tourist sports, the confirmatory factors and causal path patterns of both groups were almost the same. Accordingly, using both groups consisting of sport tourists and tourist sports was ultimately determined.

The on-line survey was designed following Dillman's (2000) survey design rules. The words suitable for the online survey were employed. For example, instructions such as "please select one answer" instead of "please circle one answer" were used. Since the existing on-line survey service companies can rarely offer designs specialized by customers' needs, the researcher designed the web-survey using HTML (Hypertext Mark-up Language) because the web survey design and its image influence the response rate (Dillman, 2000). The web-survey was designed to display the UF logo with the specialized colors and format and was posted on the UF Health and Human Performance College web-site. In addition, all the questions of the survey were displayed on one screen, instead of multiple screens so that participants could perceive the structural organization of questions and thus, expect the end of the questions. This design may help decrease missing values. If participants can predict the length and the organization of the survey beforehand, they do not tend to discontinue it in the middle of filling out the survey.

### **Participants**

The sample size was 316. More than half of the respondents (55.3%,  $n = 172$ ) were male and 44.7% ( $n = 139$ ) were female. Their average age was 45.18 years ( $SD = 12.69$ ) ranging from 18 to 77 years. Of the respondents, one respondent (0.3%) was 18 years old, 12.4% ( $n = 39$ ) aged between 20 and 29 years, 23.5 % ( $n = 74$ ) aged between 30 and 39 years, 23.5% ( $n = 74$ ) were

between 40 and 49 years of age, 26.0% ( $n = 82$ ) were between 50 and 59 years of age, and 11.4% ( $n = 36$ ) were between 60 and 69 years of age. A very small number of the respondents (2.9%,  $n = 9$ ) were in the 70-79 year-old group. When the respondents were asked to describe their highest level of education, 42.4% ( $n = 133$ ) reported they had earned a bachelor's degree, followed by a master's degree (28.7%,  $n = 90$ ), a M.D/J.D. or equivalent (15.0%,  $n = 47$ ) and a Ph.D/Ed.D. or equivalent (9.6%,  $n = 30$ ). A small percentage of the respondents (2.9%,  $n = 9$ ) answered other (i.e., Ed.S., D.M.D. specialist, post-graduate degree, DVM, post M.D. training) and one respondent (0.3%) reported being a high school graduate. When their current employment status was asked, the majority of respondents (76.6%,  $n = 242$ ) reported they were employed full time. However, a small number of the respondents reported other employment statuses: employed part-time (8.5%,  $n = 27$ ), retired (7.3%,  $n = 23$ ), other (i.e., stay at home mom, self-employed, etc) (5.7%,  $n = 18$ ), full time student (3.2%,  $n = 10$ ), unemployed (2.2%,  $n = 7$ ) and part-time student (1.6%,  $n = 5$ ). In terms of their total income from all sources in 2007, 30.4% ( $n = 92$ ) reported their total income to be \$150,001 or more and 14.5% ( $n = 44$ ) indicated their income was between \$90,001 and \$110,000, followed by \$110,001-\$130,000 (12.9%,  $n = 39$ ), \$50,001-\$70,000 (12.5%,  $n = 38$ ), \$30,001-\$50,000 (10.2%,  $n = 31$ ), \$70,001-\$90,000 (9.6%,  $n = 29$ ), \$130,001-\$150,000 (6.3%,  $n = 19$ ) and \$30,001 or less (3.6%,  $n = 11$ ).

When asked about their racial or ethnic background, the majority of participants (87.5%,  $n = 272$ ) were white, not of Hispanic origin. A small number of the respondents (5.1%,  $n = 16$ ) were Hispanic, followed by Asian or Pacific Islander (2.9%,  $n = 9$ ), black, not of Hispanic origin (2.3%,  $n = 7$ ), other (i.e., Arabic, Irish Polish, etc) (1.3%,  $n = 4$ ) and multiracial (1.0%,  $n = 3$ ). In terms of the current state of residence, almost all the respondents (96.8%,  $n = 306$ ) reported their current resident country to be the United States, whereas a few respondents (3.2%,  $n = 10$ )

resided in other countries (i.e., Ethiopia, France, Germany, Hungary, Kazakhstan, Korea, Switzerland, Netherland, etc). Of the US resident respondents, the most frequently reported state was Florida (53.8%,  $n = 170$ ), whereas the remaining respondents were almost equally distributed among 30 states (i.e., Georgia, 7.9%,  $n = 25$ ; North Carolina, 4.4%,  $n = 14$ ; California, 3.8%,  $n = 12$ ; Virginia, 3.2%,  $n = 10$ ; New York, 2.8%,  $n = 9$ ; Maryland, 2.5%,  $n = 8$ ; Texas, 1.9%,  $n = 6$ ; Tennessee, 1.9%,  $n = 6$ ; Pennsylvania, 1.9%,  $n = 6$ ; Alabama, 1.6%,  $n = 5$ ; etc). The demographic characteristics are depicted in Table 3-11.

### **Data Analysis**

All analyses in this study were conducted with SPSS 15.0 (George & Mallery, 2007) and LISREL 8.51/PRELIS 2.30 (Joreskog, 1993). The descriptive statistics (e.g., frequency) and ANOVA for the research questions were analyzed using SPSS 15.0. Confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) was used to test the fit of the measurement model and structural equation modeling (SEM) was used to test the causal relationship between latent variables using LISREL 8.51. In addition, Cronbach's alpha coefficients ( $\alpha$ ) of the constructs were tested using SPSS 15.0. The asymptotic covariance matrix to be used for ordinal variables in the CFA models was obtained running PRELIS 2.50 included in LISREL 8.51.

Structural equation modeling assumes causal relationships between latent variables on a basis of a measurement model (Kline, 2005). That is, the SEM is a combination of factor, path and regression analyses (Bollen, 1989). The latent variables are indirectly measured from the observed variables in the measurement model and the significance of causal relationships between the latent variables is tested. Though a measurement model should be specified and if necessary, should be respecified prior to structural equation model, both measurement and structural equation model have three broad steps to be implemented: model specification, model assessment and model respecification (Byrne, 1998).

First, in the model specification step, by theoretical rationale and justification, researchers should determine which observed variables represent each latent variable. There may be a correlation between exogenous or endogenous variables, but usually correlations between endogenous variables are discouraged (Hair et al., 2003). The correlation matrix is widely utilized in many applications using continuous variables rather than the covariance matrix on account of its standardized unit of coefficients to be directly compared across different variables. However the polychoric correlation matrix and asymptotic covariance matrix should be employed for ordinal variables. The PRELIS program serves to obtain the asymptotic covariance matrix and the polychoric correlation matrix, but all missing variables should be treated before the use of PRELIS because this program makes it impossible to run it with any missing data. In addition, while the maximum likelihood (ML) estimation is performed for continuous variables, the diagonally weighted least squares (DWLS) estimation method should be conducted for ordinal variables (Joreskog, 1993).

Second, the suitability of parameter estimates, the appropriateness of standardized errors, the statistical significance of parameter estimates and the overall model fit should be assessed. The parameters that have negative variances, correlations higher than 1.00 and non-positive definite covariance or correlation matrices are considered unreasonable (Byrne, 1998). Moreover if the model has extremely large or small standardized errors, it leads to a poor fit. The zero residuals assume the perfect fit. Accordingly, the standardized residuals greater than + 2.58 are deemed to be large and in contrast, the values less than -2.58 are considered to be small. In terms of statistical significance of parameter estimates, the t-statistic value should be over 1.96 at a significance level of  $p < 0.05$ . The non-significant parameters imply that those parameters make little contribution to the model (Byrne, 1998). For the overall model fit, the Likelihood Ratio

Test statistic is demonstrated by chi-square ( $\chi^2$ ). The significance of chi-square value means the rejection of the null hypothesis that the model is valid. Nevertheless, as the Likelihood Ratio Test is highly sensitive to sample size, any non-saturated model with a large sample is rejected albeit adequate. Therefore, the chi-square values scarcely serve to examine the overall model fit, but are utilized for the model comparison (Kline, 2005). The suggested main indexes to test the overall model fit are the root-mean square-error of approximation, RMSEA (Steiger & Lind, 1980) with a 90% confidence interval, the standardized root mean square residual, SRMR (Hu & Bentler, 1995), the comparative fit index, CFI (Bentler, 1990) and the non-normed fit index, NNFI (Bentler & Bonett, 1980).

The better the fit, the closer the RMSEA and SRMR values are to 0.00 and the closer the NNFI and CFI values are to 1.00. In terms of RMSEA and SRMR cutoff points, values less than 0.05 represent good fits, values between 0.08 and 0.10 indicate acceptable fits, and values higher than 0.10 are considered to be poor fits (Browne & Cudeck, 1992a, 1992b; MacCallum, Browne, & Sugawara, 1996). NNFI and CFI values greater than 0.90 indicate acceptable fits (Bentler, 1992). As additional indices, the Goodness of Fit Index (GFI) and Adjusted Goodness of Fit Index (AGFI) are absolute indices ranging from 0.00 to 1.00 and the closer both the values are to 1.00, the better the fit. The expected cross-validation index (ECVI) indicates the probability that the model can be valid across different groups (i.e., similar sample size from the sample population). The model with the smallest ECVI value among the hypothesized model, the saturated model and the independent model have the highest probability of being replicated (Browne & Cudeck, 1992a).

Last, the misspecified model should be respecified. Deleting indicators is one way to be respecified and the other way of respecification is that the errors are allowed to correlate, which

should be underpinned by theories or rationales (Joreskog, 1993). Residuals and modification indices are two main sources to identify misfits in the model. Standardized residuals exceeding  $\pm 2.58$  are a baseline for respecification. The second source is the modification indices that represent how appropriately the hypothesized model is described. The largest modification index may often be associated with the largest expected change value (Sarlis, Satorra, & Sorbom, 1987). On the baseline of large residuals and large expected change values, the researcher should determine how the model can proceed to be respecified. If the variables related to the largest modification index are so critical that it is hard for them to be eliminated, the next largest modification index could be used for the respecification.

Cronbach's alpha coefficients ( $\alpha$ ) and composite reliability (CR) have been widely used to estimate the reliability of confirmatory factors. A recommended cut off point of Cronbach's alpha coefficients is greater than 0.70 (Nunnally, 1978; Nunnally & Bernstein, 1994). However, provided that the number of items is less than six, alpha coefficients greater than 0.60 are considered acceptable (Cortina, 1993). The square of the sum of standardized factor loadings divided by the sum of indicator errors added to the square of the sum of standardized factor loadings constitutes composite reliability (CR). Fornell and Larcker (1981) suggested that a composite reliability (CR) greater than 0.7 as adequate, but later Bagozzi and Yi (1988) recommended that a cutoff point of 0.6 should be considered reasonable.

For convergent validity, the average variance extracted (AVE) is offered, being calculated as the sum of squared standardized loadings divided by the sum of squared standardized loadings added to the sum of indicator measurement error. The AVE value that is greater than 0.5 is deemed acceptable (Bagozzi, 1994; Fornell & Larcker, 1981). In spite of the general usage of CR and AVE, Fornell and Larcker (1981) did not manifest how to calculate CR and AVE under the

correlated errors. Another criterion for convergent validity is factor loadings. T-statistics for factor loadings ( $\lambda$ ) greater than 1.96 at a significance level of  $p < 0.05$  are regarded as significant. For obtaining discriminant validity, the correlations between variables should be less than 0.85 (Kline, 2005).

After the assessment of the measurement model fit and structural equation model fit, a comparison between a full model (i.e., every exogenous and endogenous variables have arrows to every endogenous) and several nested models would be conducted. To compare both models, the null hypothesis assumes that the nested model fits the data, whereas the target hypothesis has an assumption that the full model fits the data. Unless the null hypothesis is rejected after the difference between two chi-squares and degrees of freedom is tested, it is implied that the nested model fit is better than the full model. On the contrary, given the rejection of the null hypothesis, the full model is deemed a better model.

Table 3-1. Leisure involvement scale for content validity

---

*Hedonic*

- My favorite leisure activity is pleasurable
- I really enjoy my favorite leisure activity
- Participating in my favorite leisure activity is one of the most satisfying things that I do

*Central*

- I attach great importance to my favorite leisure activity
- My favorite leisure activity interests me a lot
- I find a lot of my life is organized around my favorite leisure activity
- My favorite leisure activity has a central role in my life
- I would rather do my favorite leisure activity than do most anything else
- My favorite leisure activity reflects my life style

*Social*

- Most of my friends are in some way connected with my favorite leisure activity
- I enjoy discussing my favorite leisure activity with my friends and family
- Most of my family members are in some way connected with my favorite leisure activity
- My favorite leisure activity provides the chance to socialize with my friends

*Self-identity*

- My favorite leisure activity reflects who I am
- My participation in my favorite leisure activity tells something about me
- I can tell things about a person by seeing them participating in the favorite leisure activity
- When I participate in my favorite leisure activity, others see me the way I want them to see me

*Risk*

- It is not complicated to choose my favorite leisure activity over other activities
  - Whenever I participate in my favorite leisure activity, I am confident that it is the right activity choice
  - When I mistakenly choose to do other activities instead of my favorite leisure activity, it really matters to me
  - If I participated in my favorite leisure activity and my choice proved to be poor, I would be upset
-

Table 3-2. Leisure habit scale for content validity

---

*Regular*

- I take part in this leisure activity frequently
- I have been taking part in this leisure activity for a long time
- This leisure activity belongs to my routine
- This leisure activity is typically “me”

*Automatic*

- I do this leisure activity automatically
- I do this leisure activity without thinking
- I start doing this leisure activity before I realize I am doing it
- I do this leisure activity without having to consciously remember
- I do not need an effort to think about doing this leisure activity.

*Resistant*

- This leisure activity would require effort not to do it
  - I would find it hard not to take part in this leisure activity
  - This leisure activity makes me feel weird if I do not do it
-

Table 3-3. Vacation motivation scale for content validity

---

*Socializing*

- To build friendships with others
- To interact with others
- To develop close friendships
- To meet new and different people
- To reveal my thoughts, feelings, or physical skills to others
- To be socially competent and skillful
- To gain a feeling of belonging
- To gain other's respect

*Competence/Mastery*

- To challenge my abilities
- To be good in doing them
- To improve my skill and ability in doing them
- To be active
- To develop physical skills and abilities
- To keep in shape physically
- To use my physical abilities
- To develop physical fitness

*Stimulus-Avoidance*

- To slow down
- Because I sometimes like to be alone
- To relax physically
- To relax mentally
- To avoid the hustle and bustle of daily activities
- To rest
- To relieve stress and tension
- To unstructure my time

*Intellectual*

- To learn about things around me
  - To satisfy my curiosity
  - To explore new ideas
  - To learn about myself
  - To expand my knowledge
  - To discover new things
  - To be creative
  - To use my imagination
-

Table 3-4. Vacation behavior scale for content validity

---

*Vacation participation*

- I take an adequate amount of vacation to take part in my favorite vacation activity each year
- I schedule vacation related to my favorite vacation activity regularly
- I have a network of friends with whom I travel to take part in my favorite vacation activity
- Whenever I take a vacation, I am usually involved in my favorite vacation activity
- Whenever I take a vacation, I usually take a chance to improve my favorite vacation activity
- Whenever I visit my family and friends, I usually spend time taking part in my favorite vacation activity with them

*Vacation decision*

- The trips that immediately come to mind are usually related to my favorite vacation activity
  - There is no doubt in my mind about taking part in my favorite vacation activity
  - I think it is useless to expend time and energy finding out about other activities instead of my favorite vacation activity
  - I usually expend effort finding out which place is the best to take part in my favorite vacation activity
  - I usually find detailed information about taking part in my favorite vacation activity
-

Table 3-5. One sample t-test for content validity

Variable name	(N=12)	Relevance			Representativeness			Clarity		
		<i>M<sup>a</sup></i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>t</i> (**)	<i>M<sup>a</sup></i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>t</i> (**)	<i>M<sup>a</sup></i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>t</i> (**)
Involvement										
Hedonic	Pleasure	4.50	.522	29.850	4.50	.522	29.850	4.42	.793	19.294
	Enjoy	4.75	.452	36.382	4.67	.492	32.833	4.75	.452	36.382
	Satisfy	4.09	1.044	12.990	4.00	1.206	11.489	4.17	1.030	14.015
Central	Important	4.08	.996	14.199	4.33	.985	15.244	3.92	1.165	11.651
	Interest	4.25	.866	17.000	4.17	.937	15.397	4.33	.778	19.282
	Organize	4.58	.669	23.748	4.67	.651	24.819	4.58	.669	23.748
	Central	4.58	.669	23.748	4.67	.651	24.819	4.50	1.000	15.588
Social	Rather do	4.50	.674	23.121	4.33	.778	19.282	4.33	.778	19.282
	Lifestyle	4.25	1.138	12.935	4.25	1.138	12.935	3.58	1.564	7.935
	Friend connect	4.50	.674	23.121	4.58	.669	23.748	4.25	1.055	13.951
	Discuss	4.75	.452	36.382	4.75	.452	36.382	4.50	.798	19.541
	Family connect	4.42	.793	19.294	4.58	.669	23.748	4.33	1.155	13.000
Self-identity	Socialize	4.67	.492	32.833	4.67	.651	24.819	4.83	.389	43.014
	Who I am	4.58	.669	23.748	4.67	.651	24.819	4.50	.798	19.541
	Tell something	4.58	.669	23.748	4.58	.669	23.748	4.17	1.267	11.389
	See them	3.42	1.165	10.164	3.58	1.311	9.466	3.73	1.555	7.950
Risk	See me	4.25	.866	17.000	4.33	.888	16.912	3.92	1.311	10.346
	Complicated	3.08	1.443	7.400	3.42	1.505	7.864	3.17	1.586	6.917
	Confident	3.33	1.497	7.711	3.50	1.567	7.739	3.50	1.624	7.467
	Mistakenly	3.08	1.443	7.400	3.25	1.545	7.288	3.17	1.467	7.479
	Poor	3.08	1.564	6.828	3.33	1.614	7.153	3.25	1.913	5.886
Habit										
Regular	Frequent	4.58	.669	23.748	4.67	.492	32.833	4.58	.669	23.748
	Long time	4.50	.798	19.541	4.50	.798	19.541	4.33	.888	16.912
	Routine	4.33	.985	15.244	4.42	.996	15.358	3.42	1.311	9.025
	Typical	3.00	1.706	6.093	3.17	1.642	6.680	3.08	1.621	6.588
Automatic	Automatic	3.92	1.676	8.093	4.00	1.537	9.013	3.75	1.545	8.409
	Without thinking	4.08	1.564	9.043	4.00	1.595	8.685	3.67	1.557	8.158
	Realize	4.00	1.279	10.832	3.92	1.379	9.839	3.92	1.165	11.651
	Conscious	3.83	1.528	8.693	3.83	1.528	8.693	3.33	1.371	8.424
	No effort	3.83	1.642	8.086	3.83	1.642	8.086	3.50	1.784	6.797
Resistant	Effort not	3.92	1.443	9.400	3.92	1.443	9.400	3.08	1.782	5.995
	Hard not	4.42	.996	15.358	4.42	.996	15.358	4.08	1.379	10.258
	Weird	3.50	1.508	8.042	3.50	1.508	8.042	2.83	1.749	5.610
Motivation										
Socializing	Friendship	4.67	.651	24.819	4.75	.622	26.472	4.75	.452	36.382
	Interact	4.83	.389	43.014	4.83	.389	43.014	4.83	.389	43.014
	Close	4.75	.452	36.382	4.83	.389	43.014	4.83	.389	43.014
	New people	4.75	.452	36.382	4.75	.452	36.382	4.75	.452	36.382
	Reveal	3.58	1.165	10.660	3.92	1.084	12.521	3.75	1.138	11.413
	Socially	3.83	1.030	12.894	4.00	1.128	12.282	3.58	1.084	11.455

Table 3-5. Continued.

Variable name	(N=12)	Relevance			Representativeness			Clarity		
		<i>M<sup>a</sup></i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>t</i> (**)	<i>M<sup>a</sup></i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>t</i> (**)	<i>M<sup>a</sup></i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>t</i> (**)
Motivation										
	Belonging	4.67	.492	32.833	4.50	.674	23.121	4.67	.492	32.833
	Respect	4.00	1.206	11.489	3.92	1.240	10.941	3.83	1.115	11.913
Competence /mastery	Challenge	4.58	.669	23.748	4.58	.669	23.748	4.50	.798	19.541
	Good	4.08	.900	15.711	4.17	.937	15.397	3.33	1.614	7.153
	Improve	4.67	.651	24.819	4.58	.669	23.748	4.00	1.477	9.381
	Active	3.58	1.676	7.404	3.50	1.732	7.000	4.00	1.477	9.381
	Develop physical	4.67	.651	24.819	4.67	.651	24.819	4.67	.492	32.833
	Shape	3.42	1.564	7.566	3.42	1.564	7.566	4.08	1.311	10.786
	Use physical	4.09	1.221	11.112	4.09	1.221	11.112	4.45	1.036	14.264
	Fitness	3.83	1.337	9.931	3.83	1.337	9.931	4.33	.985	15.244
Stimulus /avoidance	Slow	4.25	.965	15.252	4.33	.985	15.244	4.08	1.084	13.053
	Alone	4.00	1.348	10.276	4.08	1.379	10.258	4.42	.793	19.294
	Physical relax	4.58	.900	17.635	4.58	.900	17.635	4.75	.452	36.382
	Mental relax	4.58	.900	17.635	4.58	.900	17.635	4.67	.651	24.819
	Avoid	4.67	.651	24.819	4.67	.651	24.819	4.58	.900	17.635
	Rest	4.33	.985	15.244	4.50	.905	17.234	4.58	.900	17.635
	Relieve	4.67	.651	24.819	4.67	.651	24.819	4.75	.452	36.382
	Unstructured	3.50	1.314	9.225	3.67	1.303	9.750	3.00	1.537	6.760
Intellectual	Learn about	4.42	.900	16.993	4.42	.900	16.993	4.42	1.165	13.138
	Curiosity	4.42	.900	16.993	4.42	.900	16.993	4.42	1.165	13.138
	Explore	4.50	.798	19.541	4.50	.798	19.541	4.42	1.165	13.138
	Learn myself	4.17	1.193	12.094	4.17	1.193	12.094	4.08	1.379	10.258
	Knowledge	4.67	.651	24.819	4.67	.651	24.819	4.33	1.231	12.195
	Discover	4.50	.798	19.541	4.50	.798	19.541	4.42	1.165	13.138
	Creative	4.42	.900	16.993	4.42	.900	16.993	4.25	1.288	11.430
	Imagination	4.17	1.115	12.949	4.17	1.115	12.949	4.00	1.414	9.798
Behavior										
Participation	Adequate	4.42	.515	29.712	4.33	.888	16.912	3.67	1.557	8.158
	Schedule	4.50	.674	23.121	4.50	.674	23.121	3.83	1.337	9.931
	Network	4.33	.985	15.244	4.33	.888	16.912	4.17	1.267	11.389
	Usually	4.75	.452	36.382	4.75	.452	36.382	4.67	.651	24.819
	Chance	4.58	.669	23.748	4.42	.996	15.358	3.92	1.505	9.015
	Spend time	4.33	.778	19.282	4.42	.793	19.294	4.25	1.055	13.951
Decision	Immediately	4.75	.452	36.382	4.75	.452	36.382	4.42	.793	19.294
	Doubt	4.08	1.165	12.147	4.00	1.206	11.489	3.33	1.670	6.916
	Frustrating	4.17	.937	15.397	4.08	.996	14.199	3.42	.996	11.881
	Place	4.67	.492	32.833	4.75	.452	36.382	4.50	.905	17.234
	Information	4.67	.492	32.833	4.75	.452	36.382	4.33	.888	16.912

<sup>a</sup> Mean score based on a 5-point scale where 1 equals unacceptable, 2 equals poor, 3 equals acceptable, 4 equals good and 5 equals excellent

\*\*  $p < .01$

Table 3-6. CVI agreement measures for content validity

Variable names		Relevance <sup>a</sup>	Representativeness <sup>a</sup>	Clarity <sup>a</sup>
<b>Involvement</b>				
Hedonic	Pleasure	1.00	1.00	1.00
	Enjoy	1.00	1.00	1.00
	Satisfy	.83	.83	.92
Central	Important	.92	.92	.83
	Interest	.92	.92	1.00
	Organize	1.00	1.00	1.00
	Central	1.00	1.00	.92
	Rather do	1.00	1.00	1.00
	Lifestyle	.83	.83	.67
	Social	Friend connect	1.00	1.00
Social	Discuss	1.00	1.00	1.00
	Family connect	1.00	1.00	.83
	Socialize	1.00	1.00	1.00
	Self-identity	Who I am	1.00	1.00
Self-identity	Tell something	1.00	1.00	.92
	See them	.83	.83	.75
	See me	.92	.92	.83
	Risk	Complicated	.50	.58
Risk	Confident	.58	.58	.67
	Mistakenly	.50	.50	.67
	Poor	.42	.50	.58
	<b>Habit</b>			
Regular	Frequent	1.00	1.00	1.00
	Long time	1.00	1.00	1.00
	Routine	.92	.92	.75
	Typical	.50	.50	.58
Automatic	Automatic	.75	.75	.67
	Without thinking	.83	.83	.67
	Realize	.92	.83	.83
	Conscious	.75	.75	.67
	No effort	.75	.75	.67
Resistant	Effort not	.83	.83	.58
	Hard not	.92	.92	.83
	Weird	.67	.67	.58
<b>Motivation</b>				
Socializing	Friendship	1.00	1.00	1.00
	Interact	1.00	1.00	1.00
	Close	1.00	1.00	1.00
	New people	1.00	1.00	1.00
	Reveal	.83	.92	.83
	Socially	.92	.92	.83
	Belonging	1.00	1.00	1.00

Table 3-6. Continued.

Motivation		Relevance <sup>a</sup>	Representativeness <sup>a</sup>	Clarity <sup>a</sup>
	Respect	.83	.83	.92
Competence	Challenge	1.00	1.00	1.00
/mastery	Good	1.00	1.00	.75
	Improve	1.00	1.00	.75
	Active	.67	.58	.75
	Develop physical	1.00	1.00	1.00
	Shape	.58	.58	.83
	Use physical	.75	.75	.83
	Fitness	.75	.75	.92
Stimulus	Slow	.92	.92	.92
/avoidance	Alone	.83	.83	1.00
	Physical relax	.92	.92	1.00
	Mental relax	.92	.92	1.00
	Avoid	1.00	1.00	.92
	Rest	.92	.92	.92
	Relieve	1.00	1.00	1.00
	Unstructured	.67	.75	.42
Intellectual	Learn about	1.00	1.00	.92
	Curiosity	1.00	1.00	.92
	Explore	1.00	1.00	.92
	Learn myself	.83	.83	.83
	Knowledge	1.00	1.00	.92
	Discover	1.00	1.00	.92
	Creative	1.00	1.00	.92
	Imagination	.92	.92	.83
<b>Behavior</b>				
Participation	Adequate	1.00	.92	.75
	Schedule	1.00	1.00	.83
	Network	.92	1.00	.92
	Usually	1.00	1.00	1.00
	Chance	1.00	.92	.75
	Spend time	1.00	1.00	.92
Decision	Immediately	1.00	1.00	1.00
	Doubt	.83	.83	.58
	Frustrating	.92	.92	.83
	Place	1.00	1.00	.92
	Information	1.00	1.00	1.00

<sup>a</sup> Proportion calculated by the number of agreement divided by the total number (i.e.,  $x/12$ )

Table 3-7. Revised leisure involvement scale

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*Hedonic*

- I really enjoy my favorite leisure activity
- Participating in my favorite leisure activity is one of the most satisfying things that I do
- My favorite leisure activity is pleasurable
- My favorite leisure activity interests me a lot

*Central*

- I attach great importance to my favorite leisure activity
- I find a lot of my life is organized around my favorite leisure activity
- My favorite leisure activity has a central role in my life
- I would rather do my favorite leisure activity than do most anything else
- My favorite leisure activity reflects my lifestyle

*Social*

- Most of my friends or family members are in some way connected to my favorite leisure activity
- I enjoy discussing my favorite leisure activity with my friends or family
- My favorite leisure activity provides the chance to socialize with my friends or family

*Self-identity*

- Participation in my favorite leisure activity says something about me
- My favorite leisure activity reflects who I am
- My favorite leisure activity is an important part of who I am

*Social identity*

- Other people see an important side of me when I participate in my favorite leisure activity
  - I can tell things about other people by seeing them participating in their favorite leisure activity
  - When I participate in my favorite leisure activity, others see me the way I want them to see me
-

Table 3-8. Revised leisure habit scale

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*Regular*

- I take part in this activity frequently
- I have been taking part in this activity for a long time
- This activity is part of my routine

*Automatic*

- I do this activity without much thinking
- I start doing this activity before I realize I am doing it
- I do this activity without having to consciously remember it
- I do not need much of an effort to think about doing this activity

*Resistant*

- This activity would require effort not to do it
  - I would find it hard not to take part in this activity
  - I feel strange if I do not participate in this activity
-

Table 3-9. Revised vacation motivation scale

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*Socializing*

- To build friendships with others
- To interact with others
- To have a good time with friends
- To develop close friendships
- To gain a feeling of belonging

*Active/competence*

- To be active
- To develop physical skills and abilities
- To keep in shape physically
- To develop physical fitness
- To use my physical abilities

*Relaxation*

- To relax physically
- To relax mentally
- To avoid the hustle and bustle of daily activities
- To rest

*Intellectual*

- To learn about things around me
  - To explore new ideas
  - To expand my knowledge
  - To discover new things
-

Table 3-10. Revised vacation behavior scale

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*Vacation participation*

- I spend an adequate amount of vacation to take part in my favorite vacation activity each year
- I schedule vacations related to my favorite vacation activity regularly
- I have a network of friends/family with whom I travel to take part in my favorite vacation activity
- Whenever I take a vacation, I am usually involved in my favorite vacation activity
- Whenever I take a vacation, I usually take a chance to improve my favorite vacation activity
- Whenever I visit my family/friends, I usually spend time taking part in my favorite vacation activity with them

*Vacation decision*

- The trips that immediately come to mind are usually related to my favorite vacation activity
  - There is no doubt in my mind about taking part in my favorite vacation activity
  - I think it is frustrating to expend time and energy finding out about other activities instead of my favorite vacation activity
  - I usually expend effort finding out which place is the best to take part in my favorite vacation activity
  - I attempt to find detailed information about taking part in my favorite vacation activity
-

Table 3-11. Demographic characteristics of the respondents

	Frequency	Percent (%)
<b>Gender</b>		
Male	172	55.3
Female	139	44.7
Total	311	100.0
<b>Age</b>		
18 to 19	1	0.3
20 to 29	39	12.4
30 to 39	74	23.5
40 to 49	74	23.5
50 to 59	82	26.0
60 to 69	36	11.4
70 to 79	9	2.9
Total	315	100.0
Mean ( <i>SD</i> )	45.18	( <i>SD</i> =12.69)
<b>Education</b>		
High school graduate	1	0.3
Some college	4	1.3
Bachelor's degree	133	42.4
Master's degree	90	28.7
M.D/J.D. or equivalent	47	15.0
Ph.D/Ed.D. or equivalent	30	9.6
Other	9	2.9
Total	314	100.0
<b>Employment</b>		
<i>(multiple answers)</i>		
Employed full time	242	76.6
Employed part time	27	8.5
Full time student	10	3.2
Part time student	5	1.6
Unemployed	7	2.2
Retirement	23	7.3
Other	18	5.7

Table 3-11. Continued.

	Frequency	Percent (%)
Ethnic or racial background		
White, not of Hispanic origin	272	87.5
Hispanic	16	5.1
Black, not of Hispanic origin	7	2.3
Asian or Pacific Islander	9	2.9
Multiracial	3	1.0
Other	4	1.3
Total	311	100.0
Income		
\$30,000 or less	11	3.6
\$30,001-\$50,000	31	10.2
\$50,001-\$70,000	38	12.5
\$70,001-\$90,000	29	9.6
\$90,001-\$110,000	44	14.5
\$110,001-\$130,000	39	12.9
\$130,001-\$150,000	19	6.3
\$150,001 or more	92	30.4
Total	303	100.0

## CHAPTER 4 RESULTS

The research questions were used to identify the specific types of favorite leisure activities and favorite vacation activities of the respondents. The hypotheses served to examine the relationship between leisure involvement, leisure habit, vacation motivation, and vacation behavior constructs.

### **Types of Leisure Activities**

- **Research question 1a:** What types of favorite leisure activities do physically active people take part in?

On the basis of a variety of answers to the open-ended question about the respondents' favorite leisure activity, six categories were yielded: 1) outdoor-related sports, 2) water-related sports, 3) fitness, 4) golf/ski, 5) team sports, and 6) other. Table 4-1 presents more specific activities pertaining to given categories. In terms of frequency distribution of respondents in these categories, more people (36.1%,  $n = 114$ ) were represented in the outdoor-related sports category of active leisure than in the water-related sports (17.7%,  $n = 56$ ), fitness (16.8%,  $n = 53$ ), golf/ski (15.8%,  $n = 50$ ), team sports (10.8%,  $n = 34$ ) and other (2.8%,  $n = 9$ ). These results are presented in Table 4-2.

### **Leisure Participation Patterns**

- **Research question 1b:** What are the participation patterns in the favorite leisure activities of the respondents?

Regarding participation frequency in their favorite leisure activity, the respondents were asked to report how many times on average during the last year (in season) they had participated in their favorite leisure activity. Out of the respondents, 28.2% ( $n = 89$ ) indicated about 1-2 times a week, 23.1% ( $n = 73$ ) described about 3-4 times a week, 16.8% ( $n = 53$ ) reported about 2-3 times a month and 13.6% ( $n = 43$ ) answered that they had participated in their favorite

leisure activity almost everyday during the last year. A low percentage of the respondents (9.8%,  $n = 31$ ) reported about once a month or less, 7.9% ( $n = 25$ ) indicated a few times a year or less and 0.6% ( $n = 2$ ) demonstrated they had never participated in.

With respect to participation per occurrence, duration in their favorite leisure activity, a large percentage of the respondents (64.8%,  $n = 204$ ) usually participate in their favorite leisure activity for 61-90 minutes per occasion. Next, 32.7% ( $n = 103$ ) indicated taking part for 30-60 minutes per time. In contrast, a very small percentage of the respondents (2.5%,  $n = 8$ ) answered they participate in their favorite leisure activity less than 30 minutes per time.

When the respondents were asked to report how many years they had been participating in their favorite leisure activity, years of participation ranged from 1 to 64 years. More specifically, regarding a breakdown by percentage of participation years, 25.0% ( $n = 79$ ) indicated 11-20 years and 19.3% ( $n = 61$ ) reported 21-30 years, followed closely by 1-5 years (17.7%,  $n = 56$ ), 31-40 years (14.9%,  $n = 47$ ), 6-10 years (14.2%,  $n = 45$ ), 41-50 years (6.6%,  $n = 21$ ) and 51-64 years (2.2%,  $n = 7$ ).

### **Types of Vacation Activities**

- **Research question 2a:** What types of favorite vacation activities do the respondents participate in?

Active vacation activities were broken down into seven subcategories. Like the active leisure categories, outdoor-related sports, water-related sports, fitness, golf/ski, team sports and other were identified. However, visiting family and friends was identified as another new category. Table 4-1 reports more detailed information of activities included in given categories. Particularly, the respondents in the final category, visiting family and friends, reported that they take part in active leisure (i.e., golfing, tennis, hiking, walking, camping, skiing, swimming, water sports, outdoor-related sports, etc) while they are visiting family and friends. For example,

these “tourist sports” included outdoor-related sports, water-related sports, fitness and golf/ski domains described “hiking/walking to explore some new places,” “hiking/swimming/beach activities/sport activities to spend or spending time with my family or friends” and “hiking/camping/fishing/golf/ski with sightseeing or to view new scenery.”

Of the 316 respondents, 43.4% ( $n = 137$ ) identified outdoor-related sports as their favorite vacation activities. The next highest rated category was water-related sports which accounted for 25.9% ( $n = 82$ ), followed by golf/ski (19.3%,  $n = 61$ ), visiting family and friends (8.2%,  $n = 26$ ), and fitness (1.9%,  $n = 6$ ). Team sports and other have an equal rating of 0.6% ( $n = 2$ ). The percentage of the total “tourist sports” who participate in sports, physical activities and active outdoor recreation so as to spend time with their family and friends, explore something and view new scenery or sightsee was 42% ( $n = 133$ ), whereas 58% ( $n = 183$ ) could be categorized as sport tourists. The proportion of “tourist sports” in each category were 57.6% ( $n = 79$ ) of 137 outdoor activities-related vacationers, whereas “sport tourists” were 42.4% ( $n = 58$ ); 12.6% ( $n = 11$ ) of 82 water sports-related vacationers were “tourist sports” and 87.4% ( $n = 71$ ) were “sport tourists”; and 22.9% ( $n = 14$ ) of 61 golf/ski-related vacationers were “tourist sports” and 77.1% ( $n = 47$ ) were “sport tourists.” Of the 6 fitness-related vacationers, 50.0% ( $n = 3$ ) were involved in tourism sport activities and the remaining half of them 50.0% ( $n = 3$ ) were “sport tourists.”

Table 4-2 demonstrates these results.

### **Vacation Participation Patterns**

- **Research question 2b:** What are the vacation patterns of the respondents?

Regarding vacation frequency, when the respondents were asked about how many vacations they take in an average year, the most commonly reported number of vacations was 2-3 vacations (57.1%,  $n = 180$ ). This was followed by 4-5 vacations (18.7%,  $n = 59$ ), 1 vacation (13.0%,  $n = 41$ ), 6-7 vacations (6.0%,  $n = 19$ ) and 8 or more vacations (4.1%,  $n = 13$ ). The

number of respondents reporting none was very few (1.0%,  $n = 3$ ). In terms of vacation duration, when the respondents were asked about how long their typical vacation is, the most common response was 3-6 days (46.2%,  $n = 144$ ). Roughly one fourth of the respondents (26.0%,  $n = 81$ ) indicated 1 week to be their typical vacation duration, followed closely by a 1-2 week vacation (20.2%,  $n = 63$ ). A few respondents (5.4%,  $n = 17$ ) reported 1-2 days and 1.3% ( $n = 4$ ) indicated 3-4 weeks. The least frequently answered vacation duration (1.0%,  $n = 3$ ) was other (i.e., 4-6 weeks, 8 weeks, etc).

With regard to vacation companions, when asked about who typically accompanies them on vacation, the majority of respondents (75.3%,  $n = 235$ ) answered their family accompanies them and 17.3% ( $n = 54$ ) reported their friends to be their vacation companions. A very small percentage of the respondents (3.8%,  $n = 12$ ) answered they travel alone. The remaining respondents (3.5%,  $n = 11$ ) described others such as both friends and family, all answers, or a team. When the respondents were asked if they travel as a part of a special interest group, the most common response was that they do not travel as a part of a special interest group (82.7%,  $n = 258$ ), whereas 17.3% ( $n = 54$ ) reported they traveled with a special interest group (i.e., golfing buddies, ski club, softball team, adventure club, marathon club, outdoor social group, fitness roundtable, fishing buddies, church, boy scouts, alumni, scuba diving group, tennis team, ultimate team, Intrepid, water sport team, rotary volunteers, fencing team, etc). With respects to their preference for familiar or novel destinations, the predominant preference was for new destinations (72.1%,  $n = 227$ ) rather than familiar destinations (27.9%,  $n = 88$ ).

### **Similarity between Favorite Leisure and Favorite Vacation Activities**

- **Research question 3a:** Is there a similarity between the favorite leisure and favorite vacation activities of the respondents?

Leisure and vacation activity choices were examined to see if participants take part in the same vacation activity as their favorite leisure activity. One third of the respondents (35.6%,  $n = 112$ ) took part in the same activities in both the leisure and vacation contexts, whereas 64.2% ( $n = 203$ ) were engaged in different favorite activities between the two contexts though they still took part in both the active leisure and active vacations (Figure 4-1).

Nevertheless, in terms of similarity between the categories, of the 114 outdoor-related sports participants during leisure, more than two thirds of them (68.4%,  $n = 78$ ) indicated their favorite vacation activities were in the outdoor-related sports category, whereas 14.0% ( $n = 16$ ) took part in water-related sports during vacation. Nearly nine percent (8.8%,  $n = 10$ ) reported they visited family and friends during their vacation, followed closely by golfing or skiing during vacation (7.9%,  $n = 9$ ). One respondent (0.9%) indicated that his or her vacation activity was team sports. Of those who answered that they visit family and friends, 60.0% ( $n = 6$ ) reported that outdoor-related sports were their favorite vacation activities while spending time with their family or friends. Water-related sports (20.0%,  $n = 2$ ) and golf/ski (20.0%,  $n = 2$ ) were equally popular vacation activities among the respondents who spent time with their family or friends while on vacation.

Of the 56 participants who took part in water-related sports during leisure, 64.3% ( $n = 36$ ) also took part in water-related sports during vacation, whereas 17.9% ( $n = 10$ ) reported they participate in outdoor-related sports while on vacation, followed by golf/ski (7.1%,  $n = 4$ ), visiting family and friends (7.1%,  $n = 4$ ) and fitness (3.6%,  $n = 2$ ). Specifically, for four of the family or friends visitors, 75.0% ( $n = 3$ ) took part in outdoor-related sports with their family or friends and one respondent (25.0%) engaged in water-related sports.

Of the 53 leisure participants in fitness, the most commonly reported vacation category was outdoor-related sports (50.9%,  $n = 27$ ). Next, one fourth of them (24.5%,  $n = 13$ ) took part in water-related sports as their favorite vacation activities, followed by golf/ski during their vacations (13.2%,  $n = 7$ ) and fitness (5.7%,  $n = 3$ ). Of the three respondents (5.7%) who visited family and friends, two people (66.7%) spent time with their family or friends, taking part in outdoor-related sports and one person (33.3%) took part in the same fitness activities while visiting family or friends.

Of 50 participants in golf/ski as their favorite leisure activities, a large proportion of them (60.0%,  $n = 30$ ) indicated the same golf/ski category during their vacations, whereas 16.0% ( $n = 8$ ) answered that their favorite vacation activities were related to water sports and 14.0% ( $n = 7$ ) indicated visiting family and friends. Five people (10.0%) reported their favorite vacation activities to be outdoor-related sports. Of the seven family or friends visitors, 85.7% ( $n = 6$ ) equally enjoyed playing golf or skiing with their family and friends, and one visitor (14.3%) took part in outdoor-related sports while visiting family and friends.

Of the 34 team sports participants during leisure, roughly half of them (41.2%,  $n = 14$ ) were involved in the outdoor-related sports category while on vacation, followed by golf/ski (26.5%,  $n = 9$ ), water-related sports (17.6%,  $n = 6$ ), visiting family and friends (5.9%,  $n = 2$ ), fitness (2.9%,  $n = 1$ ), team sports (2.9%,  $n = 1$ ) and other (2.9%,  $n = 1$ ). Two respondents (100.0%) who reported visiting family and friends indicated they take part in the same team sports while they visit their family or friends.

Of the nine respondents included in the other leisure category, frequency of vacation activity participation was equally distributed between outdoor-related sports (33.3%,  $n = 3$ ) and water-related sports (33.3%,  $n = 3$ ). The next most frequently reported category was golf/ski

(22.2%,  $n = 2$ ). One person (11.1%) indicated other vacation activity. Nobody reported that visiting family or friends is their favorite vacation activity in the other category. These results are illustrated in Table 4-3.

### **Leisure Activity Participation Patterns During Vacation**

- **Research question 3b:** What are the participation patterns in the favorite leisure activities of the respondents during vacation?

With a purpose of understanding their participation patterns in favorite leisure activity during vacation, the following five issues were addressed: 1) participation in favorite leisure activities as a primary vacation motivation, 2) participation in favorite leisure activities as a secondary vacation motivation, 3) the influence of favorite leisure activities on vacation types and activities, 4) the likelihood of participating in their favorite leisure activities as a primary vacation motivation, and 5) the relationship between the level of leisure involvement and the likelihood of participating in their favorite leisure activities as a primary vacation motivation.

First, the respondents were asked to report how often their favorite leisure activity has been the main purpose of their vacation over the past five years. Almost two thirds of the respondents (60.8%,  $n = 192$ ) indicated positive responses as follows, always (5.7%,  $n = 18$ ), frequently (20.9%,  $n = 66$ ) and occasionally (34.2%,  $n = 108$ ), whereas 39.2% ( $n = 124$ ) answered they never participated in their favorite leisure activity as the main purpose of a vacation over the past five years.

Second, the respondents were asked to indicate how frequently they take part in their favorite leisure activity during their vacations regardless of the primary purpose of their vacation. The most frequently reported response was less than half the time (29.4%,  $n = 93$ ) and next, 18.0% ( $n = 57$ ) answered they participate in their favorite leisure activity about half the time during vacations, followed closely by almost all of the time (17.4%,  $n = 55$ ). Those who

indicated most of the time were 13.6% ( $n = 43$ ) of the total, whereas 12.7% ( $n = 40$ ) do not participate in their leisure activity at all during vacations. Approximately nine percent (8.9%,  $n = 28$ ) reported they take part in their favorite leisure activity all of the time. Overall, 87.3% of the respondents reported taking part in their favorite leisure activity while on vacation irrespective of the overall purpose of the vacation at least half of the time to all of the time.

Third, the respondents were asked how much they think their favorite leisure activity influences their vacation type and activities. The majority of the respondents (66.2%,  $n = 208$ ) acknowledged its impact with the responses ranging from somewhat to extremely influential, but 33.8% ( $n = 106$ ) perceived that their favorite leisure activity was not influential at all.

Fourth, the respondents were asked how likely it is that their favorite leisure activity would be the main purpose of their vacation over the next five years. Almost half of them (45.2%,  $n = 142$ ) said they were likely to participate in their favorite leisure activity as the main purpose, whereas 43.0% ( $n = 135$ ) were unlikely to take part in their favorite leisure activity as the main purpose. Roughly one out of ten (11.8%,  $n = 37$ ) reported they are neither likely nor unlikely to participate in their favorite leisure activity as the main purpose of their vacation in the future.

Last, ANOVA was implemented to investigate the relationship between the level of leisure involvement and the likelihood of participating in the favorite leisure activity during vacation as their primary motivation. The upper 25 percent and the lower 25 percent were considered cutoff percentiles to produce three groups at different involvement levels (Zaichkowski, 1985): high involvement group (HI) (i.e., 84 respondents in the 75<sup>th</sup> percentile with scores ranging from 5.86 to 7.00), medium involvement group (MI) (i.e., 156 respondents the 26<sup>th</sup> - 74<sup>th</sup> percentile with scores ranging from 4.76 to 5.85) and low involvement group (LI) (i.e., 76 respondents the 25<sup>th</sup> percentile with scores ranging from 1.72 to 4.75). The results showed that the high, medium, and

low involvement groups had the significant difference in their likelihood of participating in their favorite leisure activity during vacation [ $F(2, 313) = 14.99, p = .00$ ]. The mean values of likelihood were in the predicted direction. At higher levels of involvement in a leisure activity, the more likely participants were to take part in this activity on vacation (HI,  $M = 4.83, SD = 2.09$ ; MI,  $M = 3.74, SD = 2.04$ ; LI,  $M = 3.09, SD = 2.04$ , on a scale of 1=very unlikely, 7=very likely). On the whole, as this research question 6 relates to only one favorite leisure activity, the likelihood of participating in it during vacation seems to be lower than for the broader sports categories.

### Levels of Leisure Involvement

- **Research question 4:** What are the levels of involvement in the favorite leisure activities of the respondents?

Almost the entire sample demonstrated a high level of involvement ( $M = 5.28, SD = .88$ ) in their favorite leisure activities in terms of the mean value rated using a 7 point Likert scale (1=strongly disagree, 2=disagree, 3=somewhat disagree, 4=neither, 5=somewhat agree, 6=agree, and 7=strongly agree). More specifically, of 18 leisure involvement items, the item with the strongest level of agreement was “I really enjoy my favorite leisure activity” ( $M = 6.33, SD = .92$ ). “My favorite leisure activity is pleasurable” was the next highest item ( $M = 6.14, SD = 1.01$ ), followed by “I enjoy discussing my favorite leisure activity with my friends or family” ( $M = 5.89, SD = 1.26$ ) and “my favorite leisure activity interests me a lot” ( $M = 5.87, SD = 1.10$ ). The respondents were less likely to agree with the items, “I find a lot of my life is organized around my favorite leisure activity” ( $M = 4.18, SD = 1.62$ ) and “most of my friends or family members are in some way connected to my favorite leisure activity” ( $M = 4.18, SD = 1.66$ ). Consistent with the levels for the individual involvement items, the *hedonic* component of five involvement factors was the highest-rated ( $M = 5.98, SD = .88$ ) and the *self-identity* factor was the next highest-rated ( $M =$

5.31,  $SD = 1.14$ ). The *social identity* domain ( $M = 5.09$ ,  $SD = 1.14$ ) and the *social* domain ( $M = 5.01$ ,  $SD = 1.19$ ) were rated similarly. The central component was represented by the lowest mean ( $M = 4.98$ ,  $SD = 1.14$ ), however, on a 7 point scale it is still moderately high.

### Levels of Leisure Habit

- **Research question 5:** What are the levels of habit associated with the favorite leisure activities of the respondents?

Of 10 leisure habit items (7 point Likert scale with 1=strongly disagree, 2=disagree, 3=somewhat disagree, 4=neither, 5=somewhat agree, 6=agree, and 7=strongly agree), “I have been taking part in this activity for a long time” showed the highest mean score ( $M = 5.83$ ,  $SD = 1.47$ ). The item with the next highest mean was “I take part in this activity frequently” ( $M = 5.46$ ,  $SD = 1.37$ ), followed by “I would find it hard not to take part in this activity” ( $M = 5.09$ ,  $SD = 1.58$ ) and “I do not need much of an effort to think about doing this activity” ( $M = 5.01$ ,  $SD = 1.75$ ). However, “I start doing this activity before I realize I am doing it” was the lowest-rated ( $M = 2.43$ ,  $SD = 1.56$ ). With regard to the three habit factors, the factor with the highest level of agreement was the *regular* factor ( $M = 5.29$ ,  $SD = 1.21$ ), followed by the *resistant* factor ( $M = 4.12$ ,  $SD = 1.39$ ) and the *automatic* component ( $M = 3.74$ ,  $SD = 1.33$ ).

### Levels of Vacation Motivation

- **Research question 6:** What are the levels of motivation associated with the favorite vacation activities of the respondents?

Of the 18 vacation motivation items (7 point Likert scale with 1=strongly disagree, 2=disagree, 3=somewhat disagree, 4=neither, 5=somewhat agree, 6=agree, and 7=strongly agree), “to relax mentally” ( $M = 5.79$ ,  $SD = 1.27$ ) was the most highly rated, followed closely by “to discover new things” ( $M = 5.77$ ,  $SD = 1.41$ ), “to have a good time with friends” ( $M = 5.63$ ,  $SD = 1.43$ ) and “to be active” ( $M = 5.59$ ,  $SD = 1.35$ ). On the contrary, the lowest rated motivation items were “to gain a feeling of belonging” ( $M = 3.98$ ,  $SD = 1.80$ ) and “to develop physical skills

and abilities” ( $M = 3.95$ ,  $SD = 1.79$ ). In terms of the four vacation motivation factors, the mean for the *intellectual* motivation factor ( $M = 5.32$ ,  $SD = 1.34$ ) was higher than those of the *relaxation* motivation factor ( $M = 5.18$ ,  $SD = 1.27$ ), the *socializing* motivation factor ( $M = 4.63$ ,  $SD = 1.29$ ) and of the *active/competence* motivation factor ( $M = 4.59$ ,  $SD = 1.42$ ).

### **Levels of Vacation Behavior**

- **Research question 7:** What are the patterns of vacation behavior related to the favorite vacation activities of the respondents?

Of 11 vacation behavior items (i.e., a 7 point Likert scale with 1=strongly disagree, 2=disagree, 3=somewhat disagree, 4=neither, 5=somewhat agree, 6=agree, and 7=strongly agree), the most strongly agreed item was “there is no doubt in my mind about taking part in my favorite vacation activity” ( $M = 5.92$ ,  $SD = 1.21$ ). The next highest mean was “the vacation trips that immediately come to mind are usually related to my favorite vacation activity” ( $M = 5.78$ ,  $SD = 1.28$ ), followed by “whenever I take a vacation, I am usually involved in my favorite vacation activity” ( $M = 5.37$ ,  $SD = 1.49$ ). However, the item, “I think it is frustrating to expend time and energy finding out about other activities instead of my favorite vacation activity” was the lowest-rated ( $M = 3.18$ ,  $SD = 1.55$ ). With respect to the two vacation behavior factors, the mean values of the vacation decision factor ( $M = 5.05$ ,  $SD = .98$ ) and the vacation participation factor ( $M = 5.01$ ,  $SD = 1.17$ ) were similar.

### **Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA)**

Prior to testing the measurement model and structural equation model of leisure involvement, leisure habit, vacation motivation and vacation behavior, a first order confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) of each construct was used to determine which variables should be included in the models based on good fits. However, structural equation models with a third order measurement model based on a second order CFA are so complicated that the current study

sample size ( $N = 316$ ) was deemed marginally acceptable to measure it. Therefore, the mean values of each factor for each construct were employed to test the SEM with a first order confirmatory factor analysis (i.e., measurement part). In this process, the mean values of each factor are treated as observed variables. Rather than using the second order model, many researchers have used this procedure to make their models simpler (e.g., Iwasaki & Havitz, 2004), even though the use of the mean values can hardly explain covariance between factors.

Originally the *hedonic* domain of leisure involvement was a factor explained by four observed variables (i.e., pleasurable, enjoyable, satisfying, and interest). However, for the SEM, the *hedonic* domain was treated as an observed indicator using the average score of the aforementioned four items. Likewise, the hedonic item, the social item, the social identity item, the self-identity item and the central item were regarded as observed indicators to account for leisure involvement in the SEM model.

Accordingly, the measurement process was broadly broken down into three stages. The first stage was to test the first order confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) of each construct (i.e., leisure involvement, leisure habit, vacation motivation, and vacation behavior). The second stage was to specify the measurement model, using observed variables treated as the mean values of items included in CFA models with good fits that were confirmed in the first stage. The last stage was to test the structural equation models so as to examine the causal relationship between the four latent variables (i.e., leisure involvement, leisure habit, vacation motivation, and vacation behavior).

### **Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA) of Leisure Involvement**

On the basis of the assumption that all of the errors are uncorrelated, the results of the CFA for the total 18 items revealed poor fit with unacceptable RMSEA (Satorra-Bentler Scaled Chi-Square  $\chi^2/df = 574.26/125 = 4.59$ ; RMSEA = 0.11 with CI, 0.098-0.12; SRMR = 0.08; NNFI =

0.97; CFI = 0.98; GFI = 0.98). During the model respecification process based upon the large standardized residuals and the modification indices, the researcher decided to correlate the errors. Subsequently, the model was respecified with the following two correlated errors: 1) the correlated errors between the item, “I really enjoy my favorite leisure activity” and the item, “my favorite leisure activity is pleasurable” in the *hedonic* factor and 2) the correlated errors between the item, “most of my friends or family members are in some way connected with my favorite leisure activity” and the item, “my favorite leisure activity provides the chance to socialize with my friends or family” in the *social* factor. The use of correlated errors must be supported by a substantive rationale (Byrne, 1998). In this case, because the meanings of the two items, *pleasurable feelings* and *enjoyable feelings* are more similar within the hedonic factor than the meanings of the other items, “my favorite leisure activity interests me a lot” and “participating in my favorite leisure activity is one of the most satisfying things that I do,” the errors of the former two items were correlated. From this perspective, the correlated errors are reasonable. That is, as pleasurable feelings and enjoyable feelings enhance each other, and socializing and connection are positively related, these respecifications are underpinned by a logical and empirical rationale and so the use of correlated errors is reasonable.

The final CFA model with the two correlated errors had no negative variances or non-positive definite covariance and thus, revealed an acceptable fit (Satorra-Bentler Scaled Chi-Square  $\chi^2/df = 444.89/123 = 3.62$ ; RMSEA = 0.09 with CI, 0.08-0.10; SRMR = 0.07; NNFI = 0.98; CFI = 0.98; GFI = 0.98) (Bentler, 1992; Browne & Cudeck, 1992a, 1992b; MacCallum, Browne, & Sugawara, 1996). The significance of chi-square ( $\chi^2$ ) can be influenced by a large sample size and any non-saturated model should be rejected (Kline, 2005) (Table 4-4).

In terms of reliability, Cronbach's alphas ( $\alpha$ ) showed that all factors had good internal consistency (*Social*,  $\alpha = .67$ , *Self-Identity*,  $\alpha = .83$ , *Social Identity*,  $\alpha = .78$ , *Hedonic*,  $\alpha = .83$ , *Central*,  $\alpha = .86$ ) (Cortina, 1993). Composite reliability (CR) also had acceptable values (*Social* = .66, *Self-Identity* = .86, *Social Identity* = .81, *Hedonic* = .85, *Central* = .88) (Bagozzi & Yi, 1988). Regarding convergent validity, all of the factor loadings of the corresponding items on the latent variables were statistically significant (i.e., t-statistics > 1.96 at a significance level of  $p < 0.05$ ) ranging from 0.51 to 0.90. Furthermore, the Average Variance Extracted (AVE) ranged from 0.41 to 0.75 (*Social* = .41, *Self-Identity* = .68, *Social Identity* = .70, *Hedonic* = .75, *Central* = .75). The *social* domain appears lower than other domains in its convergent validity (Table 4-5). In terms of discriminant validity, the correlations among the observed variables were not greater than 0.85, ranging from 0.17 to 0.78. This model is portrayed in Figure 4-2.

### **Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA) of Leisure Habit**

The initial CFA model with all 10 items of leisure habit had a poor fit (Satorra-Bentler Scaled Chi-Square  $\chi^2/df = 208.81/32 = 6.53$ ; RMSEA = 0.13 with CI, 0.12-0.15; SRMR = 0.09; NNFI = 0.94; CFI = 0.96; GFI = 0.96). The model misfit was diagnosed by the largest standardized residuals, modification indices, expected changes and low factor loadings. In the respecified model, the item, "I have been taking part in this leisure activity for a long time" was deleted and further the errors between the item, "I take part in this leisure activity frequently" and the item, "I would find it hard not to take part in this leisure activity" were correlated according to a logical rationale (Bamberg, Rolle, & Weber, 2003). However, after the item, "I have been taking part in this leisure activity for a long time" was removed, the standardized factor loading of the item, "this leisure activity is part of my routine" was greater than 1.00 (i.e., negative theta-delta that is known as a Heywood case). To solve this matter, the error variance

was constrained to .05 (Hair et al., 2003). Therefore, one item was deleted, the errors were correlated, and the error variance was constrained to a very small positive value in the final CFA model in which model fit was good (Satorra-Bentler Scaled Chi-Square  $\chi^2/df = 80.47/24 = 0.00$ ; RMSEA = 0.086 with CI, 0.066-0.11; SRMR = 0.06; NNFI = 0.98; CFI = 0.99; GFI = 0.99) (Table 4-4).

The three leisure habit factors had satisfactory reliability and validity. Cronbach's alphas ( $\alpha$ ) of the three factors ranged from 0.71 to 0.72 (*Automatic*,  $\alpha = .72$ , *Resistant*,  $\alpha = .71$ , *Regular*,  $\alpha = .79$ ). Composite reliability (CR) was slightly higher than Cronbach's alphas, ranging from 0.76 to 0.86 (*Automatic* = .77, *Resistant* = .76, *Regular* = .86). All of the factor loadings ranged from .53 to .98, all of which were greater than t-statistics of 1.96 at a significance level of  $p < 0.05$ . The AVE ranged from 0.46 to 0.76 (*Automatic* = .46, *Resistant* = .51, *Regular* = .76) (Table 4-6). The correlations between the items ranged from 0.14 to 0.75, all of which were less than 0.85, satisfactory in terms of discriminant validity. Figure 4-3 depicts this leisure habit model.

### **Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA) of Vacation Motivation**

The total number of vacation motivation items was 18. The initial model including all of these items gained an acceptable fit (Satorra-Bentler Scaled Chi-Square  $\chi^2/df = 499.98/129 = 0.00$ ; RMSEA = 0.096 with CI, 0.087-0.10; SRMR = 0.077; NNFI = 0.97; CFI = 0.98; GFI = 0.98). However, one item ("to keep in shape physically") showed values exceeding 0.85 with other items in the correlation matrix and the other item ("to be active") had the largest standardized residuals. Accordingly, these two items were omitted from the model in order to increase reliability and validity. Thus, the final CFA model showed a better fit (Satorra-Bentler

Scaled Chi-Square  $\chi^2/df = 314.78/98 = 0.00$ ; RMSEA = 0.084 with CI, 0.074-0.094; SRMR = 0.066; NNFI = 0.99; CFI = 0.99; GFI = 0.99) (Table 4-4).

After the two observed variables were deleted in the active/competence domain, the domain name was changed to “physical.” The four vacation motivation factors showed good reliability in both Cronbach’s alphas (*Social*  $\alpha = .84$ , *Physical*  $\alpha = .87$ , *Relaxation*  $\alpha = .79$ , *Intellectual*  $\alpha = .87$ ) and composite reliability (*Social* = .88, *Physical* = .91, *Relaxation* = .85, *Intellectual* = .91). For convergent validity, the factor loadings on the four latent variables ranged from 0.65 to 0.93 with all the significant t-statistics greater than 1.96 at a significance level of  $p < 0.05$ . The Average Variance Extracted (AVE) was also good, ranging from 0.59 to 0.78 (*Social* = .59, *Physical* = .78, *Relaxation* = .59, *Intellectual* = .72) (Table 4-7). Discriminant validity was obtained as all variables in the correlation matrix were less than 0.85, ranging from -0.13 to 0.83. However the intellectual latent variable was not significantly correlated with the other latent variables of vacation motivation. Figure 4-4 represented this vacation motivation model.

### **Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA) of Vacation Behavior**

The initial fit of the vacation behavior CFA model consisting of 11 items was not good (Satorra-Bentler Scaled Chi-Square  $\chi^2/df = 459.94/43 = 0.00$ ; RMSEA = 0.18 with CI, 0.16-0.19; SRMR = 0.13; NNFI = 0.87; CFI = 0.90; GFI = 0.90). One item (“I think it is frustrating to expend time and energy finding out about other activities instead of my favorite vacation activity”) of this model had a low factor loading ( $\lambda = 0.33$ ) on the vacation decision factor. In addition, another vacation decision item (“I attempt to find detailed information about taking part in my favorite vacation activity”) had high correlations with other items exceeding 0.85. In terms of standardized residuals, two items (“I usually expend effort finding out which place is the best to take part in my favorite vacation activity” and “I attempt to find detailed information about

taking part in my favorite vacation activity”) had an extremely high standardized residual ( $\delta = 82.63$ ).

Considering all these causes of misfit, several items were deleted. Only six items remained for the final model: four items for the vacation participation factor and two items for the vacation decision factor. Besides the deletion of five items, the errors between two items (“I spend an adequate amount of vacation to take part in my favorite vacation activity each year” and “I schedule vacations related to my favorite vacation activity regularly”) were correlated. The two aforementioned items were more closely related to each other in terms of a regular vacation schedule as compared to the other two items, “whenever I take a vacation, I am usually involved in my favorite vacation activity” and “whenever I take a vacation, I usually take the chance to improve my favorite vacation activity.” From this perspective, the correlated errors were reasonable and supported by a substantive rationale.

The final CFA vacation behavior model showed a good fit (Satorra-Bentler Scaled Chi-Square  $\chi^2/df = 23.81/7 = 0.00$ ; RMSEA = 0.087 with CI, 0.051-0.13; SRMR = 0.044; NNFI = 0.99; CFI = 1.00; GFI = 0.99) (Table 4-3). Cronbach’s alphas ( $\alpha$ ) for the participation factor and the decision factor were .83 and .81, respectively. The participation behavior factor and the decision behavior factor had composite reliabilities of 0.81 and 0.73. For convergent validity, all of the factor loadings were significant, ranging from 0.64 to 0.92. The respective AVE of the participation behavior and the decision behavior factors were 0.56 and 0.68, indicating satisfactory convergent validity (Table 4-8). Discriminant validity was also obtained with correlations ranging from 0.39 to 0.72, all below 0.85. This vacation behavior model is shown in Figure 4-5.

### **Measurement Portion of Structural Equation Modeling (SEM)**

On the basis of each model with good fits, the mean values of each factor were generated and constituted the new observed variables for structural equation modeling. Consequently, the initial measurement model of SEM consisted of 14 observed variables (i.e., social, self-identity, social identity, hedonic, central, automatic, resistant, regular, socializing, physical, relaxation, intellectual, participation, and decision) and four latent variables (i.e., leisure involvement, leisure habit, vacation motivation, and vacation behavior).

However, this initial measurement model failed to obtain a good fit (Minimum Fit Function Chi-Square  $\chi^2/df = 272.31/71 = 0.00$ ; RMSEA = 0.093 with CI, 0.081-0.10; SRMR = 0.072; NNFI = 0.84; CFI= 0.87; GFI = 0.89). The social item of leisure involvement revealed not only a relatively low factor loading ( $\lambda = 0.46$ ) on the leisure involvement latent variable when compared to other variables such as the self-identity item ( $\lambda = 0.88$ ), the social identity item ( $\lambda = 0.75$ ), the hedonic item ( $\lambda = 0.72$ ) and the central item ( $\lambda = 0.89$ ), but also a large residual covariance with other observed variables such as socializing and hedonic. Subsequently this resulted in large modification indices. These results were consistent with the outcomes that appeared in the first order CFA of leisure involvement.

With a purpose of respecifying this measurement model, the social item was removed and the errors between the central indicator and the regular indicator and between the self-identity indicator and the social identity indicator were correlated. These correlated errors are corroborated by logical and empirical rationales. The more routine and frequent participation in leisure activity is, the more central the role of leisure activity in life (Havitz & Mannell, 2005; Kim et al., 1997). Moreover, self-identity and social identity may reinforce each other even though these items constitute different forms of identity (Thoits & Virshup, 1997). This final

measurement model reported an acceptable fit (Minimum Fit Function Chi-Square  $\chi^2/df = 156.52/57 = 0.00$ ; RMSEA = 0.074 with CI, 0.060-0.088; SRMR = 0.070; NNFI = 0.91; CFI = 0.93; GFI = 0.93) (Table 4-9).

With respect to reliability, the Cronbach's alphas of each latent variable showed good internal consistency (i.e., leisure involvement,  $\alpha = .88$ ; leisure habit,  $\alpha = .78$ ; vacation behavior,  $\alpha = .74$ ) except vacation motivation ( $\alpha = .42$ ) and similarly composite reliability (CR) for each factor was satisfactory (i.e., leisure involvement = .87; leisure habit = .78; vacation behavior = .75), again with the exception of vacation motivation (.46). As vacation motivation consists of four different components to explain various internal push factors to travel, the four components may not be strongly correlated with each other. In the aforementioned CFA model of vacation motivation, the socializing factor, the physical factor and the relaxation factor were significantly correlated with each other, but the intellectual factor was not significantly correlated with the other three factors. Consistent with the CFA model, the intellectual item in the measurement model of the SEM had a low factor loading on the vacation motivation latent variable, thereby resulting in low reliability for vacation motivation (socializing,  $\lambda = 0.57$ ; physical,  $\lambda = 0.31$ ; relaxation,  $\lambda = 0.49$ ; intellectual,  $\lambda = 0.29$ ).

Nevertheless, low factor loadings, reliability and validity do not mean that the item is not valuable in measuring the factor, however it does mean that to a certain extent, this motivation item is distant from other motivation items loaded on a factor in this case the intellectual motivation was much higher than other motivational factors. Moreover, being distinct from involvement, habit, and behavior, vacation motives may be diverse and so a wide range of factor loadings may be evident from very low to very high. Accordingly, because all of these

motivation items were, albeit uncorrelated, significant in their factor loadings, all four of the vacation motivation items were employed in the structural equation model.

In terms of convergent validity, all of the factor loadings on leisure involvement, habit and vacation behavior latent variables were significant, ranging from 0.60 to 0.90. The AVE of leisure involvement, leisure habit, vacation motivation and vacation behavior were 0.63, 0.55, 0.19 and 0.60, respectively (Table 4-10). Discriminant validity was satisfactory with correlations ranging from -0.16 to 0.78. Figure 4-6 portrays this model.

### **Structural Portion of Structural Equation Modeling (SEM)**

#### **Model A**

A structural equation model based on the measurement model of active leisure and vacations was tested. This hypothesized SEM model was a full model, a so-called just-identified model (i.e., Model A) and thereby the goodness-fit-indices were exactly the same as the measurement model (Minimum Fit Function Chi-Square  $\chi^2/df = 156.52/57 = 0.00$ ; RMSEA = 0.074 with CI, 0.060-0.088; SRMR = 0.070; NNFI = 0.91; CFI = 0.93; GFI = 0.93) (Table 4-9). However, distinct from the measurement model, direct and indirect effects between latent variables were identified (Table 4-11).

In terms of the results of the hypothesis testing, Hypothesis 1 (i.e., involvement with active leisure and habit associated with active leisure are correlated) was corroborated by a significant positive correlation between leisure involvement and leisure habit (Phi,  $\phi = 0.57$ ). Hypothesis 2 (i.e., involvement with active leisure has a direct influence on vacation motivation) was corroborated with a significant positive direct effect (Gamma,  $\gamma = 0.26$ ). Hypothesis 3 (i.e., habit associated with active leisure has a direct influence on vacation motivation) was upheld with a significant positive direct effect (Gamma,  $\gamma = 0.22$ ). Hypothesis 4 (i.e., involvement with active

leisure has a direct and indirect influence on active vacation behavior) was partially supported whereby the direct effect was significant, whereas the indirect effect was not significant (direct = 0.18; indirect = 0.07; total = 0.25). Hypothesis 5 (i.e., habit associated with active leisure has a direct and indirect influence on active vacation behavior) was not supported by the results with both non-significant direct and indirect effects (direct = 0.01; indirect = 0.06; total = 0.07). Hypothesis 6 (i.e., vacation motivation has a direct influence on active vacation behavior) was verified by a significant positive direct effect (Beta,  $\beta = 0.25$ ). These results are presented in Table 4-11 and Figure 4-7.

### **Model B**

With the elimination of hypothesis 4 that was not supported by the results of Model A, a competing model, Model B nested in Model A was tested. Leisure habit is mediated by vacation motivation in order to reach vacation behavior in this model. The RMSEA of Model B was slightly better than for Model A, but the results of other indices were exactly the same (Minimum Fit Function Chi-Square  $\chi^2/df = 156.54/58 = 0.00$ ; RMSEA = 0.073 with CI, 0.059-0.087; SRMR = 0.070; NNFI = 0.91; CFI = 0.93; GFI = 0.93). Moreover, the relationship between the latent variables was not dissimilar. The correlation between involvement with active leisure and active leisure habit was the same as that of Model A (Phi,  $\phi = 0.57$ ). The direct effect of involvement with active leisure on vacation motivation was the same as that of Model A, as well (Gamma,  $\gamma = 0.26$ ). The direct effect of habit associated with active leisure on vacation motivation was also exactly the same as Model A (Gamma,  $\gamma = 0.22$ ). The direct effect of vacation motivation on active vacation behavior was identical (Beta,  $\beta = 0.25$ ). However, the direct effect of involvement with active leisure on active vacation behavior increased slightly but

the indirect impact of leisure involvement on vacation behavior was not significant (direct = 0.19; indirect = 0.07; total = 0.26). Table 4-11 and Figure 4-8 present these results.

### **Model C**

Therefore, the other competing model, Model C with the removal of hypotheses 4 and 5 that were not supported by the results was tested, which was nested in Model A and B. As a result, Model C had a good fit, albeit with a slightly higher RMSEA (Minimum Fit Function Chi-Square  $\chi^2/df = 160.12/59 = 0.00$ ; RMSEA = 0.075 with CI, 0.061-0.088; SRMR = 0.070; NNFI = 0.91; CFI= 0.93; GFI = 0.93). Leisure involvement and leisure habit were mediated through vacation motivation before reaching vacation behavior in this model. In terms of the causal relationship between the latent variables, the correlation between involvement with active leisure and active leisure habit remained constant (Phi,  $\phi = 0.57$ ) in Model A, B, and C. However, the direct influence of leisure involvement on vacation motivation became much stronger (Gamma,  $\gamma = 0.34$ ), whereas the direct influence of leisure habit on vacation motivation remained steady (Gamma,  $\gamma = 0.22$ ). The direct influence of vacation motivation on vacation behavior surged (Beta,  $\beta = 0.45$ ). The significant positive indirect effects of leisure involvement (indirect = 0.15; total = 0.15) and leisure habit (indirect = 0.10; total = 0.10) on vacation behavior being mediated through vacation motivation were newly identified, which was not present in Model A and Model B. These results are demonstrated in Table 4-10 and Figure 4-9.

### **Model Comparisons**

To identify the best model among Model A, Model B, and Model C with a statistical significance, the chi-squares and degrees of freedom of those models were compared. In the comparison between Model A and Model B, the null hypothesis was “Model B fits the data ( $H_1$ )” and the alternative hypothesis was “Model A fits the data ( $H_2$ ).” The model comparison test was

computed using  $\chi_{12}^2 = (\chi_1^2 - \chi_2^2) = 0.02$  and  $df_1 - df_2 = 1$ . The result was  $\chi^2(1) = 0.02, p > 0.05$ .

Since  $p$  was larger than 0.05, the null hypothesis was not rejected. Model A was rejected against Model B.

To compare between Model A and Model C, the null hypothesis (i.e., “Model C fits the data”) and the alternative hypothesis (i.e., “Model A fits the data”) were established. The model comparison test statistic was  $\chi_{12}^2 = (\chi_1^2 - \chi_2^2) = 3.60$  and  $df_1 - df_2 = 1$ . The result showed  $\chi^2(1) = 3.60, p > 0.05$ . As the  $p$ -value was greater than 0.05, the null hypothesis was not rejected, which means Model C fits better than Model A.

In the comparison between Model B and Model C, “Model C fits the data ( $H_1$ )” was the null hypothesis, whereas “Model B fits the data ( $H_2$ )” was offered as the alternative hypothesis. The model comparison test statistic was  $\chi_{12}^2 = (\chi_1^2 - \chi_2^2) = 3.58$  and  $df_1 - df_2 = 1$ , thereby resulting in  $\chi^2(1) = 3.58, p > 0.05$ . Model B was rejected in favor of Model C. Accordingly, Model C was ultimately determined as the best-fit model.

Table 4-1. Favorite leisure activities and favorite vacation activities

Category	Activities
• Leisure	
Outdoor-related sports	Walking, running, hiking, trekking, orienteering, bicycling, mountain biking, road biking, horseback riding, hunting, camping, and other active outdoor recreation activities.
Water-related sports	Swimming, diving, scuba diving, water skiing, whitewater rafting, boating, kayaking, canoeing, rowing, pontooning, sailing, fishing, and other water activities
Fitness	Exercise, working out, weight training, lifting, dancing, aerobics, karate, Pilates, and martial arts
Golf/ski	Golfing and skiing
Team sports	Football, soccer, baseball, softball, racquetball, volleyball, tennis, fencing, and hockey
Others	Auto racing, motor cycle riding, off-roading, and flying aerobatics
• Vacation	
Outdoor-related sports	Adventure activities, bicycling, mountain biking, camping, walking, hiking, horseback riding, hunting, and other active outdoor recreation
Water-related sports	Swimming, surfing, diving, snorkeling, whitewater rafting, canoeing, kayaking, boating, fishing, cruising, sailing, and other water/beach activities
Fitness	Dancing and other sports
Golf/ski	Golfing and skiing
Team sports	Softball and Ultimate Frisbee
Others	Driving a car
Visiting family and friends	Golfing, tennis, hiking, walking, camping, skiing, swimming, water sports, outdoor-related sports, etc

Table 4-2. Categories of the different types of favorite leisure and vacation activities

Types of activities	Frequency	Valid percent
• Leisure		
Outdoor-related sports	114	36.1
Water-related sports	56	17.7
Fitness	53	16.8
Golf/ski	50	15.8
Team sports	34	10.8
Others	9	2.8
Total	316	100.0
• Vacation		
Outdoor-related sports		
Sport tourism	58	42.4
Tourism sport	79	57.6
Total	137	43.4
Water-related sports		
Sport tourism	71	87.4
Tourism sport	11	12.6
Total	82	25.9
Fitness		
Sport tourism	3	50.0
Tourism sport	3	50.0
Total	6	1.9
Golf/ski		
Sport tourism	47	77.1
Tourism sport	14	22.9
Total	61	19.3
Team sports		
Sport tourism	2	100.0
Tourism sport	0	0.0
Total	2	0.6
Others		
Sport tourism	2	100.0
Tourism sport	0	0.0
Total	2	0.6
Visiting family and friends		
Sport tourism	0	0.0
Tourism sport	26	100.0
Total	26	8.2

Table 4-3. Similarity between leisure categories and vacation categories

Leisure category	Vacation category	Frequency	Valid percent
Outdoor-related sports	Outdoor-related sports	78	68.4
	Water-related sports	16	14.0
	Fitness	0	0.0
	Golf/ski	9	7.9
	Team sports	1	0.9
	Other	0	0.0
	Visiting family and friends	10	8.8
	Total	114	100.0
Water-related sports	Outdoor-related sports	10	17.9
	Water-related sports	36	64.3
	Fitness	2	3.6
	Golf/ski	4	7.1
	Team sports	0	0.0
	Other	0	0.0
	Visiting family and friends	4	7.1
	Total	56	100.0
Fitness	Outdoor-related sports	27	50.9
	Water-related sports	13	24.5
	Fitness	3	5.7
	Golf/ski	7	13.2
	Team sports	0	0.0
	Other	0	0.0
	Visiting family and friends	3	5.7
	Total	53	100.0
Golf/ski	Outdoor-related sports	5	10.0
	Water-related sports	8	16.0
	Fitness	0	0.0
	Golf/ski	30	60.0
	Team sports	0	0.0
	Other	0	0.0
	Visiting family and friends	7	14.0
	Total	50	100.0
Team sports	Outdoor-related sports	14	41.2
	Water-related sports	6	17.6
	Fitness	1	2.9
	Golf/ski	9	26.5
	Team sports	1	2.9
	Other	1	2.9
	Visiting family and friends	2	5.9
	Total	34	100.0
Other	Outdoor-related sports	3	33.3
	Water-related sports	3	33.3

Table 4-3. Continued

Leisure category	Vacation category	Frequency	Valid percent
Other	Fitness	0	0.0
	Golf/ski	2	22.2
	Team sports	0	0.0
	Other	1	11.1
	Visiting family and friends	0	0.0
	Total	9	100.0

Table 4-4. Goodness fit indices for each construct

CFA model	$\chi^2/df$	RMSEA	RMSEA CI	SRMR	NNFI	CFI	GFI
Leisure involvement							
Original	574.26/125	0.11	0.098-0.12	0.08	0.97	0.98	0.98
Respecified	444.89/123	0.09	0.08-0.10	0.07	0.98	0.98	0.98
Leisure habit							
Original	208.81/32	0.13	0.12-0.15	0.09	0.94	0.96	0.96
Respecified	80.47/24	0.086	0.066-0.11	0.06	0.98	0.99	0.99
Vacation motivation							
Original	499.98/129	0.096	0.087-0.10	0.077	0.97	0.98	0.98
Respecified	314.78/98	0.084	0.074-0.094	0.066	0.99	0.99	0.99
Vacation behavior							
Original	459.94/43	0.18	0.16-0.19	0.13	0.87	0.90	0.90
Respecified	23.81/7	0.087	0.051-0.13	0.044	0.99	1.00	0.99

Note.  $\chi^2$  = chi square test statistic;  $df$  = degree of freedom; RMSEA = root-mean square-error of approximation; CI = 90% confidence interval; SRMR = standardized root mean square residual; NNFI = non-normed fit index; CFI = comparative fit index; GFI = goodness of fit index

Table 4-5. Reliability and validity of the leisure involvement CFA model

Factors and items	Mean	SD	$\lambda$	$\alpha$	CR	AVE
Social				.67	.66	.41
I enjoy discussing my favorite leisure activity with my friends or family	5.89	1.26	.79*			
Most of my friends or family members are in some way connected to my favorite leisure activity	4.18	1.66	.51*			
My favorite leisure activity provides the chance to socialize with my friends or family	4.95	1.68	.57*			
Self-identity				.83	.86	.68
Participation in my favorite leisure activity says something about me	5.82	1.15	.77*			
My favorite leisure activity reflects who I am	4.96	1.39	.79*			
My favorite leisure activity is an important part of who I am	5.16	1.42	.90*			
Social identity				.78	.81	.70
Other people see an important side of me when I participate in my favorite leisure activity	5.10	1.45	.88*			
I can tell things about other people by seeing them participating in their favorite leisure activity	4.88	1.45	.78*			
When I participate in my favorite leisure activity, others see me the way I want them to see me	5.30	1.21	.63*			
Hedonic				.83	.85	.75
I really enjoy my favorite leisure activity	6.33	.92	.88*			
Participating in my favorite leisure activity is one of the most satisfying things that I do	5.57	1.30	.76*			
My favorite leisure activity is pleasurable	6.14	1.01	.59*			
My favorite leisure activity interests me a lot	5.87	1.10	.86*			
Central				.86	.88	.75
My favorite leisure activity has a central role in my life	5.13	1.48	.82*			
My favorite leisure activity reflects my lifestyle	5.45	1.28	.75*			
I attach great importance to my favorite leisure activity	5.24	1.38	.82*			
I would rather do my favorite leisure activity than do most anything else	4.91	1.47	.71*			
I find a lot of my life is organized around my favorite leisure activity	4.18	1.62	.74*			

Note. \* = t-statistic (> 1.96) at a significance level of  $p < 0.05$ ;  $\lambda$  = factor loadings;  $\alpha$  = Cronbach's alpha coefficients; CR = composite reliability; AVE = average variance extracted

Table 4-6. Reliability and validity of the leisure habit CFA model

Factors and items	Mean	SD	$\lambda$	$\alpha$	CR	AVE
Automatic				.72	.77	.46
I start doing this activity before I realize I am doing it	2.43	1.56	.62*			
I do not need much of an effort to think about doing this activity	5.01	1.75	.53*			
I do this activity without much thinking	3.88	1.93	.74*			
I do this activity without having to consciously remember it	3.65	1.99	.77*			
Resistant				.71	.76	.51
I feel strange if I do not participate in this activity	3.98	1.89	.73*			
This activity would require effort not to do it	3.30	1.77	.76*			
I would find it hard not to take part in this activity	5.09	1.58	.65*			
Regular				.79	.86	.76
This activity is part of my routine	4.57	1.82	.98*			
I take part in this activity frequently	5.47	1.37	.72*			

Note. \* = t-statistic (> 1.96) at a significance level of  $p < 0.05$ ;  $\lambda$  = factor loadings;  $\alpha$  = Cronbach's alpha coefficients; CR = composite reliability; AVE = average variance extracted

Table 4-7. Reliability and validity of the vacation motivation CFA model

Factors and items	Mean	SD	$\lambda$	$\alpha$	CR	AVE
Socializing				.84	.88	.59
To build friendships with others	4.08	1.79	.83*			
To interact with others	5.04	1.49	.78*			
To have a good time with friends	5.63	1.43	.69*			
To develop close friendships	4.47	1.73	.87*			
To gain a feeling of belonging	3.95	1.79	.65*			
Physical				.87	.91	.78
To develop physical skills and abilities	3.98	1.80	.84*			
To develop physical fitness	4.45	1.65	.87*			
To use my physical abilities	4.59	1.72	.93*			
Relaxation				.79	.85	.59
To rest	4.54	1.81	.79*			
To relax mentally	5.79	1.27	.79*			
To avoid the hustle and bustle of daily activities	5.47	1.62	.66*			
To relax physically	4.92	1.75	.81*			
Intellectual				.87	.91	.72
To learn about things around me	5.25	1.61	.84*			
To discover new things	5.77	1.41	.85*			
To expand my knowledge	5.28	1.60	.90*			
To explore new ideas	4.97	1.60	.81*			

Note. \* = t-statistic (> 1.96) at a significance level of  $p < 0.05$ ;  $\lambda$  = factor loadings;  $\alpha$  = Cronbach's alpha coefficients; CR = composite reliability; AVE = average variance extracted

Table 4-8. Reliability and validity of the vacation behavior CFA model

Factors and items	Mean	SD	$\lambda$	$\alpha$	CR	AVE
Participation				.83	.81	.56
I spend an adequate amount of vacation to take part in my favorite vacation activity each year	5.10	1.67	.67*			
I schedule vacations related to my favorite vacation activity regularly	5.06	1.57	.64*			
Whenever I take a vacation, I am usually involved in my favorite vacation activity	5.37	1.49	.92*			
Whenever I take a vacation, I usually take the chance to improve my favorite vacation activity	5.00	1.50	.72*			
Decision				.81	.73	.68
The trips that immediately come to mind are usually related to my favorite vacation activity	5.78	1.28	.84*			
There is no doubt in my mind about taking part in my favorite vacation activity	5.92	1.21	.81*			

Note. \* = t-statistic (> 1.96) at a significance level of  $p < 0.05$ ;  $\lambda$  = factor loadings;  $\alpha$  = Cronbach's alpha coefficients; CR = composite reliability; AVE = average variance extracted

Table 4-9. Goodness fit indices for the measurement model and structural equation models

Model	$\chi^2/df$	RMSEA	RMSEA CI	SRMR	NNFI	CFI	GFI
Measurement	154.38/57	0.074	0.060-0.088	0.070	0.91	0.93	0.93
SEM model A	156.52/57	0.074	0.060-0.088	0.070	0.91	0.93	0.93
SEM model B	156.54/58	0.073	0.059-0.087	0.070	0.91	0.93	0.93
SEM model C	160.12/59	0.075	0.061-0.088	0.070	0.91	0.93	0.93

Note.  $\chi^2$  = chi square test statistic;  $df$  = degree of freedom; RMSEA = root-mean square-error of approximation; CI = 90% confidence interval; SRMR = standardized root mean square residual; NNFI = non-normed fit index; CFI = comparative fit index; GFI = goodness of fit index

Table 4-10. Reliability and validity of the measurement model

Latent variables and observed variables	N	Mean <sup>a</sup>	SD	$\lambda$	$\alpha$	CR	AVE
Leisure involvement					.88	.87	.63
Hedonic	316	5.98	.88	.71*			
Central	316	4.98	1.14	.91*			
Social identity	316	5.09	1.14	.69*			
Self-identity	316	5.31	1.14	.86*			
Leisure habit					.78	.78	.55
Regular	316	5.02	1.46	.63*			
Automatic	316	3.74	1.33	.60*			
Resistant	316	4.12	1.39	.95*			
Vacation motivation					.42	.46	.19
Socializing	316	4.63	1.29	.57*			
Physical	316	4.34	1.56	.31*			
Relaxation	316	5.18	1.27	.49*			
Intellectual	316	5.32	1.34	.29*			
Vacation behavior					.74	.75	.60
Participation	316	5.13	1.25	.75*			
Decision	316	5.85	1.10	.80*			

Note. <sup>a</sup> = 7 point Likert scale (1=strongly disagree, 2=disagree, 3=somewhat disagree, 4=neither, 5=somewhat agree, 6=agree, 7=strongly agree); \* = t-statistic (>1.96) a significance level of  $p < 0.05$ ;  $\lambda$  = factor loadings;  $\alpha$  = Cronbach's alpha coefficients; CR = composite reliability; AVE = average variance extracted

Table 4-11. Direct, indirect, and total effects of the structural equation model

Causal relationship between latent variables	Direct	Indirect	Total
<b>Model A</b>			
Involvement (KSI, $\xi$ ) $\leftrightarrow$ Habit (KSI, $\xi$ )	0.57*		
Involvement (KSI, $\xi$ ) $\rightarrow$ Motivation (ETA, $\eta$ )	0.26*		
Involvement (KSI, $\xi$ ) $\rightarrow$ Behavior (ETA, $\eta$ )	0.18*	0.07	0.25*
Habit (KSI, $\xi$ ) $\rightarrow$ Motivation (ETA, $\eta$ )	0.22*		
Habit (KSI, $\xi$ ) $\rightarrow$ Behavior (ETA, $\eta$ )	0.01	0.06	0.07
Motivation (ETA, $\eta$ ) $\rightarrow$ Behavior (ETA, $\eta$ )	0.25*		
<b>Model B</b>			
Involvement (KSI, $\xi$ ) $\leftrightarrow$ Habit (KSI, $\xi$ )	0.57*		
Involvement (KSI, $\xi$ ) $\rightarrow$ Motivation (ETA, $\eta$ )	0.26*		
Involvement (KSI, $\xi$ ) $\rightarrow$ Behavior (ETA, $\eta$ )	0.19*	0.07	0.26*
Habit (KSI, $\xi$ ) $\rightarrow$ Motivation (ETA, $\eta$ )	0.22*		
Habit (KSI, $\xi$ ) $\rightarrow$ Behavior (ETA, $\eta$ )		0.06	0.06
Motivation (ETA, $\eta$ ) $\rightarrow$ Behavior (ETA, $\eta$ )	0.25*		
<b>Model C</b>			
Involvement (KSI, $\xi$ ) $\leftrightarrow$ Habit (KSI, $\xi$ )	0.57*		
Involvement (KSI, $\xi$ ) $\rightarrow$ Motivation (ETA, $\eta$ )	0.34*		
Involvement (KSI, $\xi$ ) $\rightarrow$ Behavior (ETA, $\eta$ )		0.15*	0.15*
Habit (KSI, $\xi$ ) $\rightarrow$ Motivation (ETA, $\eta$ )	0.22*		
Habit (KSI, $\xi$ ) $\rightarrow$ Behavior (ETA, $\eta$ )		0.10*	0.10*
Motivation (ETA, $\eta$ ) $\rightarrow$ Behavior (ETA, $\eta$ )	0.45*		

Note. \* = t-statistic (>1.96) at a significance level of  $p < 0.05$ ; KSI ( $\xi$ ) = exogenous variable; ETA ( $\eta$ ) = endogenous variable

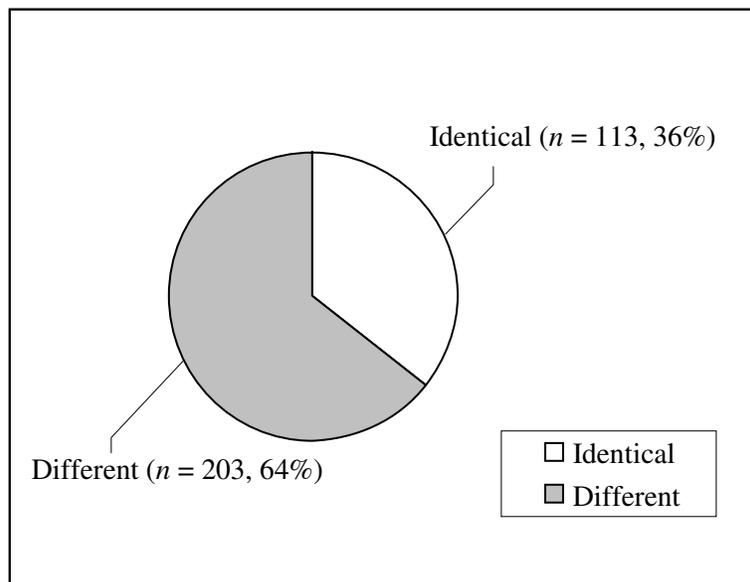


Figure 4-1. Similarity between favorite leisure and vacation activities

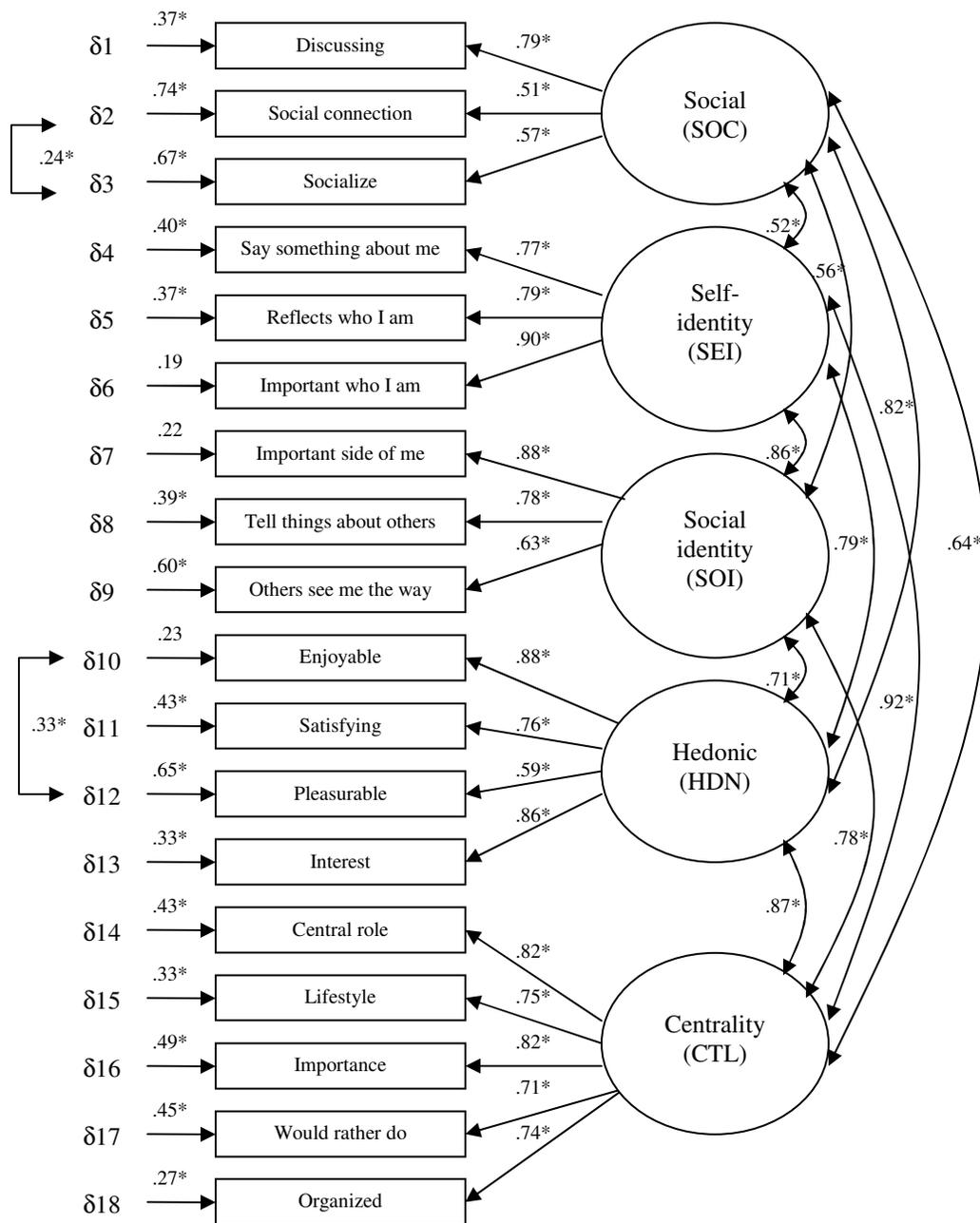


Figure 4-2. First-order CFA model of leisure involvement

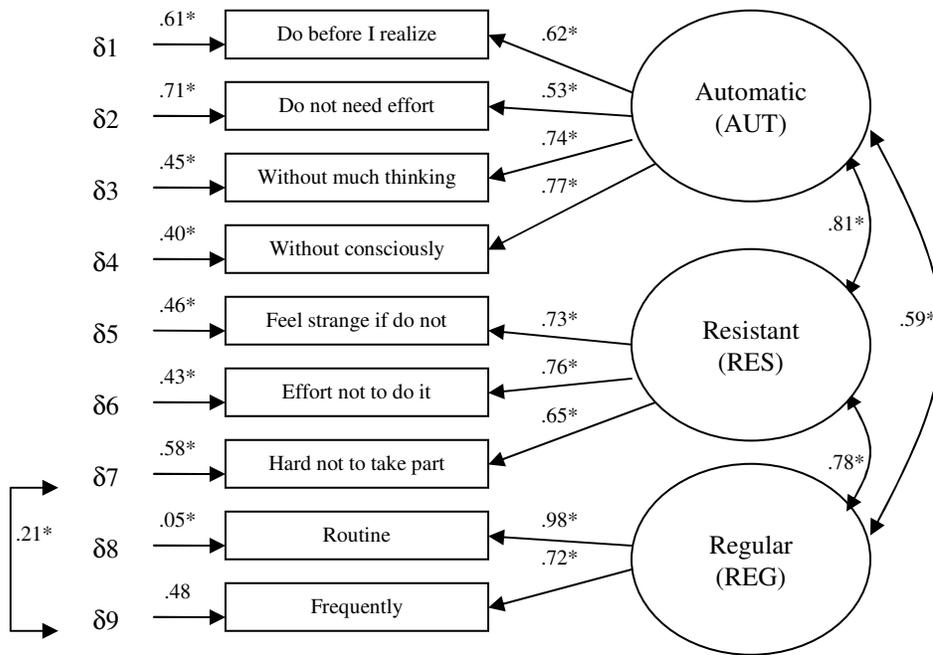


Figure 4-3. First-order CFA model of leisure habit

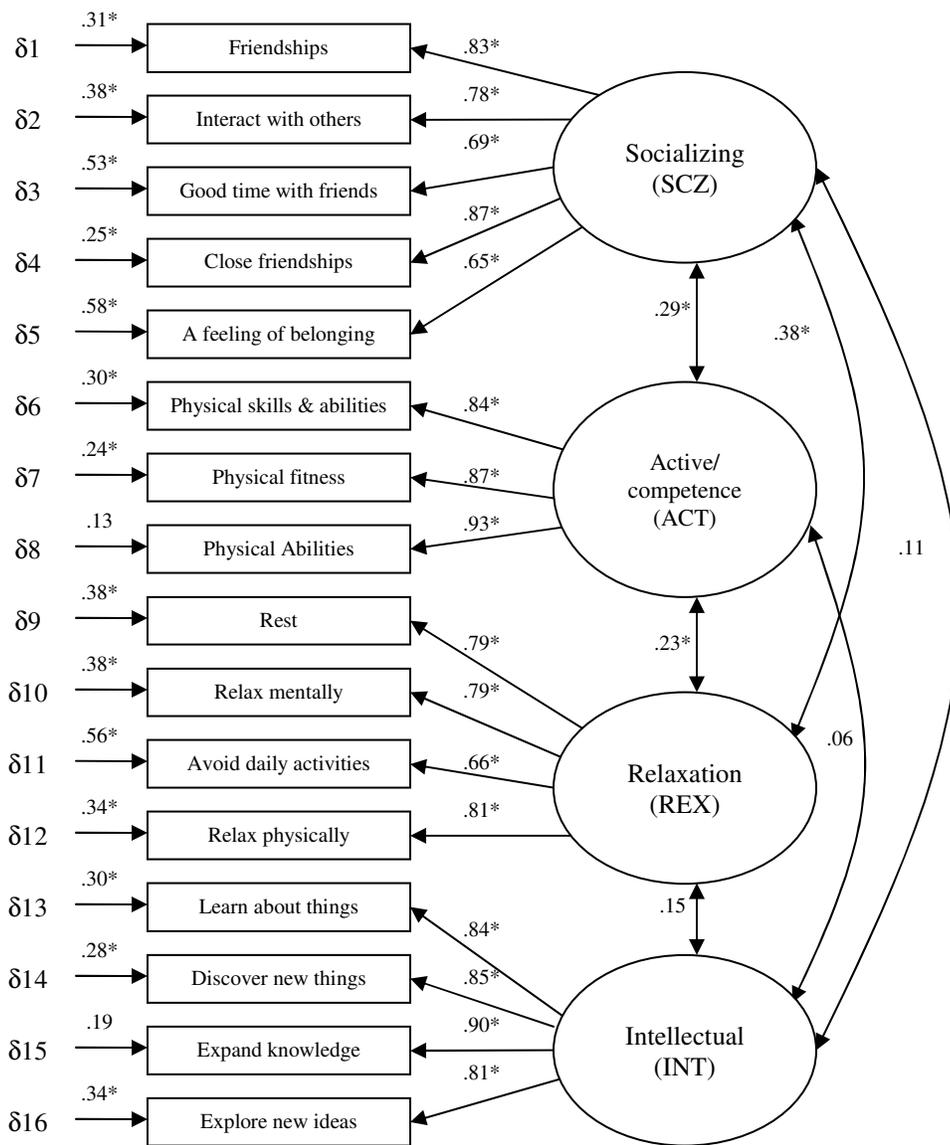


Figure 4-4. First-order CFA model of vacation motivation

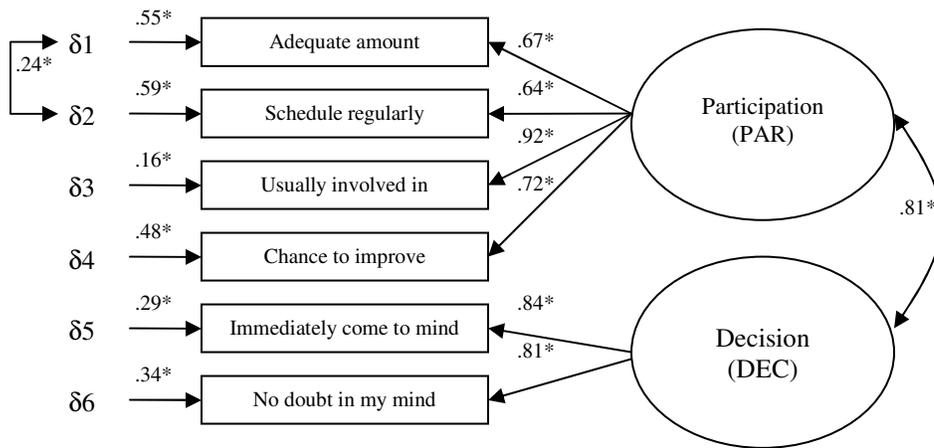


Figure 4-5. First-order CFA model of vacation behavior

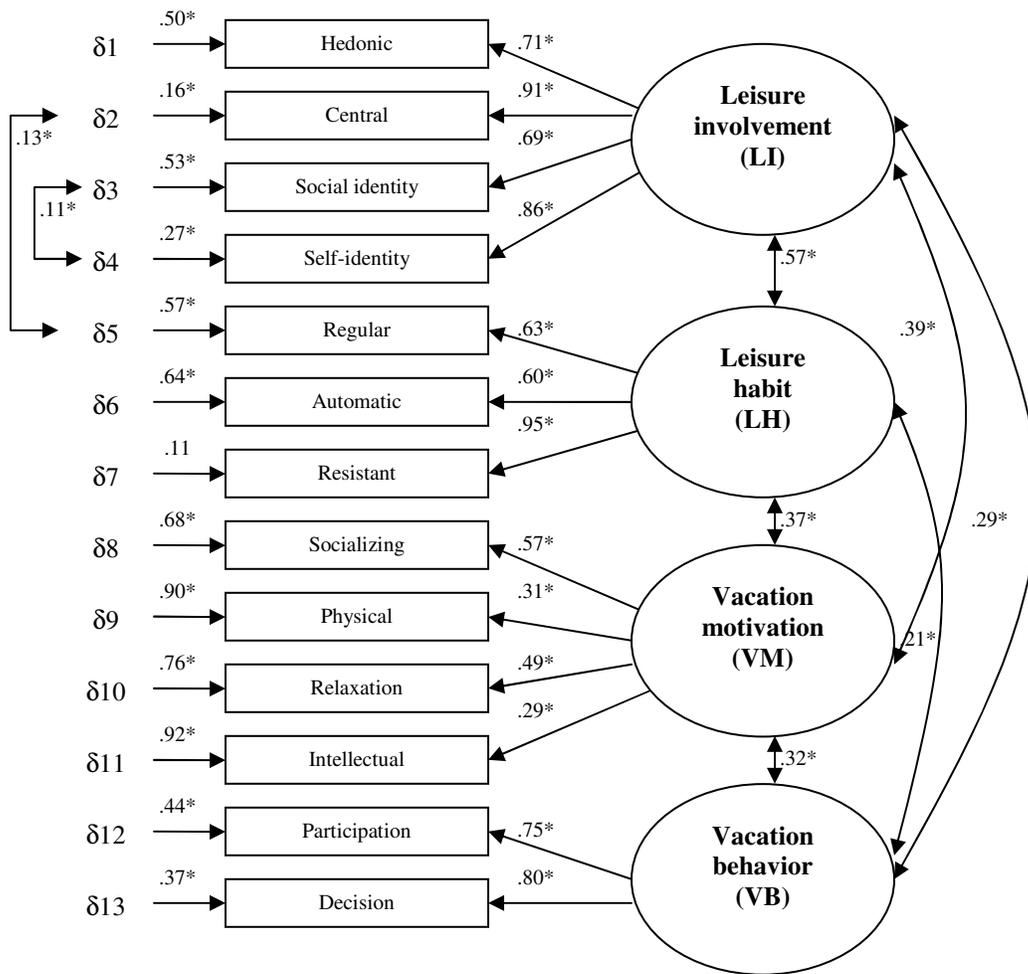


Figure 4-6. Measurement model of active leisure and vacations

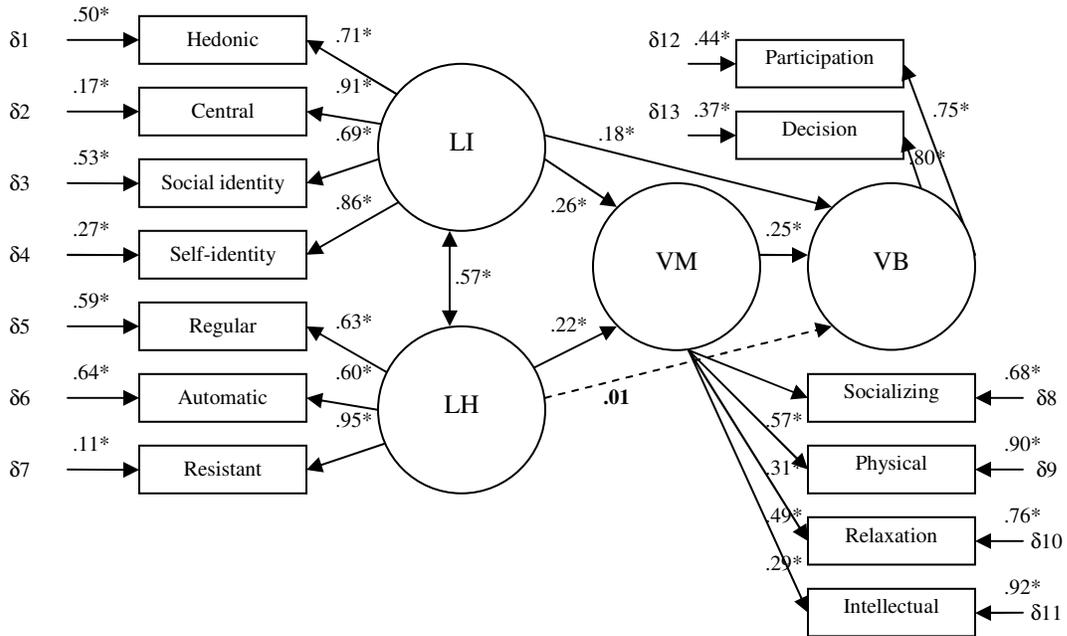


Figure 4-7. Model A: Measurement and structural model of active leisure and vacations

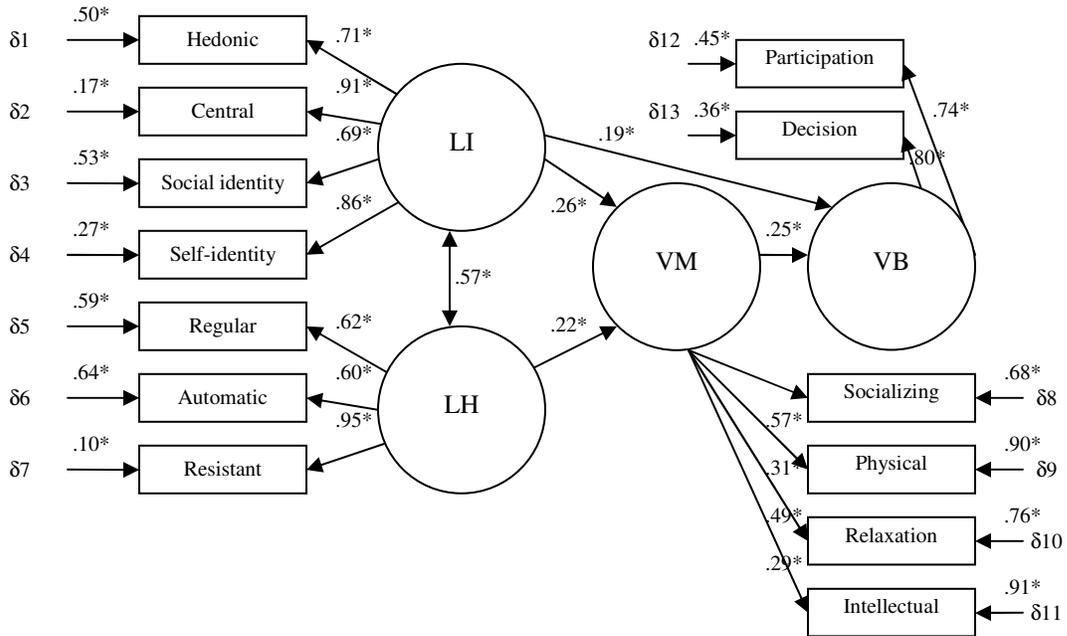


Figure 4-8. Model B: Competing model nested in model A

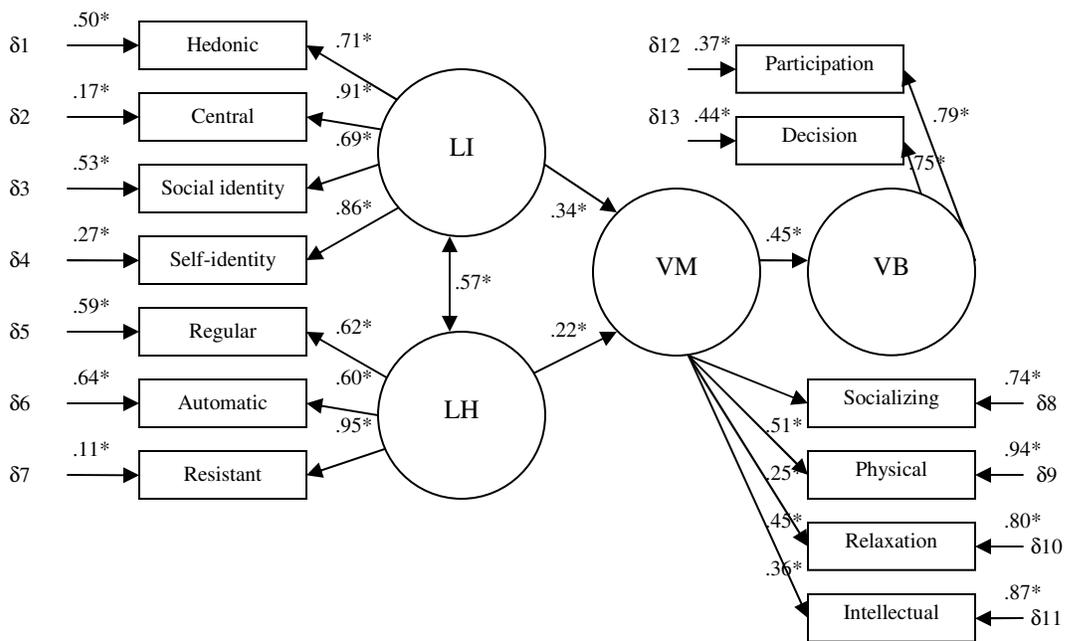


Figure 4-9. Model C: Competing model nested in model A and in model B

## CHAPTER 5 DISCUSSION

This study was designed to enhance understanding of the relationship between leisure activities and vacation/tourism behaviors, especially between active leisure and active vacation behaviors. Several leisure and tourism researchers have suggested theoretical assumptions concerning the leisure-tourism connection (Carr, 2002; Currie, 1997; Fedler, 1987; Mannell & Iso-Ahola, 1987), and in addition, countless examples in everyday life have been observed (Brey & Lehto, 2007; Glyptis, 1982). Nonetheless, few empirical studies have investigated this relationship. Accordingly, this study strived to empirically corroborate this connection, investigating the types and the patterns associated with favorite leisure and vacation activities and further testing the relationship between relevant psychological constructs (i.e., leisure involvement, leisure habit, vacation motivation, and vacation behaviors). This study not only empirically verified and embodied the previously suggested theoretical relationship between leisure activities and vacation activities, but also proposed a new theoretical framework for the active leisure-vacation connection and proposed implications for practice, which are discussed in this chapter.

### **Leisure-Vacation Connection**

It has been argued that leisure and tourism are different realms even though both share many psychological and behavioral components (Fedler, 1987; Mannell & Iso-Ahola, 1987). Based upon this argument, this study corroborated the substantial leisure-tourism connections. In particular, this study provided critical findings underpinning Currie's (1997) LIP behavior frameworks and Carr's (2002) leisure-tourism continuum. In this study, the favorite leisure activities and the favorite vacation activities described by almost two thirds of the respondents were not identical. Nevertheless, the favorite leisure and vacation activities of a large percentage

of the participants did fall into the same category. For example, those who were involved in the outdoor-related sports category during leisure also preferred taking part in the outdoor-related sports category during vacations. However, more respondents in the fitness category and the team sports category described their favorite vacation activities as being in the outdoor-related sports category. A plausible explanation for this is that team sports may have inherent constraints that limit their availability in vacation settings and some fitness activities such as dancing (e.g., weight training, dancing, etc) might also have limited opportunities (Crawford & Godbey, 1987; Crawford, Jackson, & Godbey, 1991). Even though people might be able to find fitness facilities in the tourism settings, they might prefer new outdoor experiences as one of the main reasons for taking a vacation is new experiences (Crompton, 1979).

For the most part, the respondents preferred participating in vacation activities from the same category as their usual leisure activities, although they engaged in different activities. Indeed, these findings are enough to confirm the previous assumptions that people on vacation in tourism settings tend to enjoy exploring more novel activities, experiences and places, although they engage in activities that are similar in type, but may vary somewhat from their normal daily activities (Carr, 2002; Cohen, 1974; Currie, 1997). For example, some participants enjoyed walking as their favorite leisure activity, while they preferred hiking in new places as a vacation experience. Other respondents spent leisure time bicycling, but their favorite vacation activity was mountain biking. From these examples that most people's vacation activities are not completely divergent from their leisure activities, there is a level of consistency in activity type, which is supported by Sherif and Cantril's (1947) social judgment theory as people tend to keep seeking self-identity through ego-involving objects. Similarly, Atchley's (1989, 1999) continuity theory that internal continuity causes behavioral continuity can explain these results. Atchley

(1989) explains that through the life course, an overall internal system associated with self-identity encourages people to behave consistently based on their past experiences, and this consistency in identity carries over into old age.

Consistent with the aforementioned behavioral patterns, the leisure-vacation continuum is also evident in other results of this study. A large percentage of the respondents preferred visiting new places for their vacations instead of familiar destinations, but simultaneously a majority of the respondents were still influenced to a large extent by their favorite leisure activities in determining their vacation activities. Moreover, in linking these findings to the sport tourism literature, these findings are essential for explaining the category, tourism sport as defined by Gammon and Robinson (1997) whereby sport is not the primary purpose of a trip. Almost half of the respondents were tourist sports who participate in active vacations regardless of their primary motivation. In particular, it was revealed that tourist sports enjoyed sports and recreational activities, as well as exploring new places and new experiences, as a way of spending time with their friends or family. In fact, the overwhelming majority of respondents have participated in their favorite active leisure activity while on vacation, even if it was not a primary motivation, and nearly two thirds of the respondents have taken part in their favorite active leisure activity during vacation as a primary motivation. Furthermore, approximately half of the respondents stated that they were likely to take a vacation in the next five years with participation in their favorite leisure activity as a primary motivation. Therefore, the respondents' vacation activities were likely to be affected by their daily leisure activities.

However, rather than the vacation activities being identical to the leisure activities, the vacation activities seem to be expanded to include new and more pleasurable experiences (Bello & Etzel, 1985; Crompton, 1979; Lee & Crompton, 1992). Crompton suggested pleasure

vacations are primarily driven by novelty-seeking motives. Lee and Crompton (1992) found that destination choice in relation to novelty is influenced by some constraints individuals face, but the impact of novelty-seeking motives still remained predominant in the selection of destination. Indeed, throughout the tourism literature, novelty and searching for new experiences through travel is a pervasive theme (Bello & Etzel, 1985; Wahlers & Etzel, 1985).

Furthermore, Robinson and Gammon (2004) asserted that a secondary motive should not be disregarded as any less important than primary motives. In other words, even though its motivation is secondary, its importance is by no means secondary. Such a notion is supported as well as accentuated by the finding that sport tourists and tourist sports did not show different patterns in the leisure-vacation psychological flow. Active leisure pursuits seem to be combined with active vacation pursuits to explore new experiences (Chon & Singh, 1995; Glyptis, 1991; Henderson, 2005a, b; Hall, 1992) and are even linked to choice of certain new environments (Schreyer & Beaulieu, 1986). Those respondents who were more immersed in their favorite leisure activities had a higher likelihood of participating in the same leisure activities during vacation. This result can also be explained by either Bryan's (1979) specialization or Buchanan's (1985) commitment that participants who were more highly involved or committed to leisure activity were more willing to develop their leisure activity through travel.

As might be expected, many respondents participated in sports, physical activities, and active outdoor recreation during their vacations, but tended to opt for slightly different activities or different destinations. As already mentioned, focusing on the broader activity categories, most of the respondents' vacation categories were not distinct from their leisure categories, even if the activities themselves were different. A series of these findings tends to confirm Carr's (2002) leisure-tourism continuum assumption that participants in leisure and tourism retain their

attitudes, values, and habit, but tend to be more hedonic or seek novel experiences in the tourism context. In this regard, there are subtle differences between the current findings and the former studies related to leisure specialization (Bryan, 1977), leisure commitment (Buchanan, 1985), and serious leisure (Stebbins, 1982), which assumed that involvement encourages people to develop or improve the same activities. Instead, the current findings revealed that more respondents altered their vacation activities from their leisure activities, but the activities remained in similar categories (Carr, 2002; Currie, 1997).

### **Involvement, Habit, Motivation, and Behavior**

Brey and Lehto (2007) investigated behavioral frequency between daily leisure activities and tourism activities but did not provide a psychological connection to explain how everyday leisure activities are related to vacation behaviors. Accordingly, the current study examined the psychological relationship between favorite leisure activities and vacation activities using four multidimensional constructs. Each construct was identified with several subfactors and further the relationship between the constructs was found to be significant.

#### **Leisure Involvement**

Prior to testing the causal paths between four latent variables, each construct was identified with several factorial components. The leisure involvement construct was identified as having four factors (i.e., *hedonic*, *self-identity*, *social identity*, and *central*). The *social* domain had low validity and reliability, revealing low mean values for a few indicators. In particular, “most of my friends or family members are in some way connected to my favorite leisure activity” was rated much lower than other items and “my favorite leisure activity provides the chance to socialize with my friends or family” was also low, whereas “I enjoy discussing my favorite leisure activity with my friends or family” was very high in its mean value. In other words, the respondents enjoyed talking with family members or friends about their favorite leisure activity,

but did not necessarily participate with them and did not perceive the activity as a chance to socialize with them. Probably, they could perceive leisure with their family distinct from their favorite leisure activity because family members may have different interests based on their different ages and even due to gender-based roles (Shaw, 1992; Shaw, 1997; Shaw & Dawson, 2001), even though some individuals could attempt to negotiate with their family members in taking part in their leisure (Crawford et al., 1991).

Consequently, two items with lowest average means also shared the correlated errors in the CFA results. Furthermore, this finding might reflect Dubin's (1979) notion that leisure activity could be adversely affected by leisure social groups or could be irrelevant to some leisure social groups. In other words, the more focus people have on their leisure activity, the less focus they have on the social groups because the social groups might inhibit the participants who want to concentrate on the leisure activity itself. In addition, involvement with a leisure activity might not be a significant explanation of involvement with social groups, although in most of the leisure literature, the contrary idea that leisure activities and leisure social groups are closely related is more pervasive.

Following this line of thought, Buchanan (1985) did not distinguish "commitment to leisure activity" from "commitment to leisure social groups." In developing Bryan's (1977) leisure specialization he showed a positive relationship between activity and social groups. To date, in line with Bryan's leisure specialization, many leisure researchers have assumed that a *social* factor is a very strong component in the involvement construct (Gahwiler & Havitz, 1998; Kyle et al., 2007). Contrary to the previous assumptions, this study found that social-related characteristics are very weak in explaining vacation motivation and vacation behavior, as well as in leisure involvement. Additionally, most respondents answered that they have no special social

groups with whom they travel. One possible explanation of these results is that the previous leisure studies used homogenous samples such as runners, hikers, or paddlers who were engaged in certain activities in particular leisure settings or were members of certain leisure clubs or institutions (Bryan, 1977; Gahwiler & Havitz, 1998; Iwasaki & Havitz, 2004; Kim et al., 1997; Kyle et al., 2004, 2007; McIntyre, 1989). This study differs in that the sample is comprised of a general population who are not necessarily members of specific leisure settings, tourism events, or relevant leisure clubs.

This study sample may possess different characteristics and tendencies from the specialized groups investigated in the prior studies. The statements including terms such as “connected” or “organized” may not be relevant when measuring leisure involvement of the general population. These statements may specifically correspond only to a very small percentage of people who are highly specialized (Bryan, 1977) or seriously involved (Stebbins, 1982) in leisure activities, or regulars or insiders in leisure social worlds (Unruh, 1979). When applied to the general population with more of a balance between everyday life and leisure, the utility of these statements may need to be reconsidered in this respect.

Another explanation is that the term “connected” may be contingent on the particular leisure activity, as noted by one of the expert panel members who participated for content validity. For example, although some individuals are highly involved in a particular leisure activity, “running” during leisure time, their family or friends may not participate in “running.” However, participants in certain leisure activities such as camping or team sports might more strongly agree with the statement, “most of my friends or family members are in some way connected to my favorite leisure activity” as Havitz and Dimanche (1999) pointed out that sub-factors such as risk, sign, and importance within leisure involvement may have different degrees

of relevance, depending on different types of activities. Nevertheless, the leisure activities reported by this study sample were diverse such as walking, running, hiking, trekking, horseback riding, camping, swimming, diving, kayaking, whitewater rafting, dancing, skiing, golfing, volleyball, tennis, soccer, hockey, auto racing, etc. Across all these leisure activities, social connection-related factors were not high. Accordingly, an assumption that each of these activities would vary in terms of the relevance of the social factor does not seem to be appropriate for this sample.

Differing from the *social* factor, the utility of self-identity and social identity (Tajfel, 1978; Thoits & Virshup, 1997) was confirmed with satisfactory reliability and validity. First and foremost, the findings provided substantial evidence that self-identity and social identity play core roles in the leisure involvement construct. Furthermore, each identity operates separately in a different domain, even if some parts of both identities are correlated. This result is supported by previous studies related to the relationship between leisure activity and individual and social identity formation (Josselson, 1980; Kleiber & Kirshnit, 1991; Shaw, Kleiber, & Caldwell, 1995). Particularly, it is consistent with the previous finding that sport and physical activities-related leisure activity plays a more active and positive role in self-identity and social identity formation (Shaw et al., 1995).

### **Leisure Habit**

The multidimensionality of leisure habit was identified with three sub-dimensions: *regular*, *resistant*, *automatic*. Contrasting with Verplanken and Aarts' (1999) single habit factor, for the first time this study proposed a multidimensional habit construct and obtained reasonable reliability and validity in leisure settings. As the *automatic* component was slightly lower than the other two factors in its average score, leisure activity is likely to be characterized as partially automatic rather than wholly unconscious. Since leisure has its own intentional, conscious

components such as freedom of choice and intrinsic motivation (Csikszentmihalyi, 1990; Iso-Ahola, 1979; Kelly, 1987), excluding consciousness associated with leisure is unavoidable. However, at the same time, leisure is closely associated with automatic components such as lifestyles (Henderson & Bialeschki, 2005; Sung, 2004). Accordingly, partial automaticity (Shiffrin, 1988) appears to be an important component of leisure habit. Specifically, the respondents subjectively perceived that they participate frequently in their favorite leisure activity and felt they would find it difficult not to take part in their favorite leisure activity.

### **Vacation Motivation**

The motivation items adapted from the leisure motivation scale (Beard & Ragheb, 1983) had good internal validity on each of the four factors (i.e., *socializing*, *physical*, *intellectual*, and *relaxation*) in the vacation setting. However, the intellectual factor and the other three factors were not strongly correlated with each other in the CFA model, and subsequently the intellectual domain had a low factor loading on the motivation latent variable in the measurement and structural model, which led to low reliability and validity. The explanation for this is that motivation factors are comprised of a wide range of needs and some factors may inevitably result in low communality, which affects validity and reliability of the factors in the overall causal model. Ryan and Glendon (1998) also found that motivations varied, reporting their results that the category of tourists they called “mental relaxers” exhibited a high level of relaxation motivation combined with low levels of other motivations, whereas, what they called “active relaxers” had high relaxation and mastery motivations, but had medium intellectual motivation and low social motivation.

However, the findings of this study demonstrated that the intellectual motivation of the respondent sample was much higher than other motivations. One possible reason that the intellectual motivation was superior is that many respondents were tourist sports who reported

that they pursued exploring new experiences and novelty during vacation. Some respondents enjoyed participating in vacation activities that differed from their normal leisure activities due to intellectual curiosity. This finding is consistent with the findings of previous studies in which intellectual or knowledge motivation is closely related to novel experiences-seeking (Cha, McCleary, & Uysal, 1995; Jamrozy & Uysal, 1994; Oh, Uysal, & Weaver, 1995).

Motivation to improve physical skills for their own sake seemed to be rather low because most respondents appear to enjoy recreational sports as opposed to participating in competitive sport events with high involvement levels in the sport (Glyptis, 1982). The item, “to be active” originally included in the physical motivation factor was much higher in its average score than other physical motivation statements and therefore was deleted to attain validity and reliability on the physical motivation factor. As a result of this deletion, the mean values of the remaining physical items became lower, demonstrating that more respondents preferred being active but did not focus on developing or refining physical skills or abilities during vacations. They focused more on the exploration of new endeavors (Cohen, 1972; Crompton, 1979; Dann, 1981; Lee & Crompton, 1992; Lepp & Gibson, 2003, 2008; Uysal et al., 1993), while remaining active at the same time. It is notable that Gandhi-Ahora and Shaw (2002) assumed a negative relationship between novelty-seeking and loyalty to sport tourism, but failed to confirm this negative association. Their results might show the possibility that novelty seeking does not mean that people change their value to be active and maintain their behaviors in the same categorical types of activities. Based on basic values and attitudes people possess in a broader context, novelty seeking might rather encourage their consistent behavior.

If leisure motivation was explored instead of vacation motivation presumably the physical factor might be higher than other factors with this sample, but vacation motivation appears to be

different. The other plausible explanation is that the respondents in the study sample have a high educational level and therefore have stronger intellectual motivation. There are no previous studies that have verified if higher intellectual tourism motivation is connected to a higher level of education, but in specialized tourism such as educational tourism, cultural tourism, or sport tourism, it has been reported that if respondents' education level is high such as a college degree or over, that intellectual curiosity or learning components are often preferred (Gibson, 1998b; Delpy, 1998; Stoddard, Evans, & Dave, 2008; Wahlers & Etzel, 1985).

### **Vacation Behavior**

The vacation behavior construct was represented by two factors: participation and decision. This vacation behavior scale consisted of items adapted from the leisure participation scale and the leisure behavior scale (Ragheb & Tate, 1993; Stanton-Rich & Iso-Ahola, 1998), and for the first time, satisfactory reliability and validity were established in the vacation realm. In terms of the vacation decision factor, the results of this study showed that the respondents' certainty about a decision to participate in their favorite vacation activities was much higher than other items related to detailed information-seeking behavior. This is supported by previous studies that uncertainty encourages more information-seeking behavior (Bennett & Mandell, 1969; Lanzetta, 1963; Reilly & Conover, 1983). Therefore, the certainty-related items remained for reliability and validity of the vacation decision factor in the SEM model. The results showed that the respondents regularly take part in their favorite vacation activities, and show a high degree of certainty about their previous decisions to participate in their favorite vacation activities. This finding can be supported by psychological theories that have assumed the impact of attitudes such as certainty on behaviors (Krosnick, & Petty, 1995; Fishbein & Ajzen, 1975) or the impact of past behavior on attitudes (Bem, 1965; Festinger, 1957; Triandis, 1977).

As briefly mentioned above, the social component-related item, “I have a network of friends/family with whom I travel to take part in my favorite vacation activity” was removed from the vacation participation factor. Like the social components of leisure involvement, this item was very low in its mean when compared with other vacation participation items, and resulted in large residuals and unacceptable reliability and validity. Social components consistently appeared weak across all of the findings of this study including involvement, motivation and behavior. The most plausible explanation for this is due to the particular sample that was used. A general population whose members are involved in various types of leisure and vacation activities was used for this study. This differs from many previous leisure studies, where samples have been largely collected from a certain group engaged in a leisure activity or belonging to a certain leisure organization such as a specialized group of anglers (Bryan, 1979). Another possible reason is that people with a high level of education might also show different psychological and behavioral patterns in leisure and travel behaviors (Kyle, Kerstetter, & Guadagnolo, 2002), as many studies showed different socio-demographic characteristics led to different travel behaviors (Baloglu, 1997; Goodall & Ashworth, 1988; Kyle, Kerstetter, & Guadagnolo, 2002; Weaver, McCleary, Lepisto, & Damonte, 1994; Zimmer, Brayley, & Searle, 1995). Certainly, in UK tourism contexts, Urry (1990) suggests that working-class individuals prefer what he calls the collective gaze, or vacations with lots of opportunities for socializing, compared to middle-class individuals who prefer the more solitary romantic gaze.

### **Leisure Involvement ↔ Leisure Habit**

The findings showing a positive relationship between leisure involvement and leisure habit verified many theories which assume that both involvement at a conscious level and habit at an automatic level reinforce each other, and thereby more strongly influence future attitudes and

behaviors (Beatty & Kahle, 1988; Bem 1965; Fazio, 1986; Miller & Marks, 1996; Triandis, 1977). Even if leisure involvement was not strongly correlated with the wholly unconscious components of habit, it was significantly associated with the partially automatic components of leisure habit, which may support previous studies related to leisure lifestyles consisting of conscious and unconscious components (Henderson & Bialeschki, 2005; Sung, 2004).

### **Leisure Involvement ↔ Leisure Habit → Vacation Motivation**

Furthermore, leisure involvement and leisure habit had a significant influence on vacation motivation. Mannell and Iso-Ahola (1987) postulated that the alleged leisure-vacation connection is mediated by psychological components. Likewise, it was evident that those who participated in active leisure and active vacations showed strong motives regarding the desire to participate in their favorite leisure activity while on vacation. More specifically, the findings are underpinned by social judgment theory (Sherif & Cantril, 1947), in which previous attitudes affect the judgment of new information, and the judgments associated with ego value lead to a large latitude of rejecting new incoming alternatives. Involvement in active leisure is likely to encourage people to participate in active vacations by narrowing their choices into a certain category of activities such as outdoor-related sports, water-related sports, or golf/skiing. The findings of this study revealed that people's choices were internally motivated by intellectual curiosity, in particular. Supporting social adaptation theory (Beatty & Kahle, 1988; Kahle, 1984), the results also underlie that leisure habit, the so-called well-learned schema, encouraged people to be consistent with their previous attitudes by categorizing different or novel external information and objects into the same active vacation domain (Lewandowsky & Kirsner, 2000).

## **Vacation Motivation → Vacation Behavior**

The results showed that the strongest direct impact on vacation behavior was vacation motivation, which has been discussed and examined by various researchers over the years working with the assumption that tourism motivation guides tourism behavior (Crompton, 1979; Iso-Ahola, 1983; Pearce & Caltabiano, 1983). Leisure involvement or leisure habit did not directly influence vacation behavior in the best-fit SEM model, but had significant indirect effects on vacation behavior through vacation motivation. Notwithstanding that Triandis (1977) assumed that conscious, intentional and automatic, unintentional components could directly and indirectly affect behavior, more attention should be paid to the fact that this study investigated leisure activity in one realm and vacation activity in another realm. Leisure settings and vacation settings are tangibly and intangibly distant from each other, and some constraints on transitioning from leisure to tourism may exist (Crawford et al., 1991; Nyaupane et al., 2004). Surmounting this physical and psychological distance, people might be motivated by specific factors to travel. The indirect effect of leisure involvement and leisure habit on vacation behavior appears to be a more reasonable account of the leisure-vacation conjunction as ostensibly manifested in the final best-fit model rather than a direct influence.

### **Implications of the Study**

#### **Implication for a New Theoretical Framework of Active Leisure and Vacations**

This study provided substantial empirical evidence germane to the psychological and behavioral connections between active leisure participation and active vacation behaviors (Brey & Lehto, 2007; Carr, 2002; Currie, 1997; Mannell & Iso-Ahola, 1987). Not only were previous theories and assumptions related to involvement, habit, motivation and behavior amplified and further developed, but in addition new findings were generated. On the basis of these findings, a newly created theoretical framework of the relationship between active leisure and active

vacations is proposed in this chapter (Figure 5-1). This theoretical framework is called the Expanded Framework of Active Leisure (EFAL). In the Expanded Framework of Active Leisure (EFAL), conscious (e.g., involvement) and unconscious, automatic (e.g., habit) psychological components associated with active leisure behaviors reinforce each other, accelerating their synergetic effect on the choice of an active vacation. Both the conscious and unconscious factors of active leisure behaviors encourage people to be active during their vacations. However, when active leisure is mingled with the unique characteristics of tourism, its forms are expanded in the vacation setting. Those who enjoy active vacation activities were segmented into eight groups in this regard. Sport tourists and tourist sports are the basic root groups, which produce eight sub-clusters. Sport tourists travel to participate in sports, physical activities, and active outdoor recreation as a primary motivation. Tourist sports participate in sports, physical activities and active outdoor recreation while on vacation, but the activities themselves are not the primary motivation to travel (Gammon & Robinson, 1997). Sport tourists consist of four different groups: (1) sport tourists who participate in the same activity as their favorite leisure activity in a familiar destination, (2) sport tourists who take part in the same activity in a new destination, (3) sport tourists who participate in different activities from their favorite leisure activity in a familiar destination, and (4) sport tourists who take part in different activities in a new destination. In the same manner, tourist sports are comprised of four subgroups: (1) tourist sports who engage in the same activity as their favorite leisure activity in a familiar place, (2) tourist sports who enjoy participating in the same activity, but experiencing a novel place, (3) tourist sports who seek different activities in a familiar destination, and (4) tourist sports who participate in activities different from their favorite leisure activity, seeking a new destination. All these categories emerge from the association between active sport tourism and novelty-seeking tourism

motivation (Cohen, 1972; Lepp & Gibson, 2003; Zuckerman, 1979), which should be further examined in the future.

This theoretical framework could not only provide a systematic framework to understand different behavioral active vacation patterns of active leisure participants, but also could help define the degree of novelty and familiarity in terms of the association between activity and destinations. A group that seeks the same activity and a familiar destination is at one end of a continuum, while a group that looks for different activities and a novel destination is at the other end of a continuum. This categorical framework can help profile more specific characteristics of leisure participants in each group. Cohen (1972) provided four different types of tourists on the novelty-familiarity seeking continuum and Plog (1974) connected two personality types, *allocentric* and *psychocentric* to emerging destination and mature destination based on destination life-cycle, respectively. In terms of push and pull factors, Dann (1977) viewed novelty seeking as a socio-psychological internal push factor, whereas Crompton (1979) put more focus on novelty as a cultural motive in terms of a destination pull factor and Zuckerman (1979) suggested that novelty seeking is a type of personality trait. However, neither the push/pull factor destination attribute approach nor the personality explanation can provide a holistic explanation of the complexity of tourist behavior. For example, it is difficult to determine whether people who simultaneously seek a familiar activity and a novel destination in the EFAL framework have a novelty-seeking personality or a familiarity-seeking personality. Plog (1974) demonstrated that a large number of people are distributed in the mid-centric zone possessing both allocentric and psychocentric characteristics. However different characteristics between the *familiar activity-novel destination* seeking group and the *novel activity-familiar destination* seeking group should be further examined, especially since most tourists are within

these middle zones. Indeed, Yiannakis and Gibson (1992) using multidimensional scaling found that active sport tourists tended to prefer moderate levels of familiarity and novelty consistent with Cohen's (1972) independent mass tourist or Plog's (1974) midcentrics. Considering all the previous theories suggested by Cohen (1972), Plog (1974), Dann (1977), Crompton (1979), and Zuckerman (1979), the researcher hypothesizes that the group characterized as the familiar activity-novel destination segment might be more influenced by destination pull factors, whereas the group included in the novel activity-familiar destination segment might be more affected by internal push factors, but there is a need for these groups to be further studied.

### **Implication for Applied Settings**

Both the sport tourists and tourist sports were strongly motivated to be active, and therefore the causal paths from active leisure to active vacation of both groups showed the same patterns. Moreover, many sport tourists and tourist sports not only preferred taking part in the same activities, but also choosing different sports, physical activities, and active outdoor recreation from their favorite leisure activity for their vacation activities. Some people attempted to expand their experience by making a choice of different activities, but still remained in the same general activity category. For example, the findings demonstrated that those who enjoyed walking during leisure expanded their vacation activity to hiking, but still remained in the same line of outdoor-related sports. Some sport tourists preferred swimming for their leisure activity, but this swimming was diversified into water sports or beach activities in the tourism contexts. Other sport tourists modified their bicycling during leisure to mountain biking while on vacation. Some people seemed to have links such as locomotion from walking (i.e., leisure activity) to bicycling (i.e., vacation activity), yet choosing activities in the same domain. Others demonstrated a shift from hiking (i.e., outdoor-related sports) to water sports or golf/skiing and other sport tourists changed their favorite domain, as well.

On the other hand, many responses provided by tourist sports included activities such as hiking and other sports, physical activities and active outdoor recreation for the purpose of exploring or experiencing “something new” during their vacations. Indeed, Standeven and de Knop (1999) postulated that sport is a cultural experience of physical activity and tourism is a cultural experience of place. Similar findings that “something new” specific to different cultures and the nature of destinations were revealed by this study. The tourism literature also shows that novelty seeking is closely related to the cultural experience motivation (Crompton, 1979; McGehee, Loker-Murphy, & Uysal, 1996).

Nevertheless, it was obvious that respondents did not discard their active leisure values during vacations, but rather their active leisure values blended with the unique experiences acquired through tourism. Some people reported that they enjoy golf as their leisure activity, but described their favorite vacation activity as viewing scenery in different places while playing golf. These responses demonstrate two elements: 1) the generation of tourism cultures through sports as often noted in the previous sport tourism literature (Bull, 2005; Hinch & La Barre, 2005), and 2) the maximization of destination attractiveness through the combination of sports and other local authentic cultures and natural settings. As an example, the first element is related to nostalgia sport tourism, such as touring Olympic stadiums or museums (Gibson, 1998a, 1998b), which is centered on the subject matter of sports. As an additional example of the first element, Newquay, Cornwall was a small fishing village in southwest England but was transformed into a famous surfing destination including surf shops, schools, accommodations and bars, and is often visited by many backpackers who enjoy surfing (Bull, 2005). Accordingly, some tourism advertisements emphasize images associated with destination-specific sport activities and events to attract sport tourists (Hinch & La Barre, 2005).

The second element relates to tourism resources and sport resources which are different but have a synergetic relationship with each other, rather than tourism resources which are developed for sports. Getz (1998) underscored the importance of real local values experienced by sport tourist visitors, the so-called authentic cultural experience. Combinations such as “playing golf and dining on unique local foods,” “hiking and learning local history,” “climbing, looking for unique local scenery and nature, and photographing that scenery,” and “canoeing and taking part in local community ecotourism courses” are examples of the second element. Indeed, in a study of golf tourists, Gibson and Pennington-Gray (2006) found that while pure golf tourists do exist, the majority of golf tourists blend golf with a range of other tourist activities. Perhaps, there is a difference between the active sport tourists and tourist sports surveyed in this study compared to the previous literature where the overall finding has been that event sport tourists in particular tend to be “sport junkies” (Faulkner et al., 1998) and interested in very few other tourist-related activities (Gibson, Willming, & Holdnak, 2003). In this study, some active sport tourists are also interested in destination specific characteristics. For example, a participant in bicycling during leisure preferred bicycling during vacations and at the same time, was interested in local history tours.

Taken together, the active leisure and active vacation patterns seem to call for the creation of new, comprehensive programs, policies, products, and marketing strategies. First of all, if the supply side provides people with vacation products or programs using activities in the same category as their leisure category, these products or programs might be more attractive to them. For example, if marketers or policy makers can promote a variety of outdoor recreation sports-related programs or products in tourism destinations, this might be attractive to physically active

people and help them maintain a consistency of lifestyle between their everyday and their vacation context.

Furthermore, given that there are tourist sports who want to experience different destinations but who are eager to take part in the same activity as their favorite leisure activity, specific programs to keep satisfying these needs along with easy access to this information has not been provided until fairly recently. Some tourist sports may want to participate in, for example, various cultural heritage tours by hiking or bicycling, and other tourist sports may prefer canoeing and experiencing unique local scenery and cultures while on vacation. Some tourist sports might want to interact with local people and satisfy their intellectual curiosity about local culture such as foods and sports, taking part in their favorite leisure sports with local people through tourism opportunities. Yiannakis and Gibson's (1992) comment that individuals may choose more than one tourist role on a single vacation is noteworthy in this regard. Familiarity of favorite leisure sports might facilitate sharing common interests in order to interact with local people and learning interesting aspects of cultures, while mediating the strangeness and novelty of a new environment.

In the same manner, if sport tourists want to enjoy different activities in a familiar place, policy makers or product developers should ask if there are satisfactory and viable programs for these people. Some tourists may feel more comfortable visiting a familiar destination (Cohen, 1972), however they may want to experience different physical activities on their vacations. They may want to look for trekking this year, horseback riding next year, and mountain biking after that, all in a familiar destination and perhaps for convenience using the same travel company. On the condition that a travel company can offer these products and programs through networking with other agencies or organizations, they could satisfy their customers' needs,

thereby retaining “loyal” active tourist consumers in the long term (Petrick, 2002; Prichard et al., 1999; Selin, Howard, & Cable, 1988).

It appears that while the niche market of sport tourism is growing and sport tourists’ needs and requests are evolving rapidly, suppliers may not have kept up with providing programs or products suitable for meeting their customers’ demands. As a result of this delayed reaction, some active sport tourists have created programs and products themselves and are actively involved in the sport tourism destination development process. For example, the sport teams and the administration sides of professional sporting bodies work together to develop an optimal environment for their teams’ performance, considering all the elements of both on and off the sports field such as facilities, accommodations, attractions, food and beverage, services, and retail businesses (Francis & Murphy, 2005). The role of active sport tourists is no longer assigned to that of receptors who simply consume products offered by suppliers and the traditional roles of providers and demanders are changing steadily in the sport tourism market (Amis & O’Brien, 2001). The involvement of active sport tourists in destination development beyond products development is making it feasible to have more sensitive and sophisticated approaches to meet their needs and to be responsive to the environment based on their previous experiences. Therefore, strategic partnerships and collaborations between traditional providers (e.g. travel agencies and government and event organizations) and unconventional providers (e.g. sport tourists) must be considered in the future planning process of sport tourism and tourism sport markets.

A more systematic, comprehensive, and cooperative approach to facilitating the expansion of active leisure is needed, paying heed to the best way to keep people active. From this perspective, this study provides empirical information germane to conjoint leisure-tourism

patterns. In particular, going beyond providing a psychological and behavioral causal path between active leisure and active vacations, a theoretical framework developed from a substantial sample exemplifying different stages of the leisure-tourism continuum was established and could serve as a viable guideline in applied settings in the future.

In particular, it seems that different products, marketing strategies, and promotions for eight segments in the EFAL profile should be developed by obtaining more information about each of the target eight groups with a larger sample in future research. An interesting study conducted by Woratschek, Hannich, and Ritchie (2007) identified four cluster groups, *Scene Climbers*, *Adventure Climbers*, *Novelty Seeking Tourists*, and *Sport and Leisure Tourists* based on the different motivations of rock climbing participants, and further found specific destination attributes preferred by those types of sport tourists. Scene climbers and adventure climbers were more focused on needs directly connected to climbing such as climbing tourism infrastructure, climbing scene venue, climbing conditions, and climbing novelty seeking, whereas novelty seeking tourists and sport and leisure tourists were interested in other attributes besides climbing such as destination novelty seeking and non-climbing sports and leisure activities. More specifically, adventure climbers preferred more novel climbing experiences, whereas scene climbers tended to like more quiet and convenient climbing conditions. More novelty seeking tourists were pushed by destination cultures and non-climbing sport and leisure activities, whereas more sport and leisure tourists were motivated by a variety of sport and leisure opportunities and general tourism attractions. Woratschek et al.'s four different groups are likely to be explained within Gammon and Robinson's (1997) sport tourist and tourist sport categories. The former two groups are likely to correspond to sport tourists and the latter two groups seem to be tourist sports. Also these needs pursued by the four groups seem to be similar to the findings

of this study that there were sport tourists who preferred developing the same leisure activity either in new or familiar environment and tourist sports who preferred experiencing different activities and unique attractions of different destinations even though the respondents of this study were more extensively segmented. Woratschek et al. (2007) briefly suggested that in terms of destination attributes to be offered for each group, sport and leisure tourists might enjoy well developed tourism infrastructure including diverse sports and leisure opportunities, whereas calm, natural climbing environments without a need for mass tourism facilities would be attractive to scene climbers. Their suggestion is likely to be a useful base for not only further investigating more specific destination attributes, but also for providing more practical marketing strategies in the specified segments of the active leisure-active vacation participants of this study.

Woratschek, et al.'s (2007) destination attributes associated with leisure activity seem to be a basic example for further establishing marketing strategies for eight segments provided by the EFAL framework. Detailed marketing strategies cannot be provided in this study because this study did not reveal sufficient information about each segment, however broad level planning and marketing strategies can be described here. "Segment A" (i.e., sport tourists who take part in the same activity at a familiar destination) may be serious sport tourists. Those people prefer developing their skills or abilities associated with their favorite leisure activity. Accordingly, this segment may show a greater likelihood of becoming loyal customers of both travel providers and destinations. For example, while the Segment B golfers prefer experiencing different golf courses at different destinations, the Segment A golfers want to play golf every year at the same destination during vacations. To promote the destination or place, suppliers or marketers should investigate what Segment A golfers liked about this destination, and should reflect their feedback in their future strategies to maintain their loyal customers. In terms of promotional message

content, using rational appeals would be better rather than using emotional appeals for this group, because this target group has already experienced this destination and seems to be interested in improving their golf skills, rather than choosing a new destination. Furthermore, using relationship marketing as a form of direct marketing is likely to be more useful for this group rather than using indirect marketing such as newspaper or TV advertising. For example, an individual email contact providing detailed information about loyal customer programs, rewards, and benefits is likely to be effective. Also, developing and promoting a variety of programs related to different courses to improve their activity skills at the destination may be critical to maintaining loyal customers. This might encourage those participants to visit the destination more frequently. Additionally, marketing strategies using a social networking system of the agent or the destination organization to increase the interaction between providers and customers as well as among participants may be effective for this segment group.

“Segment B” (i.e., sport tourists who participate in the same activity at a novel destination) may be “stable sport tourists.” This group has a high likelihood of using an intermediary travel body (e.g., using the same travel agent). Those people may tend to like taking part in the same activity as their favorite leisure activity with their social group, preferring to visit different destinations. For example, hikers want to experience different mountains and nature, but they prefer using a travel company that can provide information about interesting destinations for hikes with their group members. This segment is likely to be loyal customers of private travel agents rather than national, state, or local tourism organizations. An effective marketing strategy would be that the travel company creates its own social networking site such as Southwest Airlines’ *Nuts about Southwest* so that their customers can interact with each other through this networking system. Through monitoring this interaction, the agent could gain useful

information about specific attributes of certain destinations where their customers are likely to prefer visiting. Particularly, relevant information should be provided aggressively for customers who want some challenges, for example, those looking for a particular destination with more difficult hiking routes. If the travel company can recommend destinations of a certain challenge level, this will be a good marketing strategy for this segment. However, the travel company should have partnerships with sports-related organizations of different destinations as well as national, state, and local destination organizations such as Convention and Visitor Bureau (CVB) so that necessary services and products can be provided for the customers. In terms of effective ways to promote, word of mouth marketing through social networking systems as well as publications utilizing audiovisual materials would be useful for this group.

For “Segment C” category (i.e., sport tourists who take part in different activities at a familiar destination), these people have a greater possibility of choosing a familiar destination because of its easy accessibility and because it poses less constraints to enjoying a vacation with their family members (e.g., children, parents, and grandparents) and with friends. Instead of travel companies, destination organizations may be better managing this group. Destination organizations need to investigate what kind of activities this target group has taken part in before and prefer to participate in. On the basis of this information, promoting sport-related attractions such as a grouping of similar recreational activities (e.g., “running, hiking, and bicycling,” “walking, camping, and horseback riding,” “swimming, scuba diving, and water skiing,” “snorkeling, kayaking, and fishing,” etc) on the destination website may be an effective marketing tool for attracting them. The organizations need to retain and upgrade their visitors’ database, regularly. Furthermore, collecting data about this segment’s preferences and providing them with novel activities may be helpful for the long-term management of this group. In

addition, the creation of new events may be a powerful promotion strategy because this group prefers experiencing new activities in a familiar destination. Furthermore, promoting sales-and-profit contributions to the encouragement of healthy and active lifestyles of people through this kind of event may make event participants feel more attractive about the event.

“Segment D” (i.e., sport tourists who take part in different activities at a novel destination) might be adventure tourists who enjoy adventure sports. This segment may prefer activities combined with specific destinations in a unique way: for example, hiking combined with a particular mountain; bicycling associated with a specific trekking course; camping combined with a particular campsite location; horseback riding associated with a specific place. This segment may tend to change their sport and recreational types of activity by traveling to different destinations. It might be harder to understand the behavioral patterns of this group as compared to the aforementioned groups. Therefore, it is suggested that after investigating information sources this group uses, suppliers should generate an interconnected system among the different information sources. This informational connection may be a useful base not only to create new products for potential customers with similar interests, but also to understand their behavioral patterns in a certain extent. For example, there may be several main information sources if this group is looking for particular mountains combined with hiking. Similarly, there may be other main information sources if they are seeking certain trekking courses to run or bicycle and other main information sources to look for scuba diving combined with preferred destinations. Along with the establishment of an interconnected system among these sources, trips could be created and promoted. Posting this network on the main website of the supplier would be informative and a good promotional tool. In addition, providing a counseling program for this group would be helpful for suppliers to create specialized forms of tourism fitted to customers’ preferences

and needs and thereby increase customers' satisfaction. The supplier should establish a multichannel marketing system rather than a conventional marketing system for effective partnerships with different destination sport and recreational organizations. Sponsorship can also offer discounted prices to this sport adventure group.

“Segment E” (i.e., tourist sports who participate in the same activity at a familiar destination) may be structured sports habituators who habitually participate in their preferred leisure activity during their vacations. Unlike the four aforementioned groups, their primary tourism motivation is not to take part in sports. For example, these people prefer to keep running, swimming or using the gym in familiar destinations, however their primary vacation motivations lie in other activities not sport. Accordingly, one of the most important management skills may be related to maintaining the quality of facilities at the destination. Moreover, local tourism organizations should investigate the kind of tourism activities this group may take part in. After this investigation, tourism organizations can promote good places to take part in their habitual physical activities combined with their preferred tourism activities at the same destination. Relevant magazines or brochures promoting tourism activities should be displayed inside sport and recreational facilities. Additionally, particular tourism programs or activities that this segment prefers experiencing can be offered nearby or developed alongside the sport and recreational facilities. Perhaps, more diverse health-themed tourism activities other than sports and physical activities may be attractive to this group.

“Segment F” (i.e., tourist sports who participate in the same activity at a novel destination) has a high possibility to experience the culture and natural environment of new destinations during their vacations. Their sport and physical activities may be habitual like “Segment E.” In this case, providing trips to different destinations combined with chain-brand accommodations

including sport and recreational facilities dispersed over the world may be appealing to them. That is, providing programs for experiencing cultures of different destinations along with stable environments to maintain their habitual physical activity may be appropriate. An emotional appeal may be a better way to promote tourism attractions than rational and persuasive appeals for this group.

“Segment G” (i.e., tourist sports who participate in different activities at a familiar destination) may be people who prefer taking part in different recreational activities with their friends or family while visiting them. This group has a high possibility of engaging in more family-oriented sports/recreation and tourism activities while spending time with them. Their sports and recreation activities may be extended to encompass different types of activity as well as within the same activity. For example, those people might be involved in water-based sports or golf/ski on vacation rather than their favorite leisure activity, outdoor-related sports. Suppliers should investigate what kinds of leisure activities family members or friends are engaged in. Based on the connection among favorite activities of their family members or friends, a recreational package such as biking-running-hiking-swimming may be provided so that everybody can enjoy the activities together. Marketing strategies centered on more family-oriented or social interaction-focused tourism programs may be more attractive to this group.

“Segment H” (i.e., tourist sports who take part in different activities at a novel destination) may be active explorers. This segment might be the hardest group to predict in terms of their behavioral patterns among the aforementioned segments. This segment’s vacation activities may tend to vary, encompassing a variety of cultural and entertainment activities blended with sports or recreational activities. These active explorers may participate in unique local sport events or competitions with local residents as a way of experiencing local cultures and may tend to be

more cultural curiosity-oriented. Accordingly, a hiking program to experience unique cultures and nature, or a paddling experience taking them into remote locations might be attractive to them. Using both informative and emotional appeal strategies would be a more effective promotion way for this group. It is suggested that multi-level marketing strategies through partnerships among travel agents, specialists, local/state/national organizations, and global distribution should be implemented with short-term and long-term plans.

Overall, the aforementioned segments are people who tend to consider “being active” as one of their most important values and simultaneously have a higher level of education and are high in intellectual motivation for travel. Accordingly, university-centered marketing strategies may be a good way for promoting vacation activities and tourism programs, possibly through alumni association magazines and brochures with an emphasis on images related to active lifestyles combined with cultural experiences. Furthermore, other than the aforementioned marketing strategies for each segment, there may be a possibility that people might transition from one segment to another with the impact of marketing strategies. For example, people in Segment A could change their behavioral patterns to Segment B. Given strong informative and persuasive appeals explaining how much better this type of vacation could be to develop their favorite sports and physical activities at different destinations, Segment A changes their previous beliefs or attitudes and thus, becomes included in Segment B. In this manner, the transition from Segment B to Segment C or the extension from Segment A to Segment B and C may be possible.

All the marketing strategies mentioned above were to facilitate the segments to maintain or develop their active leisure lifestyles in different tourism environments away from their routine. However, there is a need to emphasize the importance of involvement and habit factor in developing leisure lifestyles. This study found that involvement and habit are triggers for

encouraging people to extend active leisure lifestyles to vacation environments. More importantly, weak involvement and habit in leisure activity could be converted by proactively providing vacation information and programs in which individuals are encouraged to take part in active vacations. In other words, engagement in vacation activities could increase the strength of involvement and habit in active leisure. Active vacations may play an importance role in enhancing active leisure lifestyles. Furthermore, the encouragement of the reciprocal relationship between vacation and leisure will be useful for enabling people to maintain their healthy lifestyles in the long term. Although people may not have strong habits and involvement with physical activities in their routine life, special experience during vacation may produce a motivation to be more involved in active leisure once they return home.

It is assumed that providing information about active vacation and relevant vacation programs would influence active leisure involvement and habit, positively. In particular, informing people about the location of sport and recreation facilities in tourism destinations may prevent them from abandoning their active lifestyles while on vacation. When people travel away from home, they may face some constraints and discontinue keeping active and healthy lifestyles (Crawford et al., 1991) and become more sedentary and eat unhealthy foods. Providing a list of best places for activities by distributing a free booklet including this information as well as posting it on destination websites would give people more chances to be active, possibly encouraging stronger habit and involvement in active leisure activities. Furthermore, information about the best time (i.e., when) for participation along with the list of places (i.e., where) would help people to preplan their future vacations in an organized way. This would be a good way to strengthen people's self-control feelings toward their active and healthy life.

In terms of a macro-level policy to promote healthy and active leisure lifestyles (i.e., increasing leisure involvement and habit) through vacation opportunities, building physical environments designed for those within the active leisure-tourism connection should be a long-term plan. Furthermore, public campaigns in vacation places are likely to be influential in enhancing involvement and habit in physically active leisure. All these attempts may contribute to not only reinforcing the existing involvement and habit, but also creating new ones. Taken together, giving information and benefits, providing attractive programs to connect active leisure to active vacation or active vacation to active leisure, and establishing physical environments and policies supportive for this connection would contribute to active and healthy lifestyles.

### **Recommendation for Future Research**

Six suggestions for future research are proposed. First, it is suggested that the utility of the social connection items of leisure involvement and vacation behavior are retested using different samples. The respondent sample did not exhibit very strong social bonding or networks centered on their leisure and vacation activities. Although most respondents enjoyed talking with family or friends about their favorite leisure activity and had a high level of vacation motivation to have a good time with friends, their agreement level with the “social connection and network formed through leisure and vacation activities and a vacation” was not strong and therefore a motivation to gain “a feeling of belonging” was weak as well. Since it is not clear whether these results emerged due to the characteristics of the sample or the utility of the items, it is likely to be necessary to reinvestigate it with different target samples, particularly since socializing or social bonding motives are frequently noted in the existing tourism, leisure and sport tourism literature (Fairley & Gammon, 2005; Kyle & Chick, 2002; Smith & Turner, 1973).

Second, more in-depth studies with respect to individuals classified as sport tourists and tourist sports with a larger sample size are recommended. No difference between sport tourists

and tourist sports in their causal paths was presented, and thereby both groups were combined for the study analysis. However, Gammon and Robinson (1997) distinguished hard sport tourism (i.e., competitive sport activities) from soft sport tourism (i.e., recreational sporting activities) as well as hard tourism sport (i.e., secondary motivation) from soft tourism sport (i.e., minor form). In light of this distinction, most of the respondent sample seemed to be soft sport tourists who take part in recreational sport forms and hard tourist sports who participate in recreational sports as a secondary motivation. This may be why different patterns between sport tourists and tourist sports of the sample were not manifested in the results. Provided that a sample consists of both hard sport tourists and soft tourist sports, the causal path-relevant results between both groups might be distinct. Furthermore, this second issue might be intimately correlated with the first issue relevant to social networks mentioned above. There is a possibility that most of the family or friends of hard-core sport tourists who have high levels of commitment and take part in competitive sport events (Stebbins, 1982) could be mainly connected to their leisure and tourism activities.

Third, it is recommended that a better way to investigate the types of favorite leisure activity and vacation activity be developed for future research. Some respondents reported a combinational form of several activities even though they were asked to describe one of their most favorite activities. Consequently, it was difficult to distinguish which of the information obtained from the open-ended question was primary and which was secondary. It is acknowledged, however, that it is very hard for one activity to be selected especially for tourist sports because some of them have an equal preference for several activities, and moreover some activities are best illustrated as an aggregate form. As already mentioned in the instrument section, in the preliminary Paddle Florida study to assess the utility of a categorical multiple

choice question asking about types of favorite leisure and vacation activities, it was revealed that the categorical dimensions made it hard to provide a clear boundary between one activity and another. Consequently, for this study, an open-ended question was created in order that the weakness of the categorical question was eliminated, yet some complementary device still seems to be necessary. It would probably be better if respondents were asked to list their favorite activities in order of priority, as suggested by one of the content validity expert panelists.

Fourth, the investigation of more specific information within each segment of the Expanded Framework of Active Leisure (Figure 5-1) is recommended with a larger sample size in order to further improve marketing strategies, programs, and policies. Priestley (1995) posited that sports are good opportunities through which to experience tourism destinations, and therefore specific sports associated with specific destinations can increase the attractiveness of travel. Sports and unique cultural attractions of destinations seem to interact dynamically with each other, maintaining the balance between physical motivations and intellectual or novelty motivations in a complementary way (Hall et al., 1991; Hinch & La Barre, 2005). Accordingly, not only would personality and specific lifestyles of the respondents included in each categorical domain be important for an in-depth understanding, but information about more specific destination attributes preferred by each segment beyond two distinctions of familiarity and novelty suggested by Cohen (1972) or Zuckerman (1979). For example, for some people who want to participate in a familiar activity, visiting novel destinations, it is necessary to examine what kind of destination attributes should be provided to participate in a familiar activity and at the same time to experience a novel destination.

Furthermore, it is recommended that the influence of demographic factors such as gender, age, education, income, and nationality might affect preference for each segment in the EFAL as

well as exhibiting different patterns in the leisure-vacation connection with a larger sample size. For example, Lepp and Gibson (2008) found that males have higher novelty or sensation seeking motives than females in travel. Galloway, Mitchell, Getz, Crouch, and Ong (2008) found that higher novelty seeking people had higher income and higher education than lower novelty seeking people in wine tourism, but there was no significant difference in age. Pizam et al. (2004) found that individuals from 11 different countries were significantly different in their levels of perceived risk (Jackson, Hourany, & Vidmar, 1972) and sensation seeking (Zuckerman, 1979). Therefore, it is suggested that the influence of these characteristics are examined in relation to the active leisure-active vacation realm. Moreover, if perception of health and detailed lifestyles of the active leisure-active vacation participants are examined for future research, it would be more helpful for an in-depth understanding of their behavioral consistency.

Fifth, it is suggested that the active leisure-vacation patterns and the non-active (i.e., passive) leisure-vacation patterns be compared in terms of a causal path model. The findings showed that a positive causal relationship between leisure involvement, leisure habit, vacation motivation and vacation behavior was found with the target people who were involved in active leisure and active vacation, but would non-active leisure-vacation participants show different patterns from active leisure-vacation participants? In particular, the degree to which involvement and habit with non-active leisure activities should be examined to see if the same patterns regarding active leisure and active tourism are observed. Accordingly, it could be determined whether the extension of the leisure-tourism continuum to the non-active leisure realm would be possible. Furthermore, it will be necessary to examine psychological elements of some examples in which non-active leisure is developed leading to active leisure, and, conversely, in which active leisure leads to non-active leisure.

Finally, it is suggested that a longitudinal study should be conducted using the same variables, leisure involvement, leisure habit, vacation motivation, and vacation behavior for future research. Over long periods of time, such as consisting of one year, three years, and five years, whether people are still involved in the same favorite leisure activity and vacation activity should be investigated, and if they are still in the same leisure activity, whether their involvement and habit have been changed should be further examined. Observing how much the strength of leisure involvement and habit has changed by policies or marketing strategies supporting the leisure-tourism connection would be useful for developing new ways to encourage active and healthy lifestyles such as through the leisure-vacation link.

### **Delimitations**

This study was delimited to the members of the UF Alumni Association. This affects the generalizability of these findings in several ways. As the UF alumni sample represents a college-educated population, the findings may be generalized to other college-educated people with similar backgrounds. Also, as almost all the sample respondents were residents of the United States, this sample might be generalized to the US residents in terms of nationality. As this study used a web survey, the respondents' ability to complete the survey due to potential limitations such as Internet access might have affected the composition of the sample, because people with certain socio-demographic characteristics might be more or less likely to use the Internet. However, for this study population, this is not likely. As such, this may have further affected the generalizability of the findings.

### **Limitations**

To reduce the possible limitations that might have harmed the purity of the study, the face validity and content validity of the questionnaire were established by carefully considering details such as item wording, the order effects, social desirability (Paulhus, 1984), and response

bias. Relevant to the response rate, since a low response rate of a web-survey (Dillman, 2000) might have inhibited significant results in examining numerous parameters of structural equation modeling, a user-friendly questionnaire and a reminder were employed to help overcome this potential limitation.

However, regarding the open-ended questions that requested the respondents to identify one favorite leisure activity and one favorite vacation activity, a few of the respondents identified a number of activities, which made it hard to distinguish between primary and secondary activities. Thus, the first named activity was treated as the favorite activity in each case and activities listed thereafter were treated as secondary activities. This might influence the internal validity of the data and ultimately the results related to the other constructs such as involvement, habit, motivation, and behavior that were subsequently connected to the types of favorite leisure and vacation activities. However, as involvement, habit, motivation, and behavior are subjectively perceived, it is assumed that individuals who have more than one favorite leisure activity or vacation activity would be consistent in their subjective evaluations of these activities.

### **Conclusion**

This study examined the ways active leisure is associated with active vacations, using leisure involvement, leisure habit, vacation motivation and vacation behavior as explanatory constructs. The study confirmed the multidimensionality of each construct using CFA models and further found a significant causal relationship between the four psychological and behavioral constructs, upholding previous theoretical assumptions concerning the leisure-tourism continuum (Carr, 2002; Currie, 1997) using measurement models and structural equation models. Distinct from Brey and Lehto's (2007) study, this study provided empirical evidence that psychological connections between leisure and tourism exist beyond behavioral patterns. Furthermore, in a more specific way, analyzing the psychological and behavioral patterns between favorite leisure

and vacation activities, this study not only established the Expanded Framework of Active Leisure (EFAL) and contributed to a growing body of knowledge on sport tourism, but also offered practical suggestions as to how applied areas should develop further marketing strategies, vacation programs, and relevant policies for sport tourists and tourist sports on the active leisure-vacation continuum.

Almost thirty years ago, Glyptis (1982) predicted the growing popularity of recreational forms of active sport tourism rather than large scale competitive event sports and passive sport tourism. Consistent with her anticipation, most respondents of this study sample, which was randomly selected from a more general population instead of being selected from sport tourist samples belonging to certain events or places, fell into the soft sport tourist and hard tourist sport domains (Gammon & Robinson, 1997). Sports, coupled with unique cultural and natural attractions of destinations, seem to be more attractive stimuli to those people who want to maintain their active values in a recreational sporting form. However, gaining more detailed information germane to the destination attributes preferred by each segmented group in the EFAL will be essential for future research with a particular focus on the novelty and familiarity preferences of the different sport tourists and tourist sports. In addition, it is suggested that social components of the psychological constructs and intellectual vacation motivation be retested, using larger, different samples, possibly consisting of different types of sport tourists such as hard sport tourists and soft tourist sports.

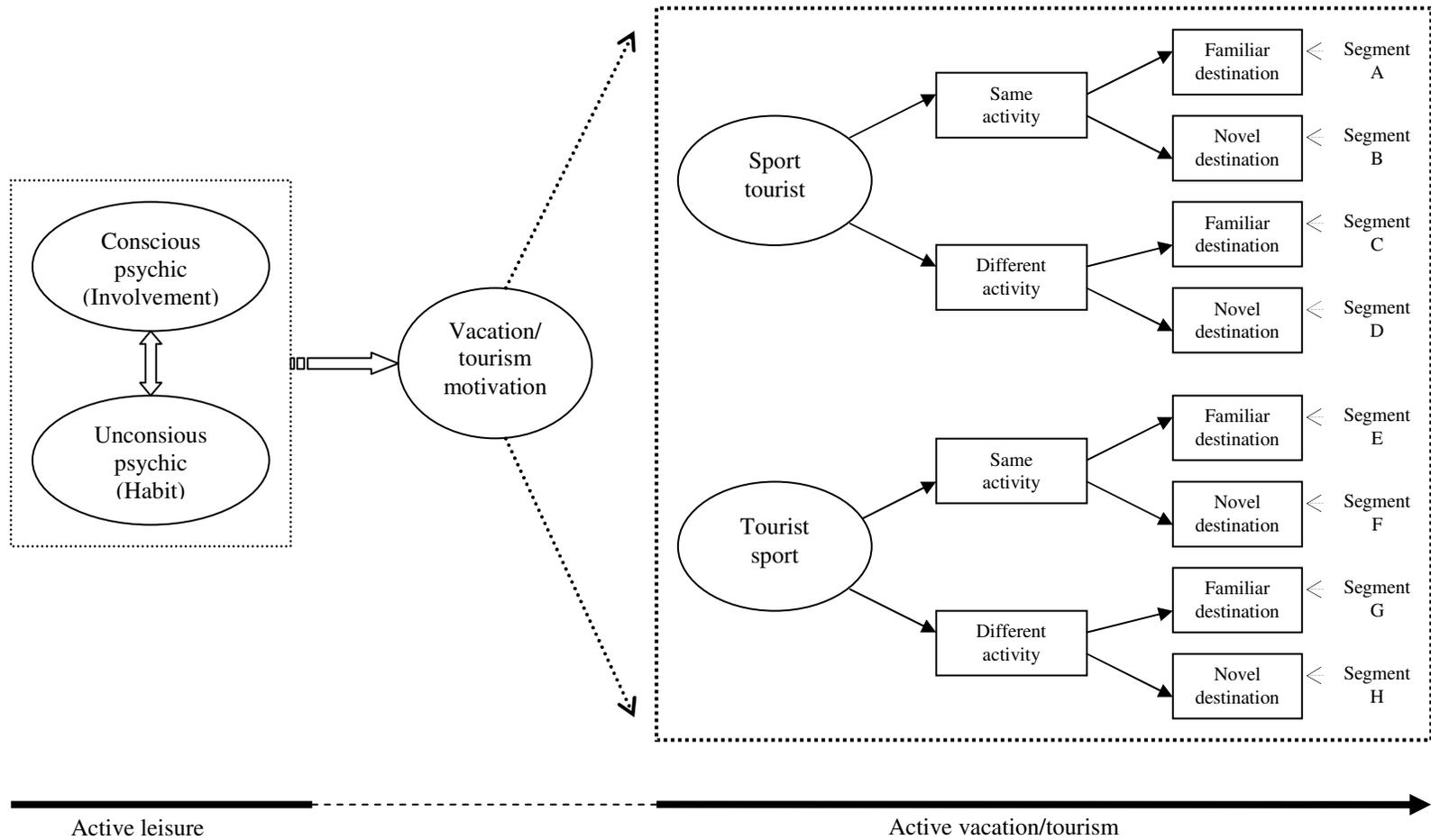


Figure 5-1. Expanded framework of active leisure (EFAL)

APPENDIX A  
DEFINITIONS OF INVOLVEMENT

Authors	Areas	Definitions of involvement
Johnson and Eagly (1989)	Social psychology	Motivational state induced by an association between an activated attitude and some aspect of the self-concept
Day (1970)	Marketing	The general level of interest in the object or the centrality of the object to the persons' ego-structure
Robertson (1976)	Marketing	Strength of the individual's belief system with regard to a product or brand
Houston and Rothschild (1978)	Marketing	Situational involvement is an ability of a situation to elicit from individuals concern for their behavior in that situation. Enduring involvement reflects the strength of the preexisting relationship between an individual and the situation in which behavior will occur. Response involvement is the complexity or extensiveness of cognitive and behavioral processes characterizing the overall consumer decision process.
Mitchell (1979)	Marketing	An internal state variable that indicates the amount of arousal, interest, or drive evoked by a particular stimulus or situation
Bloch (1981)	Marketing	An unobservable state reflecting the amount of interest, arousal or emotional attachment evoked by the product in a particular individual
Rothschild (1984)	Marketing	A state of motivations, arousal, or interest, which exists in a process driven by current external variables and past internal variables
Manfredo (1989)	Marketing	The degree of interest in the product and the affective response associated with it
Selin and Howard (1988)	Leisure	The state of identification existing between an individual and a recreational activity, at one point in time, characterized by some level of enjoyment and self expression being achieved through the activity
Havitz and Dimanche (1997)	Leisure	An unobservable state of motivations, arousal or interest toward a recreational activity and have developed multidimensional scales for leisure involvement construct premised on leisure activities
Shaw and Havitz (1999)	Leisure	A relatively enduring attitude or value consisting of several sub-dimensions
Kyle and Chick (2002)	Leisure	A cognitive link between the self and stimulus object

APPENDIX B  
INSTITUTIONAL REVIEW BOARD APPROVAL FOR CONTENT VALIDITY



PO Box 112250  
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DATE: May 21, 2008

TO: Seohee Chang  
PO Box 118208  
Campus

FROM: Ira S. Fischler, PhD, Chair *ISF*  
University of Florida  
Institutional Review Board 02

SUBJECT: Approval of Protocol #2008-U-0532

TITLE: Content validity for survey items measuring the relationship between active leisure and active vacations

SPONSOR: None

I am pleased to advise you that the University of Florida Institutional Review Board has recommended approval of this protocol. Based on its review, the UFIRB determined that this research presents no more than minimal risk to participants, and based on 45 CFR 46.117(c), authorizes you to administer the informed consent process as specified in the protocol.

If you wish to make any changes to this protocol, ***including the need to increase the number of participants authorized***, you must disclose your plans before you implement them so that the Board can assess their impact on your protocol. In addition, you must report to the Board any unexpected complications that affect your participants.

If you have not completed this protocol by **May 16, 2009**, please telephone our office (392-0433), and we will discuss the renewal process with you. It is important that you keep your Department Chair informed about the status of this research protocol.

ISF:dl

## **The Relationship between Active Leisure and Active Vacation (tourism)**

DEPARTMENT OF TOURISM, RECREATION & SPORT MANAGEMENT

UNIVERSITY OF FLORIDA

### **UF-IRB Informed Consent**

Please read carefully before participating in this study.

This study is to establish the content validity for the survey items for understanding the relationship between active leisure and active vacation (tourism) behaviors. More specifically this study will assess the content validity of the various scales measuring leisure involvement, leisure habit, vacation (tourism) motivation, and vacation (tourism) behavior. The process will take you between 10 to 15 minutes. Participation in the expert panel is voluntary, but your evaluation and feedback is extremely important for establishing the content validity. There are no "correct" or "incorrect" answers in the survey, so please evaluate the survey items for the content validity based on your knowledge.

Benefits from this study include establishing the content validity for the future study to measure the relationship between leisure involvement and habit, vacation (tourism) motivation and vacation (tourism) behavior. Specifically, it is expected that your evaluation and feedback on the scales will contribute to the future academic study to study the relationship between active leisure and active vacation behavior. The survey is confidential; your confidentiality will be protected to the extent provided by law.

Your participation in this study is voluntary and you have the right not to answer any questions. There is no penalty for not participating and you are free to withdraw at anytime without penalty. There are no risks associated with participation in this study. There is no compensation for your participation in the study.

Approved by  
University of Florida  
Institutional Review Board 02  
Protocol # 2008-U-0532  
For Use Through 05/16/2009

If you have any questions concerning this study, please contact:

Seohee Chang,  
Ph.D. Candidate  
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Or my university supervisor:

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Whom to contact about your rights as a research participant in this study:

UFIRB Office  
Box 112250  
University of Florida  
Gainesville, FL 32611-2250  
Phone: (352) 392-0433

Approved by  
University of Florida  
Institutional Review Board 02  
Protocol # 2008-U-0532  
For Use Through 05/16/2009

E-Mail Contact for the Content Validity of the Questionnaire Measuring  
the Relationship between Active Leisure and Active Vacation (tourism)

Dear Name,

My name is Seohee Chang I am a Ph.D candidate in the Department of Tourism, Recreation, and Sport Management at the University of Florida. As part of the instrument development for my dissertation I am requesting your help in establishing the content validity of my survey. The overall purpose of my dissertation is to examine the relationship between active leisure and preference for active vacations using the constructs of leisure involvement, leisure habit, vacation (tourism) motivation, and vacation (tourism) behavior.

More specific information about the study purpose, the hypotheses and the proposed sample for this study are provided with the questionnaire in the attached file. Your help will be very valuable and is much appreciated. If you want to know more information about my study, please let me know and I will be happy to provide you with more details.

If you agree to be a member of the panel of experts, please open the word file attached to this e-mail and you will see the informed consent form. Please read this before you proceed with the content validity process. I anticipate that the process will take you between 10 and 15 minutes.

If possible, I would like to receive your feedback by June 10, 2008.

If you have any questions, please contact me at [schang@hhp.ufl.edu](mailto:schang@hhp.ufl.edu) or my advisor, Dr. Heather Gibson at [hgibson@hhp.ufl.edu](mailto:hgibson@hhp.ufl.edu)

Thank you very much.

Sincerely

Seohee Chang, Ph.D Candidate  
University of Florida

Approved by  
University of Florida  
Institutional Review Board 02  
Protocol # 2008-U-0532  
For Use Through 05/16/2009

APPENDIX C  
SURVEY INSTRUMENT FOR CONTENT VALIDITY

**SECTION 1: Leisure Activity**

**Leisure activities refer to those activities you choose to take part in during your free time, usually close to home. While you choose several favorite leisure activities, we ask you to identify one that is your favorite activity.**

**Leisure Activity** : This question is related to a screening process for selecting active leisure

1. What is your favorite type of leisure activity? Please determine one activity and describe it in a specific way as much as you can ( )

**Leisure Involvement** : Adopted from Gahwiler & Havitz (1998), Kyle et al. (2004), Kim, et al. (1997), and Prichard et al. (1999)

2. Here is a list of leisure involvement to understand how you are involved in your favorite leisure activity identified in Question 1. How much do you disagree or agree with the following statements? (*Please select ONE response per statement*) (This is 7point Likert style scale: Strongly disagree-Strongly agree)

**Evaluation for the Content Validity**

**5=Excellent, 4=Good, 3=Acceptable, 2=Poor, 1=Unacceptable**

		<b>Relevance</b>	<b>Representativeness</b>	<b>Clarity</b>
<b>Factor 1 Hedonic (Emotional)</b>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• My favorite leisure activity is pleasurable</li> <li>• I really enjoy my favorite leisure activity</li> <li>• Participating in my favorite leisure activity is one of the most satisfying things that I do</li> </ul>			
<b>Factor 2 Centrality</b>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• I attach great importance to my favorite leisure activity</li> <li>• My favorite leisure activity interests me a lot</li> <li>• I find a lot of my life is organized around my favorite leisure activity</li> <li>• My favorite leisure activity has a central role in my life</li> <li>• I would rather do my favorite leisure activity than do most anything else</li> <li>• My favorite leisure activity reflects my life styles</li> </ul>			

**Evaluation for the Content Validity**  
**5=Excellent, 4=Good, 3=Acceptable, 2=Poor, 1=Unacceptable**

	<b>Relevance</b>	<b>Representativeness</b>	<b>Clarity</b>
<b>Factor 3 Social</b>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Most of my friends are in some way connected with my favorite leisure activity</li> <li>• I enjoy discussing my favorite leisure activity with my friends and family</li> <li>• Most of my family members are in some way connected with my favorite leisure activity</li> <li>• My favorite leisure activity provides the chance to socialize with my friends</li> </ul>		
<b>Factor 4 Self-identity</b>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• My favorite leisure activity reflects who I am</li> <li>• My participation in my favorite leisure activity tells something about me</li> <li>• I can tell things about a person by seeing them participating in the favorite leisure activity</li> <li>• When I participate in my favorite leisure activity, others see me the way I want them to see me</li> </ul>		
<b>Factor 5 Risk</b>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• It is not complicated to choose my favorite leisure activity over other activities</li> <li>• Whenever I participate in my favorite leisure activity, I am confident that it is the right activity choice</li> <li>• When I mistakenly choose to do other activities instead of my favorite leisure activity, it really matters to me</li> <li>• If I participated in my favorite leisure activity and my choice proved to be poor, I would be upset</li> </ul>		

**Leisure Habit:** Self-reported habit scale developed by Verplanken & Orbell (2003)

3. Here is a list of leisure habit to understand how you are behaviorally involved in your favorite leisure activity. How much do you disagree or agree with the following statements? (This is 7point Likert style scale: Strongly disagree-Strongly agree)

**Evaluation for the Content Validity**  
**5=Excellent, 4=Good, 3=Acceptable, 2=Poor, 1=Unacceptable**

		<b>Relevance</b>	<b>Representativeness</b>	<b>Clarity</b>
<b>Factor 1 Regularity</b>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• I take part in this leisure activity frequently</li> <li>• I have been taking part in this leisure activity for a long time</li> <li>• This leisure activity belongs to my routine</li> <li>• This leisure activity is typically "me"</li> </ul>			
<b>Factor 2 Automaticity</b>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• I do this leisure activity automatically</li> <li>• I do this leisure activity without thinking</li> <li>• I start doing this leisure activity before I realize I am doing it</li> <li>• I do this leisure activity without having to consciously remember</li> <li>• I do not need an effort to think about doing this leisure activity</li> </ul>			
<b>Factor 3 Resistance</b>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• This leisure activity would require effort not to do it</li> <li>• I would find it hard not to take part in this leisure activity</li> <li>• This leisure activity makes me feel weird if I do not do it</li> </ul>			

**Leisure Activity Participation Pattern**

4. How many times on average during the last year (the past 12 months) have you participated in your favorite leisure activity?

1 = Everyday

2 = About 2-3 times a week

3 = Once a week

4 = About 2-3 times a month

5 = About once a month or less

6 = A few times a year or less

7 = Never

5. How often in the last week did you participate in your favorite leisure activity?

- |                   |                     |
|-------------------|---------------------|
| 1 = Everyday      | 5 = 3days a week    |
| 2 = 6 days a week | 6 = 1-2 days a week |
| 3 = 5 days a week | 7 = Never           |
| 4 = 4 days a week |                     |

6. How much time (hours/minutes) per one incidence do you usually participate in your favorite leisure activity?

- |                          |                           |
|--------------------------|---------------------------|
| 1 = Never                | 5= 91-120 minutes         |
| 2 = Less than 30 minutes | 6 =121-150 minutes        |
| 3 = 30-60 minutes        | 7 = More than 150 minutes |
| 4 = 61-90 minutes        |                           |

### Leisure Activity Participation During Vacation

7. Would you say your vacations are related to your favorite leisure activity?

- |                      |                             |
|----------------------|-----------------------------|
| 1 = All the time     | 4 = About half the time     |
| 2 = Almost all time  | 5 = Less than half the time |
| 3 = Most of the time | 6 = Not at all              |

8. How many times have you participated in your favorite leisure activity during vacations in the past five years?

- |            |                |                  |           |
|------------|----------------|------------------|-----------|
| 1 = Always | 2 = Frequently | 3 = Occasionally | 4 = Never |
|------------|----------------|------------------|-----------|

9. Do you intend to participate in your favorite leisure activity during your vacations in the next five years?

- |               |    |    |    |   |   |   |   |               |
|---------------|----|----|----|---|---|---|---|---------------|
| Certainly not | -3 | -2 | -1 | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | Certainly yes |
|---------------|----|----|----|---|---|---|---|---------------|

10. How likely is it that you are going to participate in your favorite leisure activity for your vacations in the next five years?

- |               |    |    |    |   |   |   |   |             |
|---------------|----|----|----|---|---|---|---|-------------|
| Very unlikely | -3 | -2 | -1 | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | Very likely |
|---------------|----|----|----|---|---|---|---|-------------|

### SECTION 2: Vacation/Tourism Activity

**Vacation activities refer to those activities you take part in when you travel away from your home for a vacation. While you may have several favorite vacation activities, we ask you to identify one that is your favorite activity (e.g., skiing, hiking, shopping, sightseeing, etc).**

**Vacation Activity :** This question is related to a screening process for selecting active vacation

11. What is your favorite type of vacation activity? If your favorite vacation activity is same as your favorite leisure activity, please describe the same activity ( )

**Vacation/Tourism Motivation** : Leisure Motivation Scale (shorter version, 32 items) developed by Beard & Ragheb (1983) which has been applied to vacation/tourism motivation in many studies and has gained validity and reliability (Ryan & Glendon, 1998)

12. Here is a list of motivations or reasons for choosing to take part in your favorite vacation activity. How much do you disagree or agree with the following statements? (This is 7point Likert style scale: Strongly disagree-Strongly agree)

**Evaluation for the Content Validity**  
**5=Excellent, 4=Good, 3=Acceptable, 2=Poor, 1=Unacceptable**

		<b>Relevance</b>	<b>Representativeness</b>	<b>Clarity</b>
<b>Factor 1 Social</b>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• To build friendships with others</li> <li>• To interact with others</li> <li>• To develop close friendships</li> <li>• To meet new and different people</li> <li>• To reveal my thoughts, feelings, or physical skills to others</li> <li>• To be socially competent and skillful</li> <li>• To gain a feeling of belonging</li> <li>• To gain other's respect</li> </ul>			
<b>Factor 2 Competence/ Mastery</b>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• To challenge my abilities</li> <li>• To be good in doing them</li> <li>• To improve my skill and ability in doing them</li> <li>• To be active</li> <li>• To develop physical skills and abilities</li> <li>• To keep in shape physically</li> <li>• To use my physical abilities</li> <li>• To develop physical fitness</li> </ul>			
<b>Factor 3 Stimulus-Avoidance</b>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• To slow down</li> <li>• Because I sometimes like to be alone</li> <li>• To relax physically</li> <li>• To relax mentally</li> <li>• To avoid the hustle and bustle of daily activities</li> <li>• To rest</li> <li>• To relieve stress and tension</li> <li>• To unstructure my time</li> </ul>			

**Evaluation for the Content Validity**

**5=Excellent, 4=Good, 3=Acceptable, 2=Poor, 1=Unacceptable**

		<b>Relevance</b>	<b>Representativeness</b>	<b>Clarity</b>
<b>Factor 4 Intellectual</b>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• To learn about things around me</li> <li>• To satisfy my curiosity</li> <li>• To explore new ideas</li> <li>• To learn about myself</li> <li>• To expand my knowledge</li> <li>• To discover new things</li> <li>• To be creative</li> <li>• To use my imagination</li> </ul>			

**Vacation/Tourism Behaviors:** Vacation Behavior items adopted from Leisure Participation Scale developed by Ragheb & Tate (1993), Self-Report Leisure Behavior items developed by Stanton-Rich & Iso-Ahola (1998). Vacation Decisional Behavior items adapted from Decisional Involvement Scale developed by Verplanken, Aarts, vanKnippenberg, & vanKnippenberg (1994).

13. Here is a list related to vacation behavior to understand how regularly you take part in your favorite vacation activity. How much do you disagree or agree with the following statements? (This is 7point Likert style scale: Strongly disagree-Strongly agree)

**Evaluation for the Content Validity**

**5=Excellent, 4=Good, 3=Acceptable, 2=Poor, 1=Unacceptable**

<b>Vacation Participation</b>		<b>Relevance</b>	<b>Representativeness</b>	<b>Clarity</b>
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• I take an adequate amount of vacation to take part in my favorite vacation activity each year</li> <li>• I schedule vacation related to my favorite vacation activity regularly</li> <li>• I have a network of friends with whom I travel to take part in my favorite vacation activity</li> <li>• Whenever I take a vacation, I am usually involved in my favorite vacation activity</li> <li>• Whenever I take a vacation, I usually take a chance to improve my favorite vacation activity</li> <li>• Whenever I visit my family and friends, I usually spend time taking part in my favorite vacation activity with them</li> </ul>				

14. Here is a list of decisional behaviors related to taking part in your favorite vacation activity. How much do you disagree or agree with the following statements? (This is 7point Likert style scale: Strongly disagree-Strongly agree)

**Evaluation for the Content Validity**  
**5=Excellent, 4=Good, 3=Acceptable, 2=Poor, 1=Unacceptable**

<b>Vacation Decisional Behavior</b>	<b>Relevance</b>	<b>Representativeness</b>	<b>Clarity</b>
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• The trips that immediately come to mind are usually related to my favorite vacation activity</li> <li>• There is no doubt in my mind about taking part in my favorite vacation activity</li> <li>• I think it is useless to expend time and energy finding out about other activities instead of my favorite vacation activity</li> <li>• I usually expend effort finding out which place is the best to take part in my favorite vacation activity</li> <li>• I usually find detailed information about taking part in my favorite vacation activity</li> <li>• The trips that immediately come to mind are usually related to my favorite vacation activity</li> </ul>			

15. When you take part in your favorite vacation activity, do you prefer familiar destinations or new destinations?                      1=Familiar destinations                      2=New destinations

**16. DEMOGRAPHICS**

- 1) Are you?    1= Male, 2= Female
- 2) In what year were you born? \_\_\_\_\_Year
- 3) Which of the following broad categories best describes your total income from all sources in 2007?
 

1= \$30,000 or less	4= \$70,001 to \$90,000
2= \$30,001 to \$50,000	5= \$90,001 or more
3= \$50,001 to \$70,000	
- 4) What is the highest level of education you have completed?
 

1= Some College	3= Technical College
2= College Degree	4= Advanced Degree
- 5) How would you describe your current employment status? (Select all that apply)
 

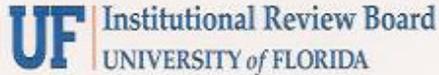
1=Employed full-time	5=Unemployed
2=Employed part-time	6=Retired
3=Full time student	7=Other (please specify:_____)
4=Part-time student	

- 6) What is your racial or ethnic background?  
1=Black, not of Hispanic origin      5=Hispanic  
2=Native American or American Indian      6=Multiracial  
3=Asian or Pacific Islander      7=Other (please specify: \_\_\_\_\_)  
4=White, not of Hispanic origin
- 7) Where do you live (your permanent residence)?  
US Residents: State \_\_\_\_\_ Zip Code \_\_\_\_\_  
Other countries: Country \_\_\_\_\_ City: \_\_\_\_\_

**Thank you for taking the survey!**

**Comments or Suggestions Related to Content Validity**

APPENDIX D  
INSTITUTIONAL REVIEW BOARD APPROVAL FOR THE STUDY SAMPLE



PO Box 112250  
Gainesville, FL 32611-2250  
352-392-0433 (Phone)  
352-392-9234 (Fax)  
irb2@ufl.edu

---

DATE: October 10, 2008

TO: Seohee Chang, PhD  
P.O. Box 118208  
Campus

FROM: Ira S. Fischler, PhD, Chair *ISF*  
University of Florida  
Institutional Review Board 02

SUBJECT: Approval of Protocol #2008-U-917

TITLE: The Relationship between leisure activities and vacation activities

SPONSOR: None

I am pleased to advise you that the University of Florida Institutional Review Board has recommended approval of this protocol. Based on its review, the UFIRB determined that this research presents no more than minimal risk to participants, and based on 45 CFR 46.117(c), An IRB may waive the requirement for the investigator to obtain a signed consent form for some or all subjects if it finds either: (1) *That the only record linking the subject and the research would be the consent document and the principal risk would be potential harm resulting from a breach of confidentiality. Each subject will be asked whether the subject wants documentation linking the subject with the research, and the subject's wishes will govern;* or (2) *That the research presents no more than minimal risk of harm to subjects and involves no procedures for which written consent is normally required outside of the research context.*

The IRB authorizes you to administer the informed consent process as specified in the protocol. If you wish to make any changes to this protocol, **including the need to increase the number of participants authorized**, you must disclose your plans before you implement them so that the Board can assess their impact on your protocol. In addition, you must report to the Board any unexpected complications that affect your participants.

If you have not completed this protocol by **October 5, 2009**, please telephone our office (392-0433), and we will discuss the renewal process with you. It is important that you keep your Department Chair informed about the status of this research protocol.

ISF:dl

## Leisure and Vacation Activities Survey

DEPARTMENT OF TOURISM, RECREATION & SPORT MANAGEMENT

UNIVERSITY OF FLORIDA

**UF-IRB Informed Consent**

**For Web survey**

Please read carefully before participating in this study. This study examines your involvement, participation in, and motivation for your favorite leisure and vacation activities. The study involves answering a short online questionnaire that will take about 10-12 minutes to complete. The survey is voluntary, but your input is extremely important. There are no "correct" or "incorrect" answers in the survey.

Benefits from this study include understanding your leisure activity involvement and habits, vacation motivations and vacation behaviors. Specifically, it is expected that your responses will contribute to a doctoral dissertation investigating the experiences of individuals who participate in leisure and vacation activities and the contribution to quality of life.

There is no compensation for completing the questionnaire, but your input is extremely important. The survey is confidential and your responses will not be linked to your name. Your responses will be kept on a secure server at UF.

Your participation in this study is voluntary and you have the right not to answer any questions. There is no penalty for not participating and you are free to withdraw at anytime without penalty. There are no risks associated with participation in this study.

**-PLEASE CLICK ON THE LINK BELOW TO ACCESS OUR SURVEY  
MAKE SURE YOU CLICK ON THE SUBMIT BUTTON LOCATED AT THE END OF THE SURVEY IN  
ORDER FOR US TO BE ABLE TO RECORD YOUR OPINIONS-**

If you have any questions concerning this study, please contact:

Seohee Chang,  
Ph.D. Candidate  
Department of Tourism, Recreation and Sport Management  
206 I Florida Gym, P.O. Box 118208  
University of Florida  
Gainesville, FL 32611-8208  
Email: [schang@hhp.ufl.edu](mailto:schang@hhp.ufl.edu)  
Phone: (352) 392-4042 ext. 1386.

Approved by  
University of Florida  
Institutional Review Board 02  
Protocol # 2008-U-0917  
For Use Through 10/05/2009

Any further questions can be directed to my university supervisor: Dr. Heather Gibson,  
Department of Tourism, Recreation and Sport Management, 304 Florida Gym, P.O. Box 118208,  
University of Florida, Gainesville, FL 32611-8208, Email: [hgibson@hhp.ufl.edu](mailto:hgibson@hhp.ufl.edu), Phone: (352)  
392-4042 ext. 1249.

Questions regarding your rights as a participant in this project should be directed to the UFIRB  
office, P.O. Box 112250, University of Florida, Gainesville, FL 32611-2250, Phone: (352) 392-  
0433.

Approved by  
University of Florida  
Institutional Review Board 02  
Protocol # 2008-U-0917  
For Use Through 10/05/2009

## E-Mail Contact for the Leisure and Vacation Activities Survey

Dear Name,

My name is Seohee Chang. I am a Ph.D. candidate in the College of Health and Human Performance at the University of Florida and an UF alumni member like you. I know this is an unexpected email message, but I would like to ask for your help. I am conducting research for my doctoral dissertation investigating the relationship between leisure activity and vacation behavior. Participation in my study will take about 10-12 minutes and will involve answering an online questionnaire.

Below is the link for the questionnaire and the informed consent for this study. Please read the informed consent and keep a copy of the contact information. The questionnaire is posted online and the link for the survey can be found at the end of the informed consent form.

Please click on the link and access the online survey (**Please right click on the link and choose the option "open the hyperlink"**). Please fill out the questionnaire by typing in the responses, and then click "submit" at the end of the questionnaire. Please only click "submit" once otherwise you will submit your questionnaire multiple times.

Your help is very important and much appreciated. If you would like to know more about this study or if you would like to see a summary of the results please contact me at [schang@hhp.ufl.edu](mailto:schang@hhp.ufl.edu) or by phone at (352) 392-4042 ext. 1386.

### GO GATORS!!!

Thank you very much.

Seohee Chang

Ph.D. candidate  
Department of Tourism, Recreation and Sport Management  
206 I Florida Gym, P.O. Box 118208  
University of Florida  
Gainesville, FL 32611-8208  
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Approved by  
University of Florida  
Institutional Review Board 02  
Protocol # 2008-U-0917  
For Use Through 10/05/2009

APPENDIX E  
SURVEY INSTRUMENT FOR THE STUDY SAMPLE

**SECTION 1: Leisure Activities**

**Leisure activities refer to those activities you choose to take part in during your free time, usually close to home. While you may have several favorite leisure activities, we ask you to choose one as your favorite activity for the purpose of this questionnaire.**

1. What is your favorite leisure activity? Please specify **one** favorite leisure activity  
\_\_\_\_\_.
  
2. These questions ask about your involvement in the leisure activity you identified in Question 1. Please rate each statement using this 7-point scale: 1= strongly disagree (SD), 2= disagree, 3= somewhat disagree, 4= neither agree nor disagree (N), 5= somewhat agree, 6= agree, 7= strongly agree (SA).

	Strongly disagree			Neither			Strongly agree
	▼	▼	▼	▼	▼	▼	▼
I enjoy discussing my favorite leisure activity with my friends or family	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Participation in my favorite leisure activity says something about me	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
My favorite leisure activity has a central role in my life	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Participating in my favorite leisure activity is one of the most satisfying things I do	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
My favorite leisure activity reflects my lifestyle	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Other people see an important side of me when I participate in my favorite leisure activity	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Most of my friends or family members are in some way connected to my favorite leisure activity	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I attach great importance to my favorite leisure activity	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
When I participate in my favorite leisure activity, others see me in the way I want them to see me	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I really enjoy my favorite leisure activity	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I would rather do my favorite leisure activity than do most anything else	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
My favorite leisure activity provides the chance to socialize with my friends or family	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
My favorite leisure activity reflects who I am	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I find a lot of my life is organized around my favorite leisure activity	1	2	3	4	5	6	7



**Leisure Activity Participation During Vacation (i.e., when you travel away from your home for pleasure and stay for at least one night)**

7. How frequently do you take part in your favorite leisure activity during your vacations regardless of the primary purpose of your vacation?
- 1) All the time                                      4) About half the time  
 2) Almost all of the time                      5) Less than half the time  
 3) Most of the time                                6) Not at all
8. Will your favorite leisure activity be the main purpose of your vacations over the next 5 years?
- Certainly not    -3    -2    -1    0    1    2    3    Certainly yes
9. How often has your favorite leisure activity been the main purpose of your vacation over the past 5 years?
- 1) Always 2) Frequently 3) Occasionally 4) Never
10. How much do you think your favorite leisure activity influences your vacation type and activities?
- 1) Not influential at all 2) Somewhat influential 3) Very influential 4) Extremely influential
11. How likely is it that your favorite leisure activity will be the main purpose of your vacation over the next 5 years?
- Very unlikely    -3    -2    -1    0    1    2    3    Very likely

**SECTION 2: Vacation Activities**

**Vacation activities refer to those activities you take part in when you travel away from your home for a vacation (i.e. for pleasure and stay for at least one night). While you may have several favorite vacation activities, we ask you to identify one that is your favorite activity (e.g., skiing, hiking, shopping, sightseeing, visiting family and friends, visiting cultural heritage sites, etc).**

**Vacation Activity**

12. What is your favorite vacation activity? (Your favorite **vacation** activity may or may not be the same as your favorite **leisure** activity) Please specify one activity \_\_\_\_\_.

**Vacation Motivation**

13. These questions ask about your motivations or reasons for choosing to take part in your favorite vacation activity (the activity you identified in Question 12). Please rate each statement using the 7 point scale.

	Strongly disagree		Neither			Strongly agree	
	▼	▼	▼	▼	▼	▼	▼
<i>I participate in my favorite vacation activity.....</i>							
To build friendships with others	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
To develop physical skills and abilities	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

	Strongly disagree		Neither				Strongly agree	
	▼	▼	▼	▼	▼	▼	▼	
<i>I participate in my favorite vacation activity.....</i>								
To rest	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
To learn about things around me	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
To interact with others	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
To be active	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
To relax mentally	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
To discover new things	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
To develop physical fitness	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
To have a good time with friends	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
To expand my knowledge	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
To avoid the hustle and bustle of daily activities	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
To develop close friendships	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
To use my physical abilities	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
To explore new ideas	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
To relax physically	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
To gain a feeling of belonging	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
To keep in shape physically	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	

**Vacation Behaviors**

14. These questions ask about your vacation behavior related to your favorite vacation activity (the activity you identified in Question 12). Please rate each statement using the 7 point scale.

	Strongly disagree		Neither				Strongly agree	
	▼	▼	▼	▼	▼	▼	▼	
I spend an adequate amount of my vacation participating in my favorite vacation activity each year	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
I schedule vacations related to my favorite vacation activity regularly	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
I have a network of friends/family with whom I travel to take part in my favorite vacation activity	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
Whenever I take a vacation, I am usually involved in my favorite vacation activity	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
Whenever I take a vacation, I usually take the chance to improve my favorite vacation activity skills	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
Whenever I visit my family/friends, I usually spend time taking part in my favorite vacation activity with them	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	

15. These questions ask about your decisions related to taking part in your favorite vacation activity (the activity you identified in Question 12). Please rate each statement using the 7 point scale.

	Strongly disagree			Neither			Strongly agree
	▼	▼	▼	▼	▼	▼	▼
The vacation trips that immediately come to mind are usually related to my favorite vacation activity	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
There is no doubt in my mind about taking part in my favorite vacation activity	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I think it is frustrating to expend time and energy finding out about other activities instead of my favorite vacation activity	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I usually expend effort finding out which place is the best to take part in my favorite vacation activity	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I attempt to find detailed information about taking part in my favorite vacation activity	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

16. While you visit family or friends during a vacation, what kinds of activities do you usually take part in? Please specify \_\_\_\_\_.
17. When you take part in your favorite vacation activity, do you prefer familiar destinations (i.e. places you have visited before) or new destinations?  
 1) Familiar destinations    2) New destinations
18. In an average year, how many vacations do you take?  
 1) None    2) 1    3) 2-3    4) 4-5    5) 6-7    6) 8 or more  
 → If you answered **none** to Question 18, **please go to Question 22.**
19. How long is your typical vacation?  
 1) 1-2 days            4) 1-2 weeks  
 2) 3-6 days            5) 3-4 weeks  
 3) 1 week              6) Other (please specify:\_\_\_\_\_)
20. Who typically accompanies you on vacation?  
 1) Alone    2) Friends    3) Family    4) Others (please specify:\_\_\_\_\_)
21. Do you travel as part of a special interest group (e.g., ski clubs, golfing buddies, Alumni Association)?    1) No    2) Yes  
 21-1. If yes, what type of group? \_\_\_\_\_  
 21-2. If yes, in an average year how many vacations do you take with this group?  
 1) None    2) 1    3) 2-3    4) 4-5    5) 6-7    6) 8 or more

### SECTION 3: Demographics

Now a few questions to help us interpret your responses.

22. Are you? 1) Male 2) Female
23. In what year were you born? \_\_\_\_\_Year
24. What is the highest level of education you have completed?
- |                         |                                 |
|-------------------------|---------------------------------|
| 1) High school graduate | 5) Master's degree              |
| 2) Technical college    | 6) M.D./J.D. or equivalent      |
| 3) Some college         | 7) Ph. D./ Ed. D. or equivalent |
| 4) Bachelor's degree    | 8) Other (please specify:_____) |
25. How would you describe your current employment status? (select all that apply)
- |                       |                                 |
|-----------------------|---------------------------------|
| 1) Employed full-time | 5) Unemployed                   |
| 2) Employed part-time | 6) Retired                      |
| 3) Full time student  | 7) Other (please specify:_____) |
| 4) Part time student  |                                 |
26. Which of the following categories best describes your total income from all sources in 2007? (If your income is not in US dollars, please check the corresponding amount when converted to US dollars).
- |                         |                           |
|-------------------------|---------------------------|
| 1) \$30,000 or less     | 5) \$90,001 to \$110,000  |
| 2) \$30,001 to \$50,000 | 6) \$110,001 to \$130,000 |
| 3) \$50,001 to \$70,000 | 7) \$130,001 to \$150,000 |
| 4) \$70,001 to \$90,000 | 8) \$150,001 or more      |
27. What is your racial or ethnic background?
- |                                  |                                       |
|----------------------------------|---------------------------------------|
| 1) White, not of Hispanic origin | 5) Native American or American Indian |
| 2) Hispanic                      | 6) Multiracial                        |
| 3) Black, not of Hispanic origin | 7) Other (please specify :_____)      |
| 4) Asian or Pacific Islander     |                                       |
28. Where do you live (your permanent residence)?  
US Residents: State \_\_\_\_\_ Zip Code \_\_\_\_\_  
Other countries: Country \_\_\_\_\_ City: \_\_\_\_\_

**Thank you for your participation.**

**Please click "*submit*" to complete this survey.**

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## BIOGRAPHICAL SKETCH

Seohee Chang studied French at Hanyoung Foreign Language High School (HYFL), Seoul, Korea, and Portuguese and Spanish at the Hankuk University of Foreign Studies (HUFS), Seoul, Korea. A motivation to connect her interests in foreign languages and cultures to tourism arose from when she traveled to many foreign countries and worked in the Brazilian airline company. Her desire to obtain in-depth knowledge about tourism pushed her to keep studying in the graduate school of the Department of Tourism Science at Hanyang University, Seoul, Korea. During this program, her research was specific to product development and marketing strategies of cultural and health tourism. She worked on the project titled “The Development of a Cultural Town Combined with Healthcare Tourism,” working as a research assistant for Dr. Sohn and received a master’s degree with her thesis, titled “Cultural Merchandising of Homestays.”

After graduation, she worked as a researcher at the Korean Regional Cultural Event Institute (KRCEI) and at the Korea Tourism Research Institute (KTRI) of the Ministry of Culture and Tourism. In particular, when worked in the KTRI, she was awarded the certificate of commendation from Minister of the Ministry of Culture and Tourism for her outstanding work in planning and organizing the International Conference on Sport and Tourism hosted by the World Tourism Organization (WTO) and Republic of Korea in collaboration with the International Olympic Committee (IOC). After working on this project related to sport and tourism, she became determined to study in more depth her interest areas of active leisure and active tourism at the University of Florida. Before entering into the Ph.D. program at the University of Florida, she taught many tourism courses such as social psychology of tourism, tourism law, convention business, tourism resource management, international tourism trends, and tourism and hospitality terminology while working as a lecturer at several universities in Korea.

While studying at the University of Florida, her academic papers have focused on in-depth studies with particular psychological and behavioral variables such as involvement, commitment, loyalty, habit, benefits sought, motivation, satisfaction, destination images, perception, intentions, social worlds, and behavioral patterns in the fields of tourism, leisure, recreation, and sport, using quantitative methods. She received her Ph.D. from the University of Florida in the spring of 2009. Her future research will focus more on the connection of tourism, leisure, recreation, sport, and health, particularly, using psychological theories and developing relevant scales.