SMR
Asian Sport Management Review
Volume 5 / November 19 / 2012
Published by TASSM & AASM

Editor's Note

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It is my honor to be the Chief Editor of Asian Sport Management Review (ASMR) from 2008-2012. I appreciate the support from Asian Association for Sport Management (AASM), especially President Kao, Chin-Hsung. I will try to do my best to accomplish this task.

Published by AASM, ASMR is an international professional sport management academic oriented electronic journal, which is a platform of providing an interaction opportunity for the sport management professionals to understand one another, especially in the Asian Area.

ASMR has been published for 4 issues. In this issue, there are 8 papers from different nations have been collected. I represent the ASMR editing group to appreciate the submitters' contributions.

Finally, I would like to invite and encourage the professional colleagues around the world who are interested in doing the sport management related researches all in the aspects of sport marketing, facility management, human power resources, event management, sport industry issues, sport management education curriculum, and so on. Please do not hesitate to share your experiences by submitting the papers to ASMR. Because of your support, that is why we can grow up and have more influences on the field of sport management.

Sincerely yours,

Kong Ting Yeh, ED. D

Editor

Professor/ National Taiwan Sport University (NTSU)

President, Taiwan Society for Sport Management (TASSM)

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Consumer buying behavior on the athletic footwear:

A cross-national comparative analysis

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Consumer buying behavior on the athletic footwear:

A cross-national comparative analysis

Abstract

Adolescents are target customers buying sport footwear and are usually considered consumers who like to switch brands, are likely to accept new products and information, and have higher exploratory buying tendency. The purpose of this study was to examine the relationship of the exploratory buying behavior tendency (EBBT) and Sports Information Acquisition for athletic footwear across USA and Other international adolescents. In cross-sectional analyses, hierarchical multiple regressions indicated that EBBT positively predicted adolescent Information Acquisition. Possible mechanisms of this relation, limitations, and practical implications are discussed.

Keywords: **Exploratory buying behavior, comparative analysis**

Introduction

The research about sport and consumption is voluminous and in many instances emanates from disciplines beyond sport, though, as stated in recent works by Pitts, Fielding, and Miller (1994), Stotlar (2000), and Shoham and Kahle (1996), it is being given increasing attention in the sport-marketing literature. Sport marketing agencies and organizations engage in this practice by developing marketing communication and editorial information in the belief that these types of sport-related communications are an important element of the sport consumer's decision process. An area of particular importance to sport marketers is an understanding of the pre-purchase information acquisition process used by sport customers. However, the factors which drive information preferences and use levels have largely gone uninvestigated by sport marketing researchers. Mullin et al. (2000) suggest that the information sources of consumer decision-making are a process rather than a prescriptive formula, and it is the construction of a blueprint that is capable of determining behavior. Therefore, it is necessary to understand the consumer's information search for sports pre-purchase decisions.

Sport is a hundred billion dollar business in the U.S., and according to the estimated industry GDP in 1995; it is ranked as the 11th largest industry (Li et al., 2001). The athletic footwear market, one of the largest part in the sporting goods business, was worth 8.6 billion in 1999 (Miller et al., 2000). The financial reports of big sport goods companies like Nike, Reebok, and Adidas showed

that the income of athletic footwear accounted for 40% to 70% of total sale revenues (Websites of Nike, Reebok, and Adidas). In addition, the athletic footwear sale in Asia is ranked as the third largest market following those in North America and Europe, and the sales were continually increasing. In Asia, sport footwear revenues in 2000 for NIKE were 557 million

dollars, 16.6% of its footwear revenues in the world, and for Adidas 333 million dollars, 13.3%. This is the reason that these big sporting good companies spent millions of dollars for athletic footwear advertisements.

A survey of Sports Business Market Research showed that in the US teens aged 14 to 17 years contributed 8.4% of the total purchasing in sport footwear in 1998 (Miller et al., 2000). Due to the development of athletic footwear design, the reason for a teenager buying a pair of athletic footwear may be fashion as well as function. Athletic footwear is also very popular for the teenagers in International , and it is important for manufacturers to understand their information search behavior before purchasing athletic footwear.

Exploratory Buying Tendency as a Factor of Sports Information Acquisition

Exploratory behavior has been studied for many decades (Berlyne, 1960) and is a personality characteristic affected by a person's optimum stimulation level (OSL; Zuckerman, 1979). Soon, exploratory behavior was utilized to understand consumer behavior. Researchers described behaviors of consumers who have strong exploratory buying tendency as risk taking in making product choices (Cox, 1967). The researchers used innovativeness in the adoption of new products and retail facilities (Mittelstaedt et al., 1976; Venkartraman & Price, 1990), variety seeking in purchase behavior (McAlister & Pessemier, 1982), browsing, looking at window displays and similar forms of recreational shopping (Bellenger & Korgaonkar, 1980; Westbrook & Black, 1985), and curiosity-motivated information evidenced in leafing through catalogs or talking to others about purchases (Hirschman, 1980; Price & Ridgway, 1982).

Further study done by Joachimsthaler and Lastovicka (1984) indicated that consumer exploratory buying tendencies includes two sub-factors: information seeking and innovativeness. In addition, Steenkamp and Baumgartner's study (1992) showed that consumers' OSLs are systematically related to curiosity-motivated behavior, variety seeking, and risk taking. In order to measure exploratory consumer behavior, Baumgartner and Steenkamp (1996) verified two

dimensions: exploratory acquisition of products (EAP) and exploratory information seeking (EIS). Since consumer exploratory behavior includes the consumers' tendencies toward risk-taking and information seeking, it is an effective variable to explain sports information search for a pre-purchase decision.

Brand Preference as a Factor in Sports Information Acquisition

Researchers have identified consumer attitude as an important factor to explain consumer behavior (Howard & Sheth, 1969; Hansen, 1972; Hawkins, Best, & Coney, 1992; Walters, 1974; Walters & Bergiel, 1989). In general, attitude can be defined as simply an overall evaluation (Engel et al., 1995). Howard and Sheth (1969) suggested that attitudes have to do with the connotative meaning of brands. It can be defined as the consumer's evaluation, verbal statement, and satisfaction of a brand.

In sport, attitudes usually play a major role in shaping sports consumer behavior in deciding which brand to buy or in which store to shop. Sport consumers will typically select the brand or store that is valued most favorably. Therefore, the consumer's brand preference is used as a factor to determine the sports information search.

Exercise Behavior as a Factor of Sports Information Acquisition

According to the consumer decision-making model of Engel et al. (1995), a consumer's need recognition leads to his/her interests in the information search. Consumers who participate in sport activities may have the needs and interests in sport goods which lead to searching for relevant information. Different people have different preferences or levels of involvement in sport activities. Participating in sport activities may be due to several different reasons such as extrinsic and intrinsic rewards, health and fitness, skill development, affiliation, and competitive motives (Voorhis, 2000). In addition, research has shown that teenagers' exercise involvement differs based on gender and age (Gill et al., 1983; Gould et al., 1987; Hiseh, 1999). Regardless of their reasons, the consumers' level of exercise behavior should be a factor for their sports information search behavior.

Gender as a Factor of Sports Information Acquisition

Although there is no research specifically about gender difference in consumer behavior, the marketing strategies used to attract consumers are usually differentiated by gender. In addition, Kirton (1976) found that men tend to be more innovative than women. In sport, male high school students' attitudes toward sport activities are higher than female students' attitudes, and male students are more involved in exercise than female students (Gill et al., 1983; Gould et al., 1987; Hsieh, 1999). Gender may not explain the consumer's behavior when searching for sports information, but it may interact with other variables.

Purpose of Study

The purpose of this study is to understand the extent to which high school students' buying tendencies explain their pre-purchase decision-making for athletic footwear regarding information used behavior. Based on hierarchical multiple regression analysis, we want to know if buying tendencies and brand preference explain a significant proportion of the variance in information acquisition in the U.S. and international subjects, after controlling for gender and level of exercise involvement. In addition, we want to see if buying tendencies account for the variance in information acquisition equally for males and females, and if the level of exercise involvement accounts for the variance equally for brand and generic users.

Methodology

Participants

Teenagers in the U.S and international will be the target population and high school students in the U.S and International will be the accessible population for this study. According to Engel et al. (1995), teenagers have created a growing market for sports products and services, such as clothing, footwear, and game tickets. Also, sports marketers are now directing

advertising to teenagers to focus on this specific consumer group. As a result, we are interested in the effects of gender, level of exercise involvement, buying tendencies, brand preference, and country in teenagers' information acquisition among high school students in the U.S and International . We will decide the maximum number of participants based on Green's new rule of thumb that uses Cohen's approach (1991). The power analysis specifications are: (a) the required minimum sample size (N = 124); (b) the number of independent variables (k = 11); and (c) the planned effect size (R-squared = .13).

Instrumentation

Level of exercise behavior. A two-item self-reported average frequency and time to do exercise or physical activities every week for a participant will be used to determine the level of exercise involvement for each participant. The weighted value of the average frequency and time for a participant to do exercise or physical activities (frequency*time[min]) is used for measuring level of exercise involvement. Higher numbers reflect higher level of exercise involvement.

Exploratory buying behavior tendency (EBBT). The 20-item Exploratory Buying Behavior Tendency (EBBT) inventory that was developed by Baumgartner and Steenkamp (1996) will be modified into the Chinese version. The EBBT scale includes two dimensions: (a) the exploratory acquisition of products dimension (EAP), and (b) the exploratory information seeking dimension (EIS). Both dimensions will be composed of 10 items with each item rated on a 5-point Likert scale ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree) (See Appendix A). The item responses will be summed within each dimension to create overall EAP and EIS scores. According to Baumgartner and Steenkamp (1996), EAP reflects the tendency to seek sensory stimulation in sports footwear pre-purchase through risky and innovative product choices, and varied and changing purchases, and consumption experiences. High EAP individuals enjoy unfamiliar and innovative products and seek variety in their purchases. On the other hand, EIS reflects the tendency to obtain cognitive stimulation through the acquisition of

consumption-relevant knowledge out of curiosity. High EIS individuals like to go browsing and window-shopping, and they are interested in talking with other consumers about their consumption experiences. Below are two items used to assess an individual's EAP and EIS.

EAP: Even though certain different brands of footwear are available, I tend to buy the same brand.

EIS: I often read advertisements for footwear just out of curiosity.

For the original inventory, the estimates of internal consistency based on Cronbach's alpha for the EAP and EIS ranged from .75 to .84. Moreover, confirmatory factor analyses provided evidence that the two-factor EAP-EIS structure showed an adequate fit to the data (Baumgartner & Steenkamp, 1996).

Brand preference. One item asks respondents to self-report what kind of footwear brand they prefer buying. We will modify this to two groups: one is specific brand preference in footwear, and the other one is generic brand preference in footwear.

Procedures

We will contact our participants from their physical education classes and participants will be informed as to the general purpose of the study, and consent forms will be signed. Afterwards, the participants will complete the exploratory buying behavior tendency (EBBT) inventory, the information acquisition inventory for athletic footwear, the level of exercise involvement, brand preference, and the demographic questionnaires in their classes.

Data analysis

For this study, we will use SPSS to conduct a hierarchical multiple regression analysis and the alpha level will be set at 0.05. The hierarchical linear model (HLM) is a regression method that determines the amount of variance a particular variable (or set of variables) explains, above and beyond what another variable (or set of variables) already explains (Pedhazur, 1997). Based on the hierarchical multiple regression analysis, this study wants to know if buying tendencies, brand

preference, and country do explain a significant proportion of the variance in sports footwear information acquisition for high school students, above and beyond what gender and level of exercise involvement explain. Also, the study wants to determine if the subscales of buying tendencies (EAP-EIS) accounts for the variance in information acquisition equally for males and females and if the level of exercise involvement account for the variance in sports product information search behavior equally for participants who have a brand preference and who do not have a brand preference. Moreover, the study will conduct the level of exercise involvement account for the variance in information acquisition equally for the U.S and International and gender account for the variance in information acquisition equally for the U.S and International .

Result

Descriptive Statistics and Correlation of EBBT and Information Sources

The means and standard deviations of U.S level of exercise behavior, U.S EAP, U.S EIS, U.S brand preference, U.S information sources, Other level of exercise behavior, Other EAP, Other EIS, Other brand preference, and Other information sources are listed in Table 1. The magnitudes of correlations between variables were moderate and as expected. The U.S EAP positively correlated with U.S EIS($r = .56$, $p < .001$), The U.S EAP/ information sources($r = .41$, $p < .001$), The U.S EIS/ information sources($r = .58$, $p < .001$),The Other EAP/ EIS($r = .50$, $p < .001$), The Other EAP/ information sources($r = .60$, $p < .001$), The Other EIS/ information sources($r = .57$, $p < .001$).

Table1 Means, Standard Deviations and Correlations Matrix among Items (n=405)

	M	SD	A	B	C	D	E	F	G	H	I	J
A	4.56	0.45	1.00									
B	4.83	0.68	0.70**	1.00								
C	4.79	0.67	0.63**	0.56**	1.00							
D	5.08	1.82	0.48**	0.49**	0.54**	1.00						
E	5.31	1.97	0.52**	0.41**	0.58**	0.61**	1.00					
F	4.66	0.56	0.52**	0.50**	0.59**	0.61**	0.73**	1.00				
G	5.72	1.72	0.50**	0.53**	0.59**	0.57**	0.49**	0.54**	1.00			
H	3.87	1.42	0.47**	0.54**	0.53**	0.58**	0.51**	0.56**	0.50**	1.00		
I	4.62	1.65	0.50**	0.45**	0.56**	0.52**	0.51**	0.52**	0.58**	0.61**	1.00	
J	5.11	1.98	0.44**	0.35**	0.45**	0.48**	0.41**	0.48**	0.60**	0.57**	0.69**	1.00

A: U.S level of exercise behavior; B: U.S EAP; C: U.S EIS; D: U.S brand preference; E: U.S information sources; F: Other level of exercise behavior; G: Other EAP; H: Other EIS; I: Other brand preference; J: Other information sources.

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

Hierarchical Multiple Regression for EBBT and Information Sources

We conducted path analysis to test our questions for each sample. Results of estimates are reported. In U.S model, Gender ($\beta = .19$, $p < .01$), EAP ($\beta = .63$, $p < .01$) and EIS ($\beta = .58$, $p < .01$) positively predicted Information Sources. Also, for the Other sample, Gender ($\beta = .11$, $p < .01$), EAP ($\beta = .54$, $p < .01$) and EIS ($\beta = .42$, $p < .01$) positively predicted Information Sources. Therefore, the U.S model were better than Other model.

Discussion

In this research, we drew on consumer behavior theory to investigate the roots of exploratory buying tendency. Prior research has proposed variations in individuals' tendency to be exploratory buying for athletic footwear, but has not considered where these differences originate from. Results generally showed that consumer decision styles have impacts on adolescent in information sources purchasing.

The findings address the first research question. It was observed that there is a relationship between adolescent EBBT and Information Sources. Thus, it appears that some of U.S adolescent EAP as well as EIS can be accounted for by Information Sources. A comparison between targets of exploratory buying tendency and information sources shows that the magnitude of the relationship in U.S model is higher than in Other model. This suggests that exploratory buying tendency is a better predictor for information sources.

Several limitations should be acknowledged. First, a larger sample size is needed in future studies for cross-validating the current results. Second, the study relied on a cross-sectional design, which prevents us from testing the possibility of more dynamic processes between EBBT and Information Sources.

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Understanding Organizational Culture Among Administrators in Nonprofit Sport Organizations in Taiwan

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Understanding Organizational Culture Among Administrators in Nonprofit Sport Organizations in Taiwan

Abstract

In Taiwan, eighty-five percent of the sport organizations are nonprofit. The purpose of this study was to describe organizational culture among administrators and to describe the meaning of administrators' experiences of organizational culture for nonprofit sport organizations in Taiwan.

Based on the semi-structured interview and phenomenological research, this study explored the meanings that participants place on their experiences with a nonprofit sport organization and presented the important effects of the perspectives on levels of organizational culture, preference of organizational culture, leadership, and organizational commitment for the group dynamics in sport organizations.

***Key words*: Organizational Culture , Nonprofit Sport Organizations**

Introduction

Organizational behavior (OB) is a field of inquiry that studies what people think, feel, and do in and around organizations. Organizations are groups of people who work interdependently toward some purpose. OB concepts are helpful in predicting and understanding organizational events, adopting more accurate theories of reality, and influencing organizational events more effectively. Latham and Millman (2002) pointed out the purpose of the employment interview are to determine the applicant's fit with an organization's culture or values and the applicant's knowledge, skills, and ability to advance the organization strategy. Furthermore, they indicated there are two contextual factors as moderator variables in OB: (a) external organizational factors and (b) internal organizational factors. External organizational factors include national culture, legal requirements, labor market conditions, and industry sector. On the other hand, internal organizational factors include macro and micro variables. Internal macrovariables include the organizational culture, strategy, size, structure, internal labor market, technology, and union presence. Internal microvariables include the character of the job, the interview medium, perceptions of the recruiter, and training programs.

Therefore, organizational culture is one of the most recent introductions into the field of organization behavior theory. It is the basic pattern of shared beliefs, values, norms, and assumptions that govern behavior within a particular organization. First, beliefs are links among nodes in an associate corporate network. Second, values are enduring beliefs that a specific of conduct. Third, norm and assumptions are beliefs held by consensus of a group concerning the behavior rules

for individual members (Engel, Blackwell, & Miniard, 1995, p. 291). According to McShane and Von Glinow (2000), organizational culture has three main functions: (a) it is a deeply embedded in social control; (b) it is the "social glue" that bonds people together and makes them feel part of the organizational experience; and (c) it helps to explain how things are performed in different organizations. Thus, the applications of organizational behavior and the effective management of human resources are dependent upon the organizationa1 culture.

McShane (2000) provided an assessment to identify the organizational culture preference. First was the control culture which means the role of senior executives to lead the organization. Its goal is to keep everyone aligned and under control. Second was the performance culture which means the individual and organizational performance and strives for effectiveness and efficiency. Third was the relationship culture which considers open communication, fairness, teamwork, and sharing a vital part of organizational life. Finally was the responsive culture. This culture values its ability to keep in tune with the external environment, including being competitive and realizing new opportunities.

A nonprofit sport organization is a social entity involved in the sport industry which is goal-directed, with a consciously structured activity system and a relatively identifiable boundary (Robbins, 1997a). It provides sport and leisure services without the requirement to generate increased personal wealth for any owners or investors. Also, a nonprofit sport organization is established to achieve a specific mission, such as the American Association of Adapted Sports Programs (AAASP), whose mission is "to enhance the health, independence, and future economic self-sufficiency of youths with physical disabilities by facilitating a national disabled sports movement, assisting communities in creating the best member

programs possible for physically disabled youth electing to compete in team and individual sports on a local, regional, and national level" (Miller, 1997).

In Taiwan, eighty-five percent of the sport organizations are nonprofit. They have been referred to as "quasi-public" and "semi-public," meaning they serve a public purpose and have been given some privileges of public entities (Cheng, 1993). In other words, some of their budgets and subsidies of the nonprofit sport organizations come from the Taiwanese government. In addition, they can generate their financial resources from membership fees, fundraising projects, donations, and grants. Therefore, they must generate income to at least cover their expenses, yet do not generate profit for the purpose of making anybody richer.

The purpose of this qualitative study was to describe organizational culture among administrators in nonprofit sport organizations in Taiwan. The study was a phenomenological research to describe the meaning of administrators' experiences of organizational culture for sport organizations. The following question helped guide the proposed study. What are the perceptions of administrators in nonprofit sport organizations in Taiwan regarding organizational culture? It is thought that the exploration of the organizational culture among administrators would be of benefit for the group dynamics of nonprofit sport organizations. The study was based on interpretivism and will explore the meanings that participants place on their experiences with a nonprofit sport organization.

Significance of the Study

It is necessary to look at the various perceptions that influence the organization based on different organizational cultures and the relationship among administrators in a

nonprofit sport organization.

Organizational Culture and Leadership

One of the significant processes in organizational culture is leadership. The leadership that the immediate supervisor and top-level administrators provide helps employees understand their roles and performance expectations and their relationships to organizational goals and reward systems. Yukl and Van Fleet (1992) defined leadership as follows:

> *Leadership is a process that includes influencing the task objectives and strategies of a group or organization, influencing people in the organization to implement the strategies and achieve the objectives, influencing group maintenance and identification, and influencing the culture of organizations (p. 149).*

In addition, leadership types not only affect administrators' personal development, motivation, performance, and job satisfaction but also the organizational culture and commitment.

Organizational culture and Commitment

Buchanan (1974) noted that organizational commitment as "a partisan affective attachment to the goals and values of an organization, to one's role in relation to these goals and values, and to the organization for its own sake, apart from its purely instrumental worth." Moreover, Mowday, Porter, and Steers (1982) defined organizational commitment as:

> *Conceptually, it can be categorized by at least three factors: (a) a strong belief in and acceptance of the organization's goals and values; (b) a willingness to exert considerable effort on behalf of the organization; and (c) a strong desire to maintain membership in the*

organization. (p. 27)

Therefore, organizational commitment is a critical outcome variable regarding the organization's values, beliefs, and processes. Based on these reasons above, the organizational culture is an important variable in determining the effectiveness of an organization, so a sport organization's culture must fit with external organizational factors, such as strategy, environment, and technology (Slack, 1997). I planed to explore the values, attitudes, and beliefs of administrators in nonprofit sport organizations in Taiwan regarding their organizational culture.

Methodology

Theoretical Perspectives

This study was based on phenomenology in the sense of understanding social phenomena from the values, beliefs, and perspectives, describing the organizational culture as experienced by the administrators in nonprofit sport organizations in Taiwan. According to Creswell (1998), the use of the term of phenomenology in contemporary versions of qualitative inquiry tends to reflect a subjectivist and existentialist emphasis. It aims to identify and describe the subjective experiences of respondents. A phenomenological perspective includes a focus on the life world, an openness to the experiences of the subjects, a primacy of precise descriptions, attempts to bracket foreknowledge, and a search for invariant essential meanings in the descriptions (Kvale, 1996). Also, this approach in a general nonphilosophical sense has been prevalent in qualitative research.

Participants

Participants were four administrators from four nonprofit sport organizations in Taiwan. The participants were two women and two men whose aged range from 25 to 41. These four nonprofit sport organizations are Chinese Taipei Olympic Committee (CTOC), National Council on Physical Fitness and Sports, R.O.C. (NCPFS), Chinese Taipei University Federation (CTUSF), and Taiwan Society for Sport Management (TASSM). Below are the descriptions of the four participants and a brief history about their nonprofit sport organizations.

Ms. A. "Ms. A" was 25 years old and unmarried when interviewed. She is a general administrator in the Chinese Taipei Olympic Committee (CTOC) and has been worked at the organization for over 2 years. In 1922, the Committee, formerly China National Amateur Athletic Federation, was established and recognized by the International Olympic Committee (IOC) with the name of Chinese Olympic Committee. It was replaced with the China National Sports Federation (CNSF) in Nanking in 1924, succeeding to the IOC recognition. The CNSF moved to and located in Taiwan with ROC Government in 1949. In 1979, the IOC resolution required that the Committee should change its name, emblem, flag and anthem, and renewal of the IOC recognition was required. Finally, it was agreed that the Committee returned to the international sport arena under the name of Chinese Taipei Olympic Committee.

Mr. B. "Mr. B" was 31 years old and married when interviewed. He is a secretary in the National Council on Physical Fitness and Sports, R.O.C. (NCPFS) and has been worked at the organization for over 3 years. The National Council on Physical Fitness and Sports (NCPFS) was established in 1997. The aims of the NCPFS are to foster a healthy nation based on the policy of promoting participation in sports at all levels. It

help all athletes in Taiwan who demonstrate the potential to win medals at regional and international competitions to develop their skills to the fullest .The NCPFS will also assist athletes in Taiwan to obtain jobs in sports-related enterprises or elsewhere so as the help them enjoy a decent and dignified life after they retired from the competitive arena.

Ms. C. "Ms. C" was 35 years old and unmarried when interviewed. She is a coordinator in the Taiwan Society for Sport Management (TASSM) and has been worked at the organization for many years. TASSM was established in 2000 and is actively involved in supporting and assisting professionals working in the fields of sport, leisure and recreation. The purpose of the TASSM is to promote, stimulate, and encourage study, research, scholarly writing, and professional development in the area of sport management--both theoretical and applied aspects. Topics of interest to TASSM members include sport marketing, future directions in management, employment perspectives, management competencies, leadership, sport and the law, personnel management, facility management, organizational structures, fund raising, and conflict resolution.

Mr. D. "Mr. D" was 41 years old and married when interviewed. He is a manager in the Chinese Taipei University Federation (CTUSF) and has been worked at the organization for over 5 years. CTUSF was established in 1957 that is the major intercollegiate athletic association for men and women in Taiwan. The CTUSF was formed within university institutions in order to promote sporting values and encourage sporting practice in harmony with, and complementary to, the university spirit.

Data Collection Method

A semi-structured interview fits the proposed qualitative study. Merriam (2001, p. 74) indicated that the semi-structured interview is halfway between the ends of the

continuum. In this type of interview, either all of the questions are more flexibly worded, or the interview is a mix of more and less structured questions. Therefore, based on the multiple "mix of more- and less-structured, (p. 73)" questions, I was more likely to ask each administrator to describe his or her perceptions about his or her organization. There were about 20 questions (Appendix A) during the interview, below is an example of question.

"Have you ever experienced a conflict between you and other people in the organization? "In this study, I used telephone and face-to-face interviewing as my data collection methods. Shuy (2002) pointed out that telephone interviewing appears to allow for fewer interviewer effects, better interviewer uniformity in delivery, and greater cost-efficiency and fast results. On the other hand, a face-to-face interviewing is more accurate responses owing to contextual, greater likelihood of self-generated answers, and greater effectiveness with complex issues.

Procedures

After receiving the 4 participants' consent, we interviewed them, explained the details of the study, and asked for their opinions on our questions. When this was accomplished, we sent them the informed consent form to fill out, sign, and return to us. We gave the participants a photocopy of their completed informed consent form. Then we did the interviewing for each participant at least one time for a period of forty minutes or longer.

Data Analysis

Data analysis is the process of making sense out of the data and making sense out of data involves consolidating, reducing, and interpreting what people have said and what the researcher was seen and read. Identifies recurring patterns. There are five method of analysis in qualitative research: (1) organizing the data; (2) generating

categories, themes, and patterns; (3) test the emergent hypothesis the data; (4) search for alternative explanations of data; and (5) write the report (Schwandt, 2001, p. 6). As appropriate in a qualitative study, data analysis will be ongoing and emergent in nature. Data analysis was conducted by interviewing the participants and transcribing the telephone interviewing notes, tapes, etc., which guided future actions in the proposed study. An overall analysis locating key stories and an intensive analysis that sorts data into categories and relevant themes were conducted (Merriam, 2001).

In a qualitative research, validity and reliability are referred to as confirmability in order to keep confusion of terms to a minimum. Confirmability refers to the degree to which the results could be confirmed or corroborated by others (Schwandt, 2001). There are a number of strategies for enhancing confirmability. For example, a researcher can document the procedures for checking and rechecking the data throughout the study. In the study, we conducted triangulation and member checks to confirm our study confirmability.

Triangulation means of checking the integrity of the inferences one draws. It can involve the use of multiple data sources, multiple investigators, multiple theoretical perspectives, multiple methods, or all these. The purpose of the means is to examine a conclusion from more than one vantage point (Schwandt, 2001). The study was triangulated by data triangulation. Data was gathered through dialogue journals, conversations, and dialogic interview. Also, we asked two or more similar questions in different way to my participants to confirm the trustworthiness of the answers.

Moreover, member check is a method to make sure the validity, generalizability, and reliability for a qualitative research. Usually, qualitative researchers use member checks to refine their interpretations and establish the credibility of their studies (Denzin & Lincoln, 2000; Taylor & Bogdan, 1998). We conducted member checks for

our study as well. After organizing the transcriptions and having the paper done, we passed them to our participants to make sure what they wanted to interpret for their organizational culture.

Findings

The purpose of the proposed qualitative study was to describe organizational culture among administrators in nonprofit sport organizations in Taiwan. The study was a phenomenological research to describe the meaning of administrators' experiences of organizational culture for sport organizations. The study was based on interpretivism and will explore the meanings that participants place on their experiences with a nonprofit sport organization. Through telephone and face-to-face interviewing, there were some findings as follows.

Levels of Organizational Culture

Schein (1985) suggested a view of organizational culture based on distinguishing three levels of organizational culture: artifacts, values, and basic assumptions. First, the most visible level of the culture is artifacts and creations which refer to the physical structures, slogans, language, or written and spoken language of the organizations. According to Ms. A and Mr. B, the slogans for their organizations are:

Ms. A (CTOC): Exercising, Happiness, and Energy

Mr. B (NCPFS): To set up a healthy, happy, and vitalized sport lifetime.

Second, cultural learning reflects a member's original values. Values and beliefs are part of the conceptual process by which group members justify actions and behavior. For example, Ms. C believes her job can contribute to her team and organization.

Ms. C (TASSM): I believe that my team work can contribute to professional development in the area of sport management.

The third level of organizational culture is basic underlying assumptions which refer that how a member perceives, thinks, and feels about the missions or tasks. For instance, Mr. D's basic assumption of the organization is the motivation for his work.

Mr. D (CTUSF): The mission of my team is to promote sporting values and encourage sporting practice in harmony with, and complementary to the university spirit.

Preference of Organizational Culture

McShane (2000) provided an assessment to identify the organizational culture preference: control culture, performance culture, relationship culture, and responsive culture. This culture values its ability to keep in tune with the external environment, including being competitive and realizing new opportunities. A strong organizational cultural culture exists when most members across all subunits hold the dominant values. The values are also institutionalized through well-established organizational culture (McShane & Von Glinow, 2000). In our research findings, "Ms. A"and "Ms. C" preferred a relationship culture and Hsin-Sung preferred a performance culture among their organizations. However, "Mr. B" had no comment about this question.

Ms. A (CTOC): I would prefer to work in an organization where members work well together in a team and they can receive assistance to overcome any personal problems.

Ms. C (TASSM): I would prefer to work in an organization where members

are treated fairly and care for each other.

Mr. D(CTUSF): I would prefer to work in an organization where members continuously search for ways to work more efficiently and they will be proud when the organization achieves its performance goals.

Organizational Culture and Leadership

One of the significant perspectives in managing the organizational culture of sport organizations is leadership. Bass (1993) claimed that the transactional-transformational model is a new paradigm, neither replacing nor explained by other models, such as the relations oriented-task oriented leadership model. In other words, the new leadership integrates ideas from the trait, behavior, and contingency approaches of leadership. Transactional leadership theories are all founded on the idea that leader-member relations are based on a series of exchanges or implicit bargains between leaders and members. The leader clarifies the performance criteria, in other words, what is expected from subordinates, and what they receive in return (House & Howell, 1992).

In contrast, transformational leadership theories predict the members' emotional attachments to the leader and the emotional and motivational arousal of the members as a consequence of the leader's behavior. According to Bass (1998), the transformation of members can be achieved by raising the awareness of the importance and value of designed outcomes, getting members to transcend their own self-interests and altering or expanding members' needs.

Based on our findings of the study, Ms. C's leader tends to a transactional style and the leaders of the other three participants are transformational style. The following is the transcriptions of the participants for their leaders.

Ms. C (TASSM): My leader usually focuses attention on irregularities, mistakes, exceptions, and deviations from what is expected of me.

Ms. A (CTOC): My leader makes me aware of strongly held values, ideals, and aspirations which are shared in common.

Mr. B (NCPFS): My leader serves as a role model for me and talks optimistically about the future of our organization.

Mr. D (CTUSF): My leader engages in words and deeds that enhance his image of competence.

Organizational culture and Commitment

Organizational commitment is a critical outcome variable regarding the organizational culture. Bateman and Strasser (1984) presented a longitudinal analysis of the antecedents of organizational commitment which suggested that organizational commitment might cause job satisfaction. Furthermore, organizational commitment has been demonstrated relatively to have high correlations with behavioral intentions and it is one of the important mediate variables in the group dynamics of the sport organizations. Consequently, the participants of the study presented the information about their organizational commitment.

Ms. A (CTOC): I am willing to put in a feat deal of effort beyond that normally expected in order to help this organization be successful and I like to talk up this organization to my friends as a great organization to work for.

Mr. B (NCPFS): I am extremely glad that I chose this organization to work for over others I was considering at the time I joined. However, I feel very little loyalty to this organization.

Ms. C (TASSM): I could just as well be working for a different organization

as long as the type of work was similar. Also, it would take very little change in my present circumstances to cause me to leave this organization. There is not too much to be gained by sticking with this organization indefinitely.

Mr. D (CTUSF): For me, this is the best of all possible organizations for which to work and I really care about the fate of this organization.

Conclusion

The study tended to understand what are the perceptions of administrators in nonprofit sport organizations in Taiwan regarding organizational culture. It is thought that the exploration of the organizational culture among administrators would be of benefit for the group dynamics of nonprofit sport organizations. In general, this study presents the important effects of the perspectives on levels of organizational culture, preference of organizational culture, leadership, and organizational commitment for the group dynamics in sport organizations. However, there are some suggestions for further study.

First, role conflict is an important variable regarding to organizational culture and group dynamics as well. Role conflict is a situation whereby people experience competing demands, such as having job duties that are incompatible with their personal values, or receiving opposing messages at the same time. As Ms. C said, “I often receive incompatible requests from two or more people and I do things that are apt to be accepted by one person and not accepted by another.” Thus, I recommend that researchers should understand the impact of role conflict related to organizational culture for further study.

Second, job satisfaction of the members in an organization is one of the important

consequences of organizational culture (Horn, 1992; Mathieu & Zajac, 1990; Slack, 1997). Moreover, Mullin (1999) mentioned that job satisfaction is a complex concept and that the level of job satisfaction is affected by a wide range of individual, social, cultural, organizational, and environmental variables. Consequently, the consideration of job satisfaction of members is also important for further study.

Third, we used semi-structured interview as our data collection method. However, observation is a useful research tool for a qualitative research especially for the organizational culture study. Also, it can give a reality view that confirm add to or contradict and interviews findings (Merriam, 2001). We recommend that should use observation as a data collection method for further study. Finally, conformability and trustworthiness are major concerns to a qualitative study. In this study, We used triangulation and member checks to confirm the conformability of the study. For further study, more procedures of conformability and trustworthiness should be included, such as expert check, peer check, and audit trail.

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Psychological Changes in Watching a Sport: A Case Study of the 2010 FIFA World Cup South Africa™

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Psychological Changes in Watching a Sport: A Case Study of the 2010 FIFA World Cup South Africa™

Abstract

The viewership ratings of the Japanese team's games at Federation Internationale de Football Association (FIFA) World Cup South Africa 2010™ broke records. This study focused on spectators' emotions and aims to verify the emotions experienced by viewers before and after watching the FIFA World Cup South Africa 2010™ and to experimentally investigate how these emotions fluctuate after watching mediated sports. A questionnaire survey was conducted twice with the same subjects (n = 10). All the subjects watched two live matches (Japan vs. Netherlands and Japan vs. Demark) together via a projector in a university laboratory. A two-way ANOVA was performed to analyze the subjects' emotions before and after the games and the outcomes of the games. In addition, Bonferroni tests were performed. The results showed that watching Japan win a game aroused positive/strong emotions (excitement, delight, activity, and motivation), positive/moderate emotions (refreshment, pride, and affection), and a relatively neutral/strong emotion (surprise). Furthermore, the results revealed that watching Japan lose a game aroused negative/strong emotions (anger and hostility), negative/moderate emotions (dissatisfaction and discouragement), and negative/weak emotions (depression, tiredness, and anxiety). The discussion mainly focuses on emotions such as delight, a positive/strong emotion; pride, a positive/moderate emotion, and on emotions affecting psychological health such as refreshment and tiredness.

***Keywords*: spectator sports, emotion, psychological change**

Introduction

In the FIFA World Cup South Africa 2010™, the remarkable success of the Japanese national team, which passed the group stage and went on to the second round, amazed not only the Japanese but also people worldwide. According to Video Research (2011), the television viewership ratings of the team's games, that is, Japan vs. Cameroon (45.5%), Japan vs. Netherlands (43.0%), Japan vs. Denmark (30.5%), and Japan vs. Paraguay (57.3%), broke records, and the FIFA Women's World Cup Germany 2011™ was also a momentous event in Japan because of the Japanese team's success. Why did this mega-sporting event, one that focused upon people, attract so many viewers and induce them to watch the games on television or at the stadium? Investigating these factors is one of the primary topics in the study of sport consumer behavior.

In a study of motivation associated with mediated sports (i.e., viewing sports on television rather than live), Arthur (2006) classified the motivations of the spectators of mediated sports into three types: emotional motivation, cognitive motivation, and behavioral/social motivation. In this study, the authors focus mainly on emotional motivation because emotion is one of the significant elements affecting decision making and consumer behavior (Izard, 2009; Chaudhri, 2006), and emotional motivation is also important while watching sports (Raney, 2006).

In the study of consumer behavior, some studies have focused on the relationship between emotion and consumer behavior (e.g., Bagozzi, Gopinath, & Nyer, 1999; Lee, Amir, & Ariely, 2009; Perugini & Bagozzi, 2001), and in the field of sports management, some studies have also focused on the psychological aspects of

spectators (e.g., Hirt, Zillmann, Ericksen, & Kennedy, 1992; Kuenzel & Yassim, 2007; Madrigal, 1995; Sloan, 1989; Soderlund & Rosengren, 2004); these studies' results have indicated that watching sports at stadiums or arenas arouses various positive/negative and strong emotions. However, to the best of the authors' knowledge, few studies have experimentally investigated the relationship between emotions and spectator sports or focused on mega-sporting events (i.e., extremely remarkable events such as the FIFA World Cup), which have the ability to induce amazing viewing rates. Clarifying the kinds of emotions that are aroused by a mega-sporting event may contribute to the understanding of the emotionality of sports spectators.

This study focused on the emotions of spectators and aimed to verify the emotions experienced by viewers before and after watching FIFA World Cup South Africa 2010™ games and to experimentally investigate how these emotions fluctuate after watching mediated sports.

Theoretical background

Definition of emotion and its structure

Several similar expressions represent emotion, such as *emotion*, *feeling*, and *affection* (Hama et al., 2001). Though these expressions do not perfectly match the definitions assigned to them by researchers, feeling is often used to indicate a broader concept. The line between an emotion and a feeling is frequently difficult to draw, but in general, emotions have shorter duration and higher intensity than do feelings; moreover, emotion is intentional but feeling is not intentional (Bagozzi et al., 1999). In this study, as we measured emotion before and after the game and subjects answered

questionnaires about their emotions intentionally, the expression of emotion was investigated in this study.

Although emotion is generally defined as a psychological state such as joy or sadness, according to a more detailed definition, emotion is the consciousness of physiological arousal, a behavioral reaction after arousal, and an estimation of both physiological arousal and behavior (Sheth & Mittal, 2004). In other words, emotion includes physiological, behavioral, and cognitive elements and is considered to be the awareness of a reaction or a perception such as joy or sadness in response to stimulation (Tanaka, 2008). For example, the energized feeling experienced while watching one's favorite advertisement is a physiological element, and this energetic response can be interpreted as a preference toward the object or person depicted in the advertisement, which is a cognitive element. Hoping to watch the advertisement again is a behavioral element of the emotion.

Though there are many kinds of emotions, the structure and classification of emotions does not match perfectly between researchers, and some researchers have regarded all emotions as parallel (Izard, 1977) or hierarchical (Shaver et al., 1987; Storm & Storm, 1987; Laros & Steenkamp, 2005) structures. Concerning the classification of emotion, some studies have described emotion as a broad and general factor based on a circumplex model (Russell, 1980) or a two-factor structure of affect (Watson & Tellegen, 1985) and classified emotion into broad categories such as positive and negative emotion (Edell & Burke's, 1987; Oliver, 1994; Westbrook, 1987); others insist on focusing on more specific emotions (Richins, 1997; Ruth, Brunel, & Otnes, 2002), an example being Edson and Stern's (2003) study focusing on emotions such as sympathy or empathy. Though the former idea is simple and clear (Laros, Steenkamp, & Jan-Benedict, 2005) and is useful to clarify which emotions are similar

and which are dissimilar from each other (Bagozzi et al., 1999), it is difficult to estimate subtle differences between emotions using the former idea. There are also indications that as each emotion has different characteristics, emotion needs to be exhibited by the individual (Frida et al., 1989; Roseman et al., 1996; Smith & Lazarus, 1993; Soderlund & Rosengren, 2004). Therefore, in this study, each emotion aroused by watching sports was analyzed individually, and in order to classify each emotion, we also classified each emotion using the circumplex model (Russel, 1980).

The study of sports spectators

Sloan (1989) investigated the psychological changes brought about when participants watched regular-season basketball games. Game conditions were divided into winning and losing situations, and a multidimensional psychological scale was applied. That study was conducted in an arena and employed a questionnaire survey completed by spectators, so there was a possibility that subjects were influenced by extraneous factors other than the game (for example, the climate, atmosphere of the arena, etc.). Therefore, the validity of the outcome was not clear. Hirt et al. (1992) also investigated psychological changes by focusing mainly on the observed differences between winning and losing conditions in basketball games. They did not investigate the psychological changes that took place before and after the games. Ohtomo and Suzuki (2008) experimentally examined the psychological changes brought about by watching various video images of sports in a laboratory. Although that research was conducted in a controlled laboratory setting, the stimuli consisted of edited video images, which raises questions about realistically recreating the situation of actually watching a game. Knobloch-Westerwick (2009) experimentally investigated psychological changes brought about by watching live sports in an experimental room using a personal computer; however, because emotions were

estimated in terms of broad categories such as positive and negative emotion, it was not clear which specific emotions were aroused in that study. Thus, some studies did not control the research situation well, and others did not create realistic situations or take appropriate measures to understand spectator emotions. Therefore, those research methods might not have allowed for clear investigation of the influence of watching a sporting event on emotions.

Our investigation was conducted by applying the research method utilized by Knobloch-Westerwick (2009). Though the studies of Sloan (1989) and Hirt et al. (1992) were conducted at stadiums to investigate spectators' emotional changes between time points before and after games, the researchers of this study controlled the situation by targeting not spectators at stadiums but viewers in order to minimize the influence of extraneous factors (e.g., climate, the atmosphere of the arena, etc.). Moreover, similar to Knobloch-Westerwich (2009), we used live sports as the experimental stimuli, as live games tend to arouse various kinds of emotions because of the uncertainty of the games' outcomes (Arthur, 2006; Bernhardt, Dabbs, Fielden, & Lutter, 1998; Wann, Melnich, Russel, & Pease, 2001). By employing a realistic sports-watching situation, the researchers ensured better validity of the experimental condition.

The study of emotion and consumer behavior

According to Oliver (2010), though the relationship between emotion and consumer behavior has been studied since around 1950, it was increasingly investigated from 1980 to 1990, attracting attention as a variable influencing customer satisfaction. Holbrook and Batra (1987) clarified that consumption accompanied by strong positive emotion leads consumers to make strong commitments and results in re-purchase intention for some products or services. Mano and Oliver (1993)

investigated the relationship between emotion and satisfaction; they insisted that after a product is purchased, arousal bears a strong influence on satisfaction . In other words, it is important to have positive experiences such as joy, excitement, and fun during consumption.

Studies of emotion in sports spectators' behavior have also clarified that some positive emotions, such as joy and excitement, positively influenced spectator satisfaction and re-purchase behavior (Kuenzel & Yassim, 2007; Madrigal, 1995; Soderlund & Rosengren, 2004; Sumino & Harada, 2005). According to Gants (2006), sports fans show more emotional reactions while watching mediated sports than while watching other entertainment media such as comedy, drama, reality shows, or cartoons. Moreover, Holt (1995) also clarified that watching sports creates a broad range of emotions, such as excitement, discouragement, anger, etc. Therefore, it is clear that there is a strong correlation between watching sports and experiencing emotion. One of the reasons for this relationship is because sports carry a high degree of inherent uncertainty regarding the game's outcome. This leads to psychological arousal and changes, especially nervousness about the outcome of a game due to a psychological commitment to a favorite team (Knobloch-Westerwick, David, Tamborini, & Greenwood, 2009) followed by relief after a win or loss by a favorite team arouses strong emotions (Tokaji, 2001). That kind of emotional experience is one of the significant motivations for and benefits of watching sports (Raney, 2006).

However, although several studies exist regarding sports spectators and emotion, few studies have experimentally investigated emotional changes after watching sports, and almost all such studies were conducted in North America and Europe. As emotions vary from one country to another, similar studies should be conducted in Asia.

In the previous studies mentioned above, a win by the team favored by subjects led to positive emotions, and a loss by the favored team tended to evoke negative emotions in spectators or viewers (Hirt et al., 1992; Kerr, Wilson, Nakamura, & Sudo, 2005; Sloan, 1989). Therefore, the authers of this study hypothesized the following:

H1: Differences in emotion arise on the base of the favorite team's game outcome. If the favorite team wins the game, positive emotions are aroused; if the favorite team loses the game, negative emotions are aroused.

Strong psychological response and pride for home country and people

It is often said "sports delight people," and Yoshida and James (2010) insisted that watching sports is experiential, accompanied by strong emotions such as excitement and delight. Customer delight is defined as a profoundly positive emotional state resulting from having one's expectations exceeded to a surprising degree and is considered to be different from customer satisfaction (Rust & Oliver, 2000). This variable has been the object of focus recently as a significant psychological factor (Chitturi, 2008), and the merits of delighting customers include more positive word-of-mouth (Torres and Kline, 2006), higher royalties, better customer retention (Hicks, Page, Bridget, Dennis, & Fernandez, 2005; Torres and Kline, 2006), and stronger possibility of re-purchase (Chitturi, 2008; Keiningham, 1999; Hicks et al., 2005). Being delighted by services or products has the potential to drastically increase customer satisfaction (Oliver et al., 2010). Clarifying that delight (which may be accompanied by excitement or surprise) is aroused by watching sports might explain the overwhelmingly high viewing rates garnered by sports; therefore, the authors of this study applied it as an emotional variable. Moreover, in this study, the target game involved a national team; therefore, some specific emotions may be aroused. As Funk, Mahony, and Ridinger (2002) insisted that one of the

characteristic spectator motivations in national team matches is pride for the spectators' own country, we used pride for the subjects' home country or people as a variable. Taking into account the studies mentioned above, the authors of this study hypothesized the following, considering that delight and pride are positive emotions:

> H2: Differences in terms of delight and pride arise according to the favorite team's game outcome. Specifically, if the favorite team wins the game, delight and pride are aroused; if the favorite team loses the game, delight and pride are not aroused.

Method

Subjects

The study employed 10 graduate students (6 male, 4 female; average age: 23.1 ± 1.6 years). The subjects all liked spectator sports; five subjects had belonged to soccer clubs, and others belonged to different sports clubs. Moreover, they were acquainted with each other and did not feel tension in watching the game together. A questionnaire survey was conducted twice on the same subjects. The first iteration of the survey was conducted thirty minutes prior to each game, and the second iteration of the survey was conducted ten minutes after each game. To verify whether subjects watched the game from beginning to end, two researchers observed the subjects in the laboratory, and subjects completed a check item consisting of the following three ratings: *I can watch the game from kickoff to the end*, *I cannot watch well*, or *I cannot watch*.

Variables and Measurement

The measurement scales in this study are demographics, sports experience, attitude toward watching sports. six factors comprised by 30 items based on the brief

version of the multiple-emotion scale (Terasaki et al., 1992), nine factors comprised by 49 items adapted from a scale of emotions experienced while watching sports (Ohtomo and Suzuki, 2008), three items measuring pride adapted from Sumino and Harada (2005), and single items measuring delight adapted from Chitturi (2008) and Oliver (1997). The questionnaire totaled 16 factors comprised by 83 items; the same questionnaire was administered both before and after the game. The measurement developed by Terasaki, Kishimoto, and Koga (1992) is appropriate for use on subjects above a certain age, that is, with Japanese subjects aged 18 years or older. To design the scale, Terasaki et al. (1992) first collected information on various emotion scales that are widely used in Europe and the United States, which contain a total of 648 emotions, and they developed a scale consisting of eight factors comprised by 80 items via several exploratory factor analyses. The reliability of the scale was clear (Cronbach's alpha = .78–.93), and its validity was adequately proven. This scale was used mainly to clarify how images or music stimuli influence emotional experience, and it was extensively evaluated for reliability and validity in Japan (Arimitsu, 2002). However, though this scale can be useful to estimate emotion multilaterally, it is not clear that it can estimate all aspects of emotion, especially emotion aroused by watching sports. Therefore, the reasearchers of this study also adopted a scale developed by Ohtomo and Suzuki (2008), which focuses on the emotion aroused by watching sports. One of the characteristics of the scale is that it can measure not only positive emotion but also negative emotion aroused by watching sports; therefore, it can describe a wide range of emotions aroused by watching sports. As the reliability of the scale is clear (Cronbach's alpha = .83–.93) and the criterion-related validity of the scale by Terasaki et al. (1992) was adequately proved, we applied both these scales.

The questionnaire asked subjects to rate their psychological states by using a

Likert scale with responses ranging from *feeling intensely* to *not feeling at all*. Questions from the Terasaki scale were rated on a four-point scale, and those from the Ohtomo scale were rated on a six-point scale. In addition, the survey administered after the game included open-ended questions on the subjects' impressions of the game. These questions were included because this study followed a mixed approach, and the use of qualitative data improves the understanding and interpretation of outcomes (Creswell and Clark, 2007).

This study was approved by the university ethical review board. All subjects voluntarily participated in the study.

Experimental stimuli

The survey utilized the Japanese team's matches in the FIFA World Cup South Africa 2010™ as experimental stimuli; the specific matches under investigation were Japan vs. Netherlands (May 19, 2010) and Japan vs. Denmark (May 24, 2010). The subjects watched both games in the university's laboratory on a projector (Panasonic TH–LB10NT). They watched each live match in a group setting. They were required to watch only the game in order to prevent them from forming biases; that is, they could not watch other programs before the game, during halftime, or after the game. An analysis of variance (ANOVA) was conducted to verify that there was no difference between the pre-match conditions for both games in terms of emotional state, and Mauchly's test of sphericity was conducted. A 2 (Timing: pre-game or post-game) × 2 (Outcome: win or loss) repeated-measures ANOVA was performed on the survey data, and Bonferroni correction for multiple comparisons was performed.

Results

The results of the ANOVA confirmed that there was no difference between the

pre-match conditions for both games. The outcomes of the two games were as follows: Japan vs. Netherlands ended with a score of 0–1, where Netherlands won, and Japan vs. Denmark ended with a score of 3–1, where Japan won. As a result of this win, Japan advanced to the second round of the World Cup. In this study, because all subjects cheered for Japan, the outcome of Japan vs. Netherlands was deemed a loss, and the outcome of Japan vs. Denmark was deemed a win. Table 1 shows the results of the two-way ANOVA for negative emotions, and Table 2 shows the results of the two-way ANOVA for positive emotions. Classifications of each emotion were based on Russel's circumplex model (1980).

Table 1 Mean pre-match and post-match scores for negative emotions

Factor	Group	Pre-match (SD)	Post-match (SD)	F(df)	Main effect		Post hoc analysis
					pre/post	Won/lost	
Depression	vs. Ned (lose)	2.00 (0.86)	1.98 (0.63)	1.94 (1, 9)	3.51 (1, 9)	10.30 (1, 9)*	
	vs. Den (win)	2.02 (0.58)	1.26 (0.34)				
Discouragement	vs. Ned (lose)	1.68 (0.54)	3.65 (1.02)	39.83 (1, 9)***	40.00 (1, 9)***	11.04 (1, 9)**	Pre/L < Po/L** Pre/W < Po/L** Po/L < Po/W**
	vs. Den (win)	1.53 (0.70)	1.13 (0.22)				
Dissatisfaction	vs. Ned (lose)	2.47 (0.71)	3.63 (1.45)	4.93 (1, 9)	8.56 (1, 9)*	3.70 (1, 9)	
	vs. Den (win)	2.53 (1.15)	1.90 (0.63)				
Hostility	vs. Ned (lose)	1.18 (0.24)	1.78 (0.61)	11.21 (1, 9)**	0.89 (1, 9)	1.85 (1, 9)	
	vs. Den (win)	1.46 (0.49)	1.22 (0.24)				
Tiredness	vs. Ned (lose)	1.56 (0.51)	2.06 (0.75)	10.36 (1, 9)*	0.20 (1, 9)	0.02 (1, 9)	
	vs. Den (win)	2.02 (0.67)	1.46 (0.53)				
Anger	vs. Ned (lose)	1.79 (0.68)	2.46 (1.01)	5.11 (1, 9)*	1.00 (1, 9)	0.90 (1, 9)	
	vs. Den (win)	2.10 (1.01)	1.49 (0.74)				
Annoyance	vs. Ned (lose)	1.71 (0.49)	1.99 (0.66)	3.21 (1, 9)	0.91 (1, 9)	0.24 (1, 9)	
	vs. Den (win)	1.90 (0.71)	1.41 (0.74)				
Anxiety	vs. Ned (lose)	1.53 (0.39)	2.53 (0.82)	7.58 (1, 9)*	3.08 (1, 9)	5.81 (1, 9)*	Pre/L < Po/L*
	vs. Den (win)	1.80 (0.63)	1.47 (0.74)				
Loneliness	vs. Ned (lose)	1.90 (0.93)	1.97 (0.92)	0.91 (1, 9)	1.21 (1, 9)	0.17 (1, 9)	

Note. Pre/L = pre-match/lost; Po/L = post-match/lost; Pre/W = pre-match/won; Po/W = post-match/won. *p < .05; **p < .01; ***p < .001

Table 2 *Mean pre-match and post-match scores for positive emotions*

Factor	Group	Pre-match (SD)	Post-match (SD)	Interaction F (df)	Main effect F (df)		Post hoc analysis
					pre/post	Won/lost	
Activity	vs. Ned (lose)	2.60 (0.47)	2.06 (0.72)	12.89 (1, 9)**	1.72 (1, 9)	0.47 (1, 9)	
	vs. Den (win)	2.16 (0.74)	3.08 (0.91)				
Refreshment	vs. Ned (lose)	3.19 (0.92)	2.32 (1.01)	8.05 (1, 9)*	8.65 (1, 9)*	6.26 (1, 9)*	Pre/L < Po/W* Po/L < Po/W* Pre/W < Po/W*
	vs. Den (win)	2.93 (0.96)	4.45 (1.06)				
Motivation	vs. Ned (lose)	3.45 (1.18)	2.70 (1.18)	10.89 (1, 9)**	2.32 (1, 9)	0.42 (1, 9)	
	vs. Den (win)	2.98 (0.84)	4.15 (1.39)				
Excitement	vs. Ned (lose)	3.54 (1.04)	2.96 (1.22)	6.72 (1, 9)*	5.62 (1, 9)*	10.33 (1, 9)*	Po/L < Po/W*
	vs. Den (win)	3.54 (1.20)	4.60 (1.03)				
Delight	vs. Ned (lose)	2.00 (0.82)	2.70 (1.16)	25.57 (1, 9)***	23.05 (1, 9)***	24.20 (1, 9)**	Pre/L < Po/W*** Po/L < Po/W*** Pre/W < Po/W***
	vs. Den (win)	1.90 (0.88)	5.40 (1.26)				
Surprise	vs. Ned (lose)	1.34 (0.48)	2.08 (0.75)	4.16 (1, 9)	0.27 (1, 9)	30.61 (1, 9)***	Pre/L < Po/L** Pre/L < Po/W** Pre/W < Po/W**
	vs. Den (win)	1.18 (0.33)	2.44 (0.62)				
Pride	vs. Ned (lose)	2.47 (1.34)	2.33 (0.82)	14.27 (1, 9)**	14.07 (1, 9)**	11.08 (1, 9)**	Pre/L < Po/W** Po/L < Po/W** Pre/W< Po/W*
	vs. Den (win)	2.43 (1.25)	4.83 (1.49)				
Affection	vs. Ned (lose)	1.92 (0.54)	1.74 (0.61)	7.22 (1, 9)*	2.06 (1, 9)	1.81 (1, 9)	
	vs. Den (win)	1.64 (0.46)	2.36 (0.67)				

Note. Pre/L = pre-match/lost; Po/L = post-match/lost; Pre/W = pre-match/won; Po/W = post-match/won. *p < .05; **p < .01; ***p < .001

Using negative emotions as the dependent variables in a two-way ANOVA, the interaction of discouragement between timing and game outcome was significant (F(1, 9) = 39.83, p < .001); the main effects of timing (pre-match or post-match)F(1, 9)

= 40.00, p < .001) and game outcome (win or loss) (F(1, 9) = 11.04, p < .01) were also significant. Post hoc comparisons showed significant differences in terms of negative emotions between the pre-match and post-match values during the lost game (p < .01), between the pre-match/won and post-match/lost (p < .01), and between the post-match/lost and post-match/won (p < .01; see Figure 1-1). The interaction of anxiety between timing and game outcome was significant (F(1, 9) = 7.58, p < .05), and the main effect of game outcome was also significant (F(1, 9) = 5.81, p< .05). Post hoc comparisons showed a significant difference between the pre-match and post-match time points when the favorite team lost the game (p < .05) (see Figure 1-2). Though the interactions of hostility, tiredness and anger between timing and game outcome (F(1, 9) = 11.21, p < .01), (F(1, 9) = 10.36, p < .05), (F(1, 9) = 5.11, p < .05) were significant, there were no main effects of these emotions (see Figure 1-3–1-5). Though depression showed no significant interaction (F(1, 9) = 1.94, n.s.), the main effect of game outcome was significant (F(1, 9) = 10.30, p < .05; see Figure 1-6). Though dissatisfaction showed no significant interaction between timing and game outcome (F(1, 9) = 4.93, n.s.), the main effect of timing was significant (F(1, 9) = 8.56, p < .05; see Figure 1-7). The emotions of annoyance and loneliness showed no significant main effects or interactions.

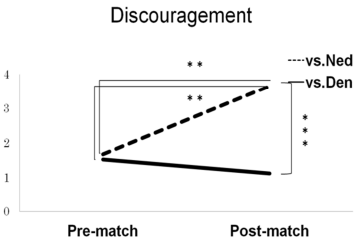

Figure 1-1

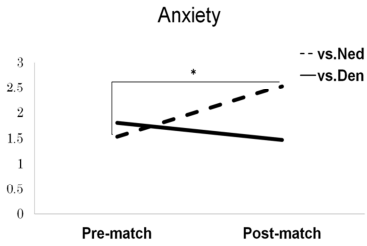

Figure 1-2

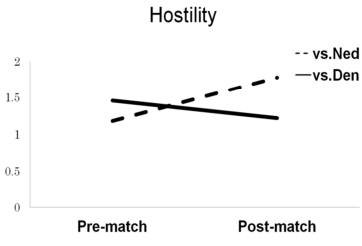

Figure 1-3

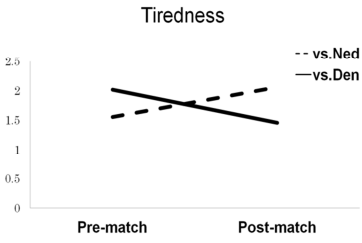

Figure 1-4

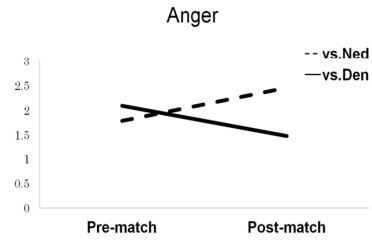

Figure1-5

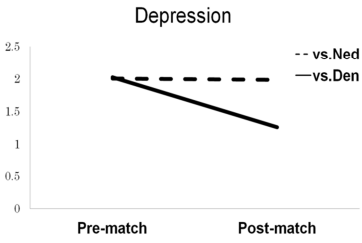

Figure1-6

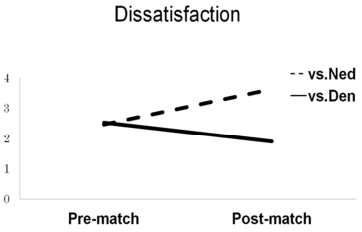

Figure1-7

Figure 1. The outcomes of two-way ANOVAs of negative emotions. $^{*}p < .05$; $^{**}p < .01$; $^{***}p < .001$

In terms of positive emotions, the interaction of refreshment between timing and game outcome was significant ($F(1, 9) = 8.05$, $p < .05$) and the main effects of timing ($F(1, 9) = 8.65$, $p < .05$) and game outcome ($F(1, 9) = 6.26$, $p < .05$) were also significant. Post hoc comparisons showed significant differences between the pre-match/lost and post-match/won ($p < .05$), between the post-match/lost and post-match/won ($p < .05$), and between the pre-match and post-match time points when the favored team won the game ($p < .05$; see Figure 2-1). The interaction of excitement between timing and game outcome was significant ($F(1, 9) = 6.72$, $p < .05$), and the main effects of timing ($F(1, 9) = 5.62$, $p < .05$) and game outcome ($F(1, 9) = 10.33$, $p < .05$) were also significant. Post hoc comparisons showed a significant

difference between the post-match/lost and the post-match/won ($p < .05$, see Figure 2-2). The interaction of delight between timing and game outcome was significant ($F(1, 9) = 25.57$, $p < .001$), and the main effects of timing ($F(1, 9) = 23.05$, $p < .001$) and game outcome ($F(1, 9) = 24.20$, $p < .01$) were also significant. Post hoc comparisons showed significant differences between the pre-match/lost and post-match/won ($p < .001$), between the post-match/lost and post-match/won ($p < .001$), and between the pre-match and post-match time points surrounding the game won by the favored team ($p < .001$, see Figure 2-3). Though the interaction of surprise between timing and game outcome showed no significance, the main effect of game outcome ($F(1, 9) = 30.61$, $p < .001$) was significant. Post hoc comparisons showed significant differences between the pre-match and post-match time points surrounding the game lost by the favored team ($p < .01$), between the pre-match/lost and post-match/won ($p < .01$), and between the pre-match and post-match time points surrounding the game won by the favored team ($p < .01$; see Figure 2-4). The interaction of pride between timing and game outcome was significant ($F(1, 9) = 14.27$, $p < .01$), and the main effects of timing ($F(1, 9) = 14.07$, $p < .01$) and game outcome ($F(1, 9) = 11.08$, $p < .01$) were also significant. Post hoc comparisons showed significant differences between the pre-match/lost and post-match/won ($p < .01$), between the post-match/lost and post-match/won ($p < .01$), and between the pre-match and post-match time points surrounding the game won by the favored team ($p < .05$, see figure. 2-5). The interactions of activity, motivation and affection between timing and game outcome were significant ($F(1, 9) = 12.89$, $p < .01$; $F(1, 9) = 10.89$, $p < .01$; and $F(1, 9) = 7.22$, $p < .05$; respectively; see Figure 2-6–2-8); the main effect of these emotions showed no significance.

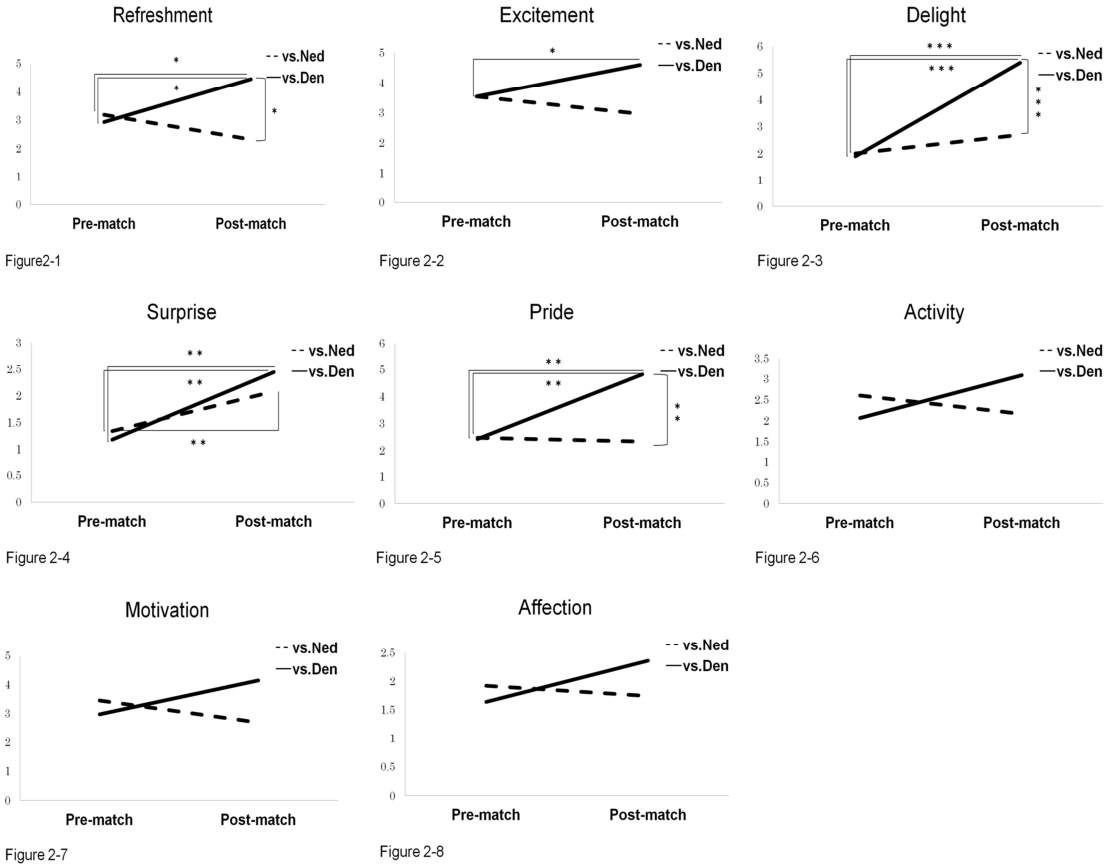

Figure2-1 Figure 2-2 Figure 2-3

Figure 2-4 Figure 2-5 Figure 2-6

Figure 2-7 Figure 2-8

Figure 2. The outcomes of two-way ANOVAs of positive emotions. $^{*}p < .05$; $^{**}p < .01$; $^{***}p < .001$

Based on Russel (1980) and Watson and Tellegen (1985), all emotions that showed significances were classified into categories as follows: positive/strong emotions (excitement, delight, activity, and motivation), positive/moderate emotions (refreshment, pride, and affection), a relatively neutral/strong emotion (surprise), negative/strong emotions (anger and hostility), negative/moderate emotions (dissatisfaction and discouragement), and negative/weak emotions (depression, tiredness, and anxiety).

Discussion

In the game that was lost (vs. Netherlands), discouragement, and dissatisfaction were significant. These were negative/moderate emotions and were aroused as a result of losing the game. This replicates the results of previous studies (Hirt et al., 1992; Kerr et al., 2005; Sloan, 1989). There was an interaction of hostility and anger between timing and game outcome. These are negative/strong emotions; therefore, it was clarified that each of these emotions change on the basis of game outcome. However, there were no significant main effects, and posthoc comparisons revealed no significance; furthermore, there were some positive descriptions of the lost game, such as "They were able to do better than I thought," or "They showed guts." Japan lost against the Netherlands by one goal; however, as there was still a possibility to go to the second round, hostility and anger, which are regarded as strong negative emotions, did not show strong significance. Instead, the relatively weak negative emotions of discouragement and dissatisfaction showed significance.

On the other hand, delight and excitement, which are regarded as positive/strong emotions, were shown to have significant interactions and main effects, and they also showed significant changes between time points in posthoc comparisons: delight showed especially strong significance compared to any other emotion. In addition, surprise also became elevated after the game; some descriptions of these feelings included "I was impressed with this game" or "I was delighted." Therefore, the Japan vs. Denmark game clearly aroused strong emotions such as delight and excitement. These results support the idea that watching sports is experiential and accompanied by strong emotions such as excitement and delight (Yoshida & James,

2010). According to the definition of delight as a profoundly positive emotional state generally resulting from having one's expectations exceeded to a surprising degree (Rust & Oliver, 2000), the observation of delight indicated that the Denmark game might have exceeded Japanese viewers' expectations. There was no clear causal relationship between the observation of delight and the fact that the game exceeded viewers' expectations because we did not estimate subjects' expectations; however, the Japanese team's reputation in this World Cup was not good, and they were not expected to advance to the second round. Certain descriptions, such as "I couldn't imagine that they would win by a big margin" and "They surprised me by scoring a goal in the early stages of the game; that was beyond my expectation" indicate that the outcome of the game was beyond their expectation. Moreover, Oshimi and Harada (2010) insisted that one of the sources of delight in watching sports is *success from overcoming some inferiority*. This indicates that the Japanese team's success, which might not have been expected, might have delighted viewers and might be one of the factors stimulating overwhelming viewership rates.

Tiredness and anxiety, which are regarded as negative/weak emotions, both showed interactions between timing and game outcome. Though depression did not show any interactions, after the game was lost by the Japanese team, it showed main effects of game outcome and proved stronger in a posthoc comparison; depression also showed a significant main effect of game outcome. On the other hand, refreshment was stronger after the game won by the Japanese team. Activity and motivation each showed interaction between timing and game outcome indicated that after the game was won by the Japanese team, positive, energetic, and motivational emotions related to psychological health were stronger, and negative and depressive emotions, such as depression, tiredness, and anxiety were weaker. After the game lost by the favored

team, these negative emotions were stronger. Therefore, after watching the Demark game, subjects may have experienced eustress motivation, which is one of the spectator motivations mentioned by Arthur (2006).

Pride and affection, which are regarded as relatively positive/weak emotions, both showed interactions between timing and game outcome; pride showed particularly significant main effects of timing and game outcome and was stronger after the Japanese team won. Subjects described their feelings in a number of ways, such as "I am proud of being Japanese" and "The Japanese team proved that Japan can compete with the leading nations in the world," indicating that national pride was awakened after watching the nation's team. This result indicates that people feel proud of their country when they are watching sports (Funk et al., 2002). The fact that affection (which means affective emotion to something) was stronger after the match it indicates that affective emotion toward the Japanese team or some specific player might be aroused.

Based on these results, there were differences in emotion according to game outcome and timing: positive emotions were generally stronger after a win, and negative emotions were stronger after a loss. However, as not all emotions showed significance, Hypothesis 1 was only partially supported. On the other hand, as delight and pride significantly increased after a win but showed no significance after a loss, Hypothesis 2 was supported.

Conclusion

This study experimentally focused on and classified the emotions aroused

after watching 2010 FIFA World Cup games. These emotions were classified as positive/strong emotions (excitement, delight, activity, and motivation), positive/moderate emotions (refreshment, pride, and affection), relatively neutral/strong emotions (surprise), negative/strong emotions (anger and hostility), negative/moderate emotions (dissatisfaction and discouragement), and negative/weak emotions (depression, tiredness, and anxiety). Viewers experienced a wide range of emotions, both positive and negative, in this study; these results correspond with those of Holt (1995). Delight was especially stronger after the game won by the Japanese team; therefore, delight may influence viewers' psychological state more than any other emotion. The facts that positive, energetic, motivational emotions related to psychological health were stronger and negative and depressive emotions such as anxiety and tiredness were weaker after a win verified the common claim that "sports make people energetic;" this could quantify the benefit of watching sports. This outcome is valuable because few previous data describe the relationship between psychological health and watching sports.

Our investigation into sports consumer behavior from the viewpoint of emotions is valuable because of the scarcity of data that can be collected on a mega-sporting event held only once every four years. Moreover, we classified the emotions aroused by watching sports into categories via experimental investigation, and we took a new perspective, verifying that emotions such as delight and emotions connoting psychological health were aroused while watching sports.

The limitations of this study surround the experimental stimuli. In this research, live soccer games on television were used as experimental stimuli; however, when a live game is used, the subject is not able to watch the same game again in the same frame of mind. Therefore, it is impossible to restage the same visual stimulus.

In this study, although the games won and lost by the Japanese team were used as independent variables, we cannot determine perfectly which parts of the game caused the subjects' reactions. In other words, it is difficult to determine whether they reacted to the whole game or to the game's outcome, etc. Therefore, the outcome of this study cannot be applied precisely to other games, samples, or other areas. Consequently, the reasearchers of this study need to further investigate this topic by researching other games and other samples. Furthermore, subjects were not assigned randomly, and there was no control group. Though wide ranges of emotional changes were observed in this study, the reasearchers cannot generalize the outcome of this study, and therefore, we need to investigate more samples and improve our research design.

Considering the sampling method, the issues with the experimental stimuli, and the need to estimate spectator expectations before the game, our experimental protocol can be improved in future studies. Further research must also be conducted to investigate gender differences with respect to emotional change and to examine the effects of changes in experimental conditions; for example, the study could be divided into games watched alone or in groups, or physiological measurement methods could be incorporated. Such studies may verify the emotions aroused by watching sports and the specific aspects of sports that arouse emotions so that the emotions influencing satisfaction and intent to re-watch games can be identified. This information would contribute to the understanding of the behavior of sports spectators, particularly the psychological aspects thereof, and could be applied in marketing and management strategies.

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Indicators Development for Being Happy Workplace Organization of Sports Authority of Thailand

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Indicators Development for Being Happy Workplace Organization of Sports Authority of Thailand

Abstract

This research on Indicators Development for Being Happy Workplace Organization of Sports Authority of Thailand was aimed to (1) develop indicators for Happy workplace organization of Sports Authority of Thailand ,(2) investigate consistency of indicator modules for happy workplace organization of Sport Authority of Thailand created from theory and empirical data. Samples were 1,231 officials of Sports Authority of Thailand from all regional and central offices. Questionnaires were used to assess and operate all 8 facets of health which developed from the concept of Office of Thai Health Promotion Foundation by using the 2nd technique of analysis on confirmative factors with LISREL program.

Research results showed that the first three orders of indicators for Sports Authority of Thailand to be happy workplace organization were; Happy Society (λy_8= 0.81), Happy Family (λy_7= 0.80) and Happy Brain (λy_5 = 0.68) respectively. The social factor with the highest value of element was “Happy within community where you live in” (λy_{82} = 0.59), family factor with the highest value of element was “When problem occurred in the workplace, family member will be informed and support with advise” (λy_{73} = 0.59), and brain factor with the highest value of element was “ You are always trying to improve yourself to be professionalism for the assigned duty” (λy_{52} = 0.57) and “You pay attention to gaining more knowledge” (λy_{53} = 0.57).

***Keywords*: sport organization, Indicator for happy workplace**

Essential of the Problem

"Human resources" become important and essential for all organizations. For fulfillment of each organization, there should have participation from competent workers. Being hidden behind the fulfillment is happiness of employee both at his work and in his living.

Factors of happiness consist of 4 main aspects i.e. Mental State – a state of happiness or suffering by perceiving self status of health, physical sickness which effects to mental status and mental sickness, the second aspect is Mental Capacity – mental capability to deal with people and problems in order to live happily, the third aspect is Mental Quality – a positive characteristic of mind applied in living profitably for oneself and society, even sometimes he can devote his own property or happiness, and the fourth aspect is Supporting Factor – a factor for mental health enhancement which related to family members, communities, works, incomes, religions, personal believes, working capabilities, a long with surroundings and the feeling of security in lives and properties. Thus, working with happiness of employee indicates good character in work which also needed for organization. Being a happy worker shows happy mental condition which can help in development of his own life with value and meaning and it is an efficiency enhancement for him to be more perfect in both physical and mental health and finally more productivity in his own duty.

One can see that present Thai society pays more attention to happiness by considering from the 10th National Economic and Social Development Plan (2550 – 2555 B.E.) focused on "sustainable happiness in society" under "philosophy of sufficiency economy" pronounced by His Majesty (Office of Social and Economy Development Board, 2553 B.E.) including various organizations and networks heading forward to create more happy and healthy state for people as creation by Department of Mental

Health ,Thai Happiness Indicators, for self happiness assessment (Department of Mental Health 2544 B.E. 1) in order for Thai people to know level of happiness by themselves including to be a guideline for good mental health enhancement of Thai people in everyday lives as nowadays Thai people are increasingly facing with mental health problems.

Humans as social animals have to live with each other and happiness is requisite for them to feel of self fulfillment, self adjustment and living with good quality of live. (Luckasson ,1990 A.D.,212) At the same time, human will mostly take up their time at work therefore creation of happiness at work is an important factor in order to run their task smoothly. It is obvious that a happy worker can create product with both quality and quantity bringing creativity and innovation, decreasing stress and conflict in the workplace which will enhance the progress of organization. (Janya Dasa, 2552 B.E.)

Happiness at workplace is being longed for by every employee in an organization, because working at happy workplace as in heaven, he can feel a certain tie as his second home combined with working with joy and paying attention at work with full of capability. (Ruamsiri Menapothi, 2550 B.E.)

Reason of spreading of the trend for happy workplace creation in Thailand came when globalization had brought severe competition in both private and government sectors including living in everyday life which brought stress in workers and ruin their mental and physical health. Problems from those factors affected directly to workers and organizations. The truth was various operational problems occurred e.g. separations into groups, boredom at works effected to productivity of works as a whole.

Issue of creation happiness in workplace was aimed in many organization to try to take up for quality working. From the above mentioned problems, Office of Thai Health Promotion Foundation has operated the project of policy development for healthy

organization enhancement for private and government sectors which aimed to develop body of knowledge policy and to run networks of health promotion for workers focused in organization who were key persons in family, organization, community, society and nation. (Office of Thai Health Promotion Foundation, 2553 B.E.)

Sports Authority of Thailand (SAT), the national sports controlling body, is functioned to promote , support and enhance sports of the nation for Thailand to be one of sports leading country of Asia by focusing on simultaneous and full circle sports development programs advancing to sustainability in sport. Besides sports development, Sports Authority of Thailand also pays attention to effective human resources development. Comparing between plenty of mission and limit amount of work force, SAT's staff are key forces to drive organization with strength and effectiveness pushing forward to simultaneous and sustainable sports development for the nation to be able to compete with other civilized countries and finally brining fame to home country.

This research is aimed to develop indicators for being happy workplace organization of Sports Authority of Thailand by applying the 2nd technique of analysis on confirmative components and to carry on the research result for organization development, enhancing living standard of its staffs being able to work with proud and full ability.

Objectives

1. To study factors which lead behavior of SAT's staff being member of happy organization.

2. To develop behavior indicator as being member of happy organization of SAT's staff.

3. To create a model of happy workplace management for SAT.

Area of the research

Samples of the study are divided into quantitative research method collecting from SAT's staff of 12 departments or offices by using stratified random sampling and qualitative research method by dept interviewing with SAT's high ranking administrators.

Time frame of this study is from July 2011 – July 2012 .

Research Definitions

1. Happy Body means healthy with strength both in body and mind, originated from when organization's staff knew how to spend life, to eat, to sleep ,to live happily appropriated to their gender, age, situation and financial status.

2. Happy Heart means good heart with kindness to each others. It comes when the staff treat each others heartedly, knowing their functions or role such role of boss and functions of subordinates , role of father or mother and so on.

3. Happy Money means spending money properly , knowing how to save and spend avoiding debt creating. It comes from when people in organization are able to handle with their income and expenditure, living properly by themselves with knowing how to get and spending money.

4. Happy Relax means relaxation by knowing how to relieve from surrounding strain. It comes when people in organization to how to balance between work and relaxation.

5. Happy Brain means getting more knowledge by knowing how to develop oneself from time to time, leading to be professionalism and stabilizing progress in working. It come when people in organization try to develop themselves forward to reach professionalism and ready to learn from their jobs/duties continuously with

disciplinary, punctuality and willing to teach coworkers.

6. Happy Soul means equity with religion faith and moral in living daily life. It comes when people in organization gain basic morality of working together in team with endurance, moral fear and shame to conduct sinful behaviors by themselves in addition with loyalty , unity and kindness to each others.

7. Happy Family means good family by living with worm and stable family. It comes when people of organization live with worm family and good surrounding by morale support from family member which effect to willing to work.

8. Happy Society means good community by bringing unity and mercies among people of workplace or living place.

Literature Review

Findings in several a theory of human resources management were creation of higher competency for staff which can help organization to fully bring about effectiveness and efficiency. Ideas of human resources management can be classified into two groups i.e. humanism and managerialism whereas in practice they integrally can be combined. Objectives of human resources management come from the aims of organizations which contain absolute manner in themselves but relative manner with control factors such management policy of organization. (Sombat Kusumawalee ,2553 B.E.: 7 – 9) Emerging of such concepts as principle based organization, productive organization, adaptive organization ,living organization or learning organization, including idea of human in organization e.g. core competency, talent management, they all are propositions of inquiry on bringing virtue and versatility from human into play in the organization. But crucial part which may be ignored in western world is to manage organization “being happy”, to take up it as the second home of all staffs.

As people spend at least 7-8 hours at work per day or one third of 24 hours of their daily live and with deduction 8 hours in bed, they obviously take up half of their waking life at work. If people are not happy at work, so they are not happy for half of their lives which result other facet of life unhappy too. Happiness enhancing at work is necessary, not only it can make life happy but it can result satisfactory and efficient job also, bringing about progress in duty and proud of staffs themselves including the progress of organization.

Carrying on literature review, researcher found scholars and academicians defined “happiness” into several dimensions classified from staff, organization and society e.g. happiness is joyfulness, ecstatic and comfort. (Wit Tiengboondham 2541 B.E.:406). Many philosophers said that happiness meant the highest virtue. It has connection with intellectuals, social versatility and family support. (Mathavadee Udomthammanuoap 2544 B.E.:111). Happiness is mental and physical satisfaction, being employed ,well being, healthiness and being connected with close friends.(Saguan Suttilertarun 2545 B.E. :354).It is happy living resulted from being able to carry out problems of daily life with capability to foster himself to better life including virtue in mind under changing circumstance. (Apichai Mongkol and parties 2544 B.E.) Happiness can be classified into 2 levels i.e. human level explained as physical and mental healthiness including intellectual and social ,social level explained as combination of social development by paying attention to development of cultural , religion dimensions in society together with national development. (Wacharee Poomthong, 2548 B.E.:30)

While foreign scholars also give similar definition such happiness is related to satisfaction in life. Feeling of happiness leads people to believe that living is satisfactory phenomenon. (Wood and Wood 2000:315). Happiness is mental bliss or subjective well

being comprised of more positive mood condition than negative one with satisfaction in life as a whole. (Morris and Maisto 2001:413). It is positive mood and feeling comprised of mental tranquility with joyful and satisfactory activity, while happiness for national figures is overall living quality whose they were satisfied with.(Ortega et al.2003) Happiness is a constant positive feeling such gladness, interest and proud which cover to life satisfaction, less negative feeling e.g. sadness, anxiety, angry. Those were resulted from other people's provision. (Diener et al.2005). Happiness is a matter of satisfaction comprised of two aspects i.e. overall satisfaction and occupied satisfaction such as job, family and self.

(Diener et al.1999)

From those concepts, it came to the conclusion that happiness at individual level is characterized as satisfactory people with mental and physical condition, positive feeling including joyfulness, gaiety, delight, comfort, satisfaction, feeling of being importance, closing with trusted friends ,being able to handle in life, having capability to self develop for better quality of life together with mental goodness under changing social and environmental conditions showing continuity of awareness on the tempo of life or overall events in life which express the perfection of life.

Types of happiness from the study of Plotnik (2002:366) can be divided into 2 aspects i.e.

1. Moment Happiness – a short term happiness such as going to cinema, good moment of life, smiling, laughing and so on.

2. Long-term Happiness – a long-term satisfaction such as feeling of involvement in working relations and satisfaction in life, originated from following factors;

2.1 Nurturing factor in the past- it was found that nurturing in the past has

significant relation at high level with happiness rate, resulted in knowledge perceiving development and characteristic of each individual.

2.2 Individual factor or surroundings – it was found that long- term happiness was a combination between attempts of comparative individual involvement .Each level of happiness was resulted from satisfaction in several events.

Moreover, Plotnik (2002:366) mentioned on increasing level of long-term happiness comprised of creation and focusing on individual achievement ,close relation with friends, aim, nice behavior and optimism.

It is quite complicate to concretely measure happiness because of different level in social and individual contexts .Sample of data collection for happiness indicator of Apichai Mongkol and parties (2547 B.E.) conducted a new research in "Thai Mental Health Indicator ,Development and Testing (TMHI-54:complete edition) created from Thai Happiness Indicators (THI – 66)" by literature reviewing from various concepts of Buddhism, academics, common people and its finding was that happiness and mental health were the same in Thai social context (Pinich Fahamnuaypol (2548 B.E.) by syntactical indicator measurement of happiness which consisted of 3 levels of element i.e. (1) physical health level (2) Mental health level and (3) social level. However, from analyzing, some proper indicators were dismissed. Rossarin Grey and parties (2549 B.E.) mentioned that level of happiness depended on many elements. There are 2 types for creation of plural element sindicator (measurement);

1. To create from various elements and combine them to composite index.

2. To create from common feeling by single question then to consider the elements.

Both types were founded in Thailand. For the first one, Yongyuth Kajondham and parties (2534 B.E.) collected element data of happiness then calculated the weighted mean of each element by participation of the studied samples. It revealed that each

element had different weighted mean. Board of National Social and economic Development Committee calculated Thai well being composite index the same from various elements, but weighted mean was equal. For Human Development Index-HDI of UNDP,both types were used (Irara and Gil,1999). Using single question for the second type, Institute of Children and Family Development (2548 refered to Rossarin Grey and parties,2549) carried on the study of family well being by questioning on level of happiness from 1-10, while in western world paid attention only to single question (Hird, 2003 and Veenhoven,2006) with different level of happiness from 4 -5 and 0 -10 for one question e.g. How Satisfied Are You With Your Life, All Things Considered?. The answer would be 4 level from most satisfied until not satisfied at all. (Kohler et al., 2005)

At organizational level, the Thai Health Promotion Foundation (2553 B.E.) created the concept of Healthy Organization. For more easier, they called Happy Workplace which referred as the process to strategically and objectively develop people in organization and in accordance with its vision in order to be ready and capable for changes which can lead organization to sustainable growth. Findings from organization carrying on the Happy Workplace were;

1. It increased job quality, productivity, innovation, performance growth and efficient teamwork.

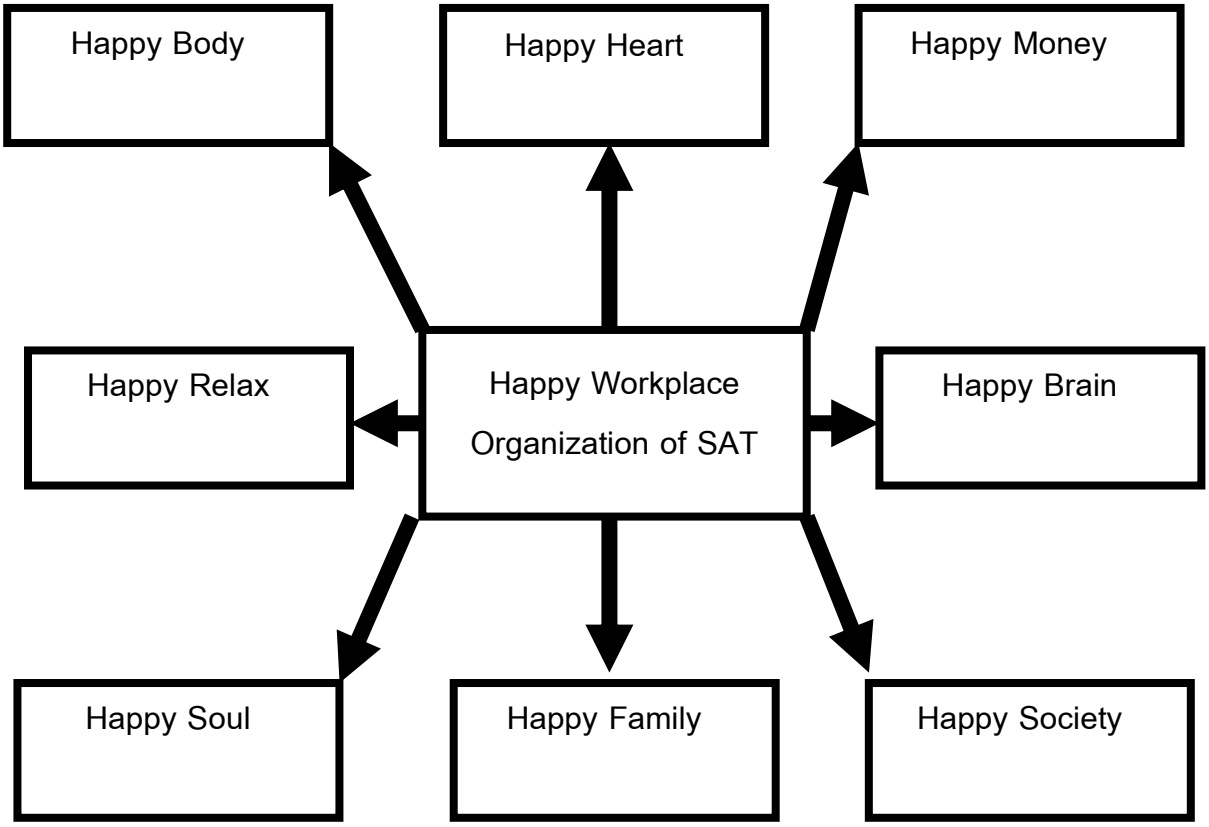
2. In moral facet, staffs were happy in organization, positive attitude at work, enhancing life skill ,confident feeling to organization resulted in safety and better living.

3. It created connectedness and loyalty, mutual understanding , co-working for lively organization leaded to sustainable growth of the organization.

In the Sports Authority of Thailand by the vision of “Sports Authority of Thailand is key body to enhance sports to elitism and professionalism for Thailand to be sports leading nation in Asia” ,it needs staffs’ quality as main dynamic to push forward,

therefore, carrying out survey on happy workplace organization will be necessary device for administrators to know direction and further to use it for mission and strategy outlining .

Figure1. Research framework



Research Hypothesis

1. Healthy organization of Sports Authority of Thailand are statistical significant related.

2. Happy workplace organization of Sports Authority of Thailand is emerged from 8 indicators of healthy organization.

Sample and Population

Population for this quantitative research were whole staffs working at Sports Authority of Thailand (except governor) from overall regional and central offices. There were 1,231 people. (Master Plan for human resources of SAT 2551 – 2554 B.E.) see Table1.

Table 1. Collecting Population

Working Group	**Population**
Office of Governor	51
Internal Audit Department	8
Policy and Plan Department	43
Financial Department	51
Human Resources Department	36
Elite Sports Development Department	137
Sports Science Department	74
Sports Venue Department	44
Information Technology and Sports Academic Department	33
Business and Privileges Department	158
Professional Sports and Boxing Department	120
Regional Sports Department	476
Total	**1,231**

Creation and Efficiency Searching of Instrument

Questionnaire was used as an instrument for this research created from literature review and dept interviewing with governor and deputy governor of SAT. A questionnaire was divided into 2 parts;

Part 1 Questions were related to individual information of respondents to choose only one answer.

Part 2 Questions were concerned to happy workplace of Sports Authority of Thailand in accordance with literature reviewing relevant to happy workplace and healthy staffs of Sports Authority of Thailand with 8 indicators and 40 questions all together. It was rating scale questionnaire with 5 degree with the meanings;

1 means most

2 means much

3 means moderate

4 means slight

5 means slightest

For result discourse, researcher measured an average from the score then translated by using probability function (Luan Saiyot and Angkana Saiyot, 2538 B.E. p.100) of Best's concept (1977 r.Suchart Somprayoon and Wannee Somprayoon, 2546 B.E.,p.68)

Maximum – minimum value and number of interval can be translated as follow;

4.21 – 5.00 means highest

3.41 – 4.20 means high

2.61 – 3.40 means moderate

1.81 – 2.60 means slight

1.00 – 1.80 means slightest

Creation and efficiency searching were divided into 2 parts; at first, searching fro instrument's efficiency was conducted by content validity analysis from 5 experts then validity by using internal consistency method of Cronbach's Alpha Coefficient. Finding from analysis results was questions were valid with content at interval 0.06 – 1.00 and data validity at 0.72 – 0.96.

Collection

Questionnaire created from literature review and dept interviewing with administrators of SAT were sent with request letter for data collection from the Project of PhD. Curriculum for Sports management to Sports Authority of Thailand for distribution to samples. A period of two weeks were expected to answer then following up was conducted by phone and collecting by self researcher.

Research Result

Part 1. Data based statistics descriptive analysis was used to understand characteristic of the sample group

Researcher used statistics analysis with percentage for qualitative variance and mathematics average , standard of deviation were used for quantitative variance. Analytical result were: most of respondents were male (54.67 %) , bachelor degree (69.46 %), single status (53.70 %), working experience more than 12 years (25.67 %),casual employee (50.45 %), average age at 36 years old, average income at 32,532.32 baht and most of them had no congenital decease (85.54 %).

Table 2: Feature of Sample

Variance		Frequency	Percentage
Sex	Male	673	54.67
	Female	558	45.33
Education	Under High School	21	1.71
	Under Graduated	20	1.62
	Bachelor	855	69.46
	Higher Graduated	335	27.21
Status	Single	661	53.70
	Married	517	42.00
	Widow/Divorce	53	4.31
Working Experience	Less than 1 Year	72	5.85
	1-3 Years	191	15.52
	4-6 Years	234	19.01
	7-9 Years	223	18.12
	10-12 Years	184	14.95
	More than 12 Years	316	25.67
	N/A	11	0.89
Function	Temporal	397	32.25
	Employee	621	50.45
	Chief	103	8.37
	Administrator	87	7.07
	N/A	23	1.87
Income Adequacy	Adequate with Surplus	242	19.66
	Adequate with No	460	37.37
	Inadequate with No Debt	146	11.86
	Inadequate with Debt	368	29.89
	N/A	15	1.22
Do you have congenital disease?	No	1053	85.54
	Yes	167	13.57
	N/A	11	0.89

Variance		Frequency	Percentage
Age (n=1,122)	min (mean)	22	36.25
	max (SD.)	72	8.56
Income (n=1,064)	min (mean)	7,300	32,532.32
	max (SD.)	386,000	30,791.76

Part 2 Happy Workplace Indicator of Sports Authority of Thailand

From result of analysis, conclusion made from assessment of 8 healthy organization aspects of SAT was at high level (mean = 3.67, SD = 0.84). The third highest aspects from the assessment were Happy Heart (mean = 4.24, SD = 0.68), Happy Brain (mean = 4.16, SD = 0.72) , Happy Family (mean = 4.05, SD = 0.84) respectively.

Table 3 Conclusion of 8 Healthy Aspects of SAT' Staff

No	Factors	Mean	SD.	Result Assessment
1	Happy Body	3.28	0.88	Moderate
2	Happy Heart	4.24	0.68	Highest
3	Happy Money	2.85	0.99	Moderate
4	Happy Relax	3.60	0.84	High
5	Happy Brain	4.16	0.72	High
6	Happy Soul	3.73	0.84	High
7	Happy Family	4.05	0.84	High
8	Happy Society	3.47	0.90	High
	Healthy Status	**3.67**	**0.84**	**High**

Part 3 Hypothesis Test with the 2nd Confirmative Component Analysis and Pearson's Coefficient Correlation)

Researcher conducted hypothesis test on relation in between 8 happiness of Sports Authority of Thailand in addition to use aforementioned data to investigate whether the qualification were consistent with technique of linier relation analysis by score testing of Pearson's Coefficient Correlation before the second Orders factor analysis. Such investigation was examined to protect the problem of multicollinearity. In case any independent pair variance had relation score exceed 0.80 , there should have problem at plural linear combination which affected regression equation and result of data analysis would be error. (Nongluk Wiratchai , 2542 B.E.p.17-18)

Table 4 Result of Variance Correlation Sore Test

	HBODY	HHEART	HMONEY	HRELAX	HBRAIN	HSOUL	HFAMILY	HSOCIET
HBODY	1.00							
HHEART	0.26**	1.00						
HMONEY	0.36**	0.15**	1.00					
HRELAX	0.47**	0.33**	0.39**	1.00				
HBRAIN	0.23**	0.53**	0.14**	0.33**	1.00			
HSOUL	0.33**	0.38**	0.24**	0.33**	0.46**	1.00		
HFAMILY	0.23**	0.47**	0.33**	0.41**	0.41**	0.39**	1.00	
HSOCIET	0.37**	0.28**	0.34**	0.44**	0.34**	0.37**	0.47**	1.00
Mean	3.28	4.24	2.85	3.60	4.16	3.73	4.05	3.47
SD.	0.54	0.49	0.71	0.62	0.58	0.62	0.62	0.54

****Sig. < 0.01**

It was found from Table 4 that all variances had relation without multicollinearity error because non of them had pair relation exceed 0.80 ,so it was possible to further conduct the second orders factor analysis.

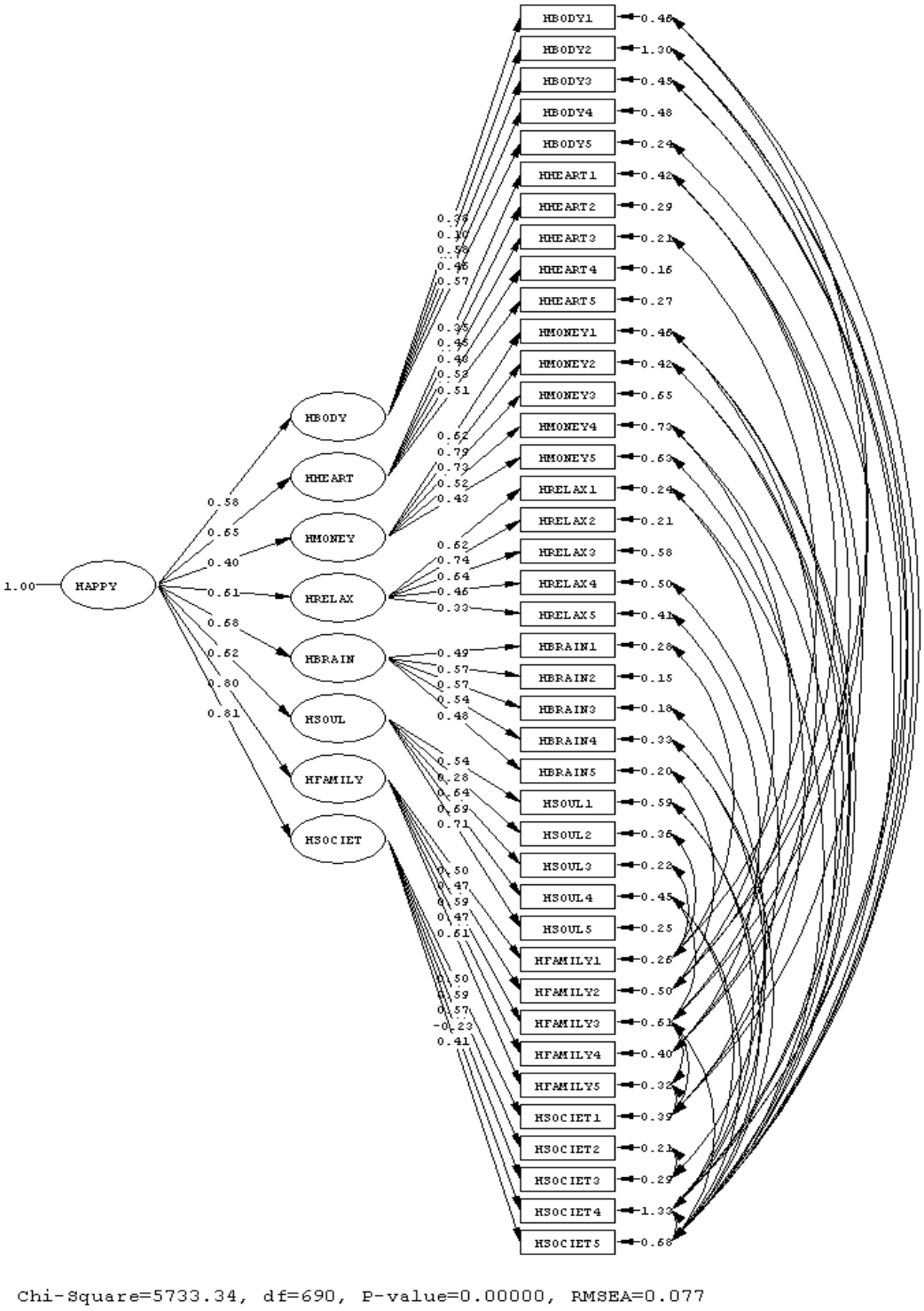
Moreover it was confirmed to hypothesis 1 that healthy organization of Sports Authority of Thailand had relation with statistic significant at 0.01 level. Further was presentation of the first orders factor analysis result and the second orders factor analysis result with Table 5 and figure 2 respectively

Table 5 The first orders factor analysis for happy workplace of Sports Authority of Thailand

No	**Factor**	**λy**	**t-test**	**R^2**
1	Happy Body	0.58	7.55**	0.37
2	Happy Heart	0.65	7.58**	0.44
3	Happy Money	0.40	11.55**	0.17
4	Happy Relax	0.61	13.58**	0.39
5	Happy Brain	0.68	11.56**	0.45
No	**Factor**	**λy**	**t-test**	**R^2**
6	Happy Soul	0.52	9.71**	0.40
7	Happy Family	0.80	10.04**	0.59
8	Happy Society	0.81	9.72**	0.54

Chi-Square=5733.34, df =690, P-value=0.00000, RMSEA=0.077

Figure 2 The second orders factor analysis for happy workplace of Sports Authority of Thailand



Chi-Square=5733.34, df=690, P-value=0.00000, RMSEA=0.077

Analysis findings showed that happy workplace of Sports Authority of Thailand emerged from 8 factors of health organization, so it was confirmation to hypothesis 2. Considering for each indicator ,the first three indicators indicating happy workplace of Sports Authority of Thailand were: Happy Society ($\lambda y8 = 0.81$), Happy Family ($\lambda y7 = 0.80$) and Happy Brain($\lambda y8 = 0.81$) respectively. The highest rate of factor loading was "being happy at place of living"($\lambda y82 = 0.59$), family factor with the highest rate of loading was "when problem occurs in working, awareness and advise were given from family member" ($\lambda y73 = 0.59$), and learning factors with highest rate of loading was "you always enhance yourself to be professional at work" ($\lambda y52 = 0.57$) and "you are interesting in extra learning" ($\lambda y53 = 0.57$). The slightest factor loading rate was Happy money(with no debt) ($\lambda y3 = 0.40$) and the slightest score of the second order factor was "you are stick to principle of sufficiency in life by not being extravagant with money" ($\lambda y35 = 0.43$).

Result Presentation

It was found from the analysis result that all indicators for happy workplace of Sports Authority of Thailand were exist in accordance with the concept of Thai Health Promotion Foundation. Each factors were co-related and unable to be separated, moreover, from research result, distinctive points of Sports Authority of Thailand were Happy Society and Happy Family regarded basic factors for Sports Authority of Thailand being strong organization in accordance with Jintana Sontiwongwet (2547 B.E.) who recommended that having good friends, good sub-coworkers and good family was a foundation for further inner happiness. It meant to peace in one's mind from equal wisdom, understanding in reality of the matter surrounding with intellectual happiness, and Pradhammapidok said that happiness came from outer components such as social and financial stability, cordial family

and healthy which led further to happiness as being moral ,concentrated ,feeling of sufficiency, not greedy . Besides, happiness happened from social and family factors would lead to level long-term happiness which comprised of emerging and intention to self accomplishment, close relation with friends, nice behavior and optimism. (Plotnik 2002)

Recommendations

Policy Recommendations

1. Sports Authority of Thailand should take up the research result to develop its strength which happened from good social factor, good family and learning staff to further creative development and open the door to surrounding community to be more able to take part in its activities in addition to promote staffs to get more education which will be profitable to organization further.

2. It is contended that happy workplace indicators of Sports Authority of Thailand are significant related, weak point with slight in weight of composite is still important for Sports Authority of Thailand to pay attention to such as Happy Money (without debt) which shown slightest score of second orders factor of analysis is “you are stick to principle of sufficiency in life by not being extravagant with money”. Such research result is consistent with result from descriptive statistics in “ Your income is adequate” and most of respond are “adequate but not enough for saving”(37.37%) and “inadequate with debt”(29.89).So this is another function for sports Authority of Thailand to carry on development of compensation system and welfare to be inline with changing condition in current social context.

Recommendation for Further Research

1. This research is cross sectional study conducted in some period of time. Any interested person is able to study the module in feature of longitudinal studies and understand

research structure more clearly.

2. The aspects presented are indicator development for happy workplace of Sports Authority of Thailand in accordance with the concept of Thai Health Promotion Foundation only and still lack of dimension of study with other independent variances such as connectedness to organization ,good member of organization which can be conducted in structural variable study then likely dimension of study get more closely to reality of context.

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Functional Competency Model in Sports Science Personnel of the Sports Authority of Thailand

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Functional Competency Model in Sports Science Personnel of the Sports Authority of Thailand

Abstract

The functional competency of the Sports Authority of Thailand's sports science personnel plays an integral part in the Authority's sports development planning. Such competency is also a factor contributing to the organisation's success in an environment full of changes. This research aimed to identify model of functional competency of the Sports Authority of Thailand's sports science personnel. The researcher adopted a mixed methodology, combining a qualitative with a quantitative technique and using the triangulation technique for data attestation. The sample subjects consisted of sports science scholars, Sports Science Division administrators and personnel, and athletes and coaches from sports associations in pursuit of excellence and professionalism. The research instruments were an interview form and questionnaire, both of which were approved by 5 experts.

Based on the application of McCleland's concept of competency to study the functional competency of the Sports Authority of Thailand's sports science personnel, the major finding is as follows. Sports science personnel were supposed to possess 3 major areas of competency: (i) knowledge—of the professional field and of managerial

principles; (ii) skills—in putting knowledge into professional practice, in using languages and in using the computer; and (iii) qualities or good professional conduct.

As this research focuses on professional conduct, important recommendations are as follows. First of all, for the organisation to fulfil its goal, it is necessary that its sports science personnel be loyal to their profession. Next, they should possess creativity with which to create sports-related innovations. Also, they must possess communication and coordination skills. And lastly, they must take full responsibility for all their assigned tasks, so that Thailand will be able to develop sports at all levels and be recognised as one of Asia's sports leaders.

Keywords: **competency, sports science personnel, Sports Authority of Thailand**

Introduction

At present every organisation is being challenged by economic, social, political and technological changes. For this reason, the personnel working for each organisation need to search for various strategies to cope with such changes. Both the state and private sectors have also adapted themselves accordingly, such as by using different instruments for measuring or evaluative purposes and by specifying plans and goals for each department. Such adaptation affects the organisation's personnel at every level, requiring them to improve their performance and help their organisation to survive, overcome its obstacles and fulfil its mission. According to Bhuwithayaphan (2008), competent and high-calibre personnel not only performs duties effectively but also helps prolong the organisation's existence. This view conforms to Phankate (2001), who states that an organisation's human resources play an important part in its efficiency and success. In the view of Kaplan and Norton (1996), although humans are an intangible asset, they a lead indicator of an organisation. Therefore, humans are the key success factor capable of propelling the organization towards achievement through its strategies.

The application of the concept of competency to human-resources management has risen due to the belief that this concept can enhance several aspects of human-resources management, namely, recruitment, development and task management. That is to say, recruitment on the basis of skills and specialisations in a particular line of work, as was an

earlier custom, is not sufficient; more emphasis must be placed also on each person's true self, namely, his/her values, attitudes and personality. According to Bangkok Institute of Government Officials (2006), the concept of competency is a new concept in human-resources management. In this concept, it is believed that in addition to knowledge and intelligence, behaviour is also a factor in a person's success. Competency, as a psychological concept, regards that a person's professional success depends not only on his/her intelligence but also on his/her other qualities, such as motivation, mentality, attitudes and emotional maturity. The application of competency as a means of strategic development of human-resources management processes is an integration of multi-disciplinary studies, to be used in search of talented management personnel and for managerial, administrative and developmental purposes.

Relevant studies have been conducted both by foreign and Thai scholars. C. Bulley and M. Donaghy (2005) study competency in terms of sports physiology.

James E. Zachazewski et al (1994) published an article titled 'Competency Revalidation Study: A Description of Advanced Clinical Practice in Sports Physical Therapy'. Similarly, a study by Remual Nansuphawat and Orn-anong Wichaikham (2008) on leadership quality in graduate nursing students shows that the desired competency in each vocational field consists of three major elements: (i) knowledge—of the professional field and of managerial principles; (ii) skills—in putting knowledge into professional practice, in using languages and in using the computer; and (iii) qualities or good professional

conduct—including honesty, faithfulness to tasks assigned and commitment to responsibilities. As stated previously, competent people are generally knowledgeable, highly skilled, highly able, learning-oriented, highly responsible, enthusiastic, helpful to colleagues, determined to deliver high-quality performance to accomplish tasks and keen on improving and developing themselves. Such professional qualities are in great demand in most present-day organisations.

In the context of sports, sports science has been employed to enhance athletes' performance in all countries of the world. Consequently, many sports organisations in Thailand have woken up to the importance of sports science and adopted it to enhance more athletes' performance. However, the main shortcoming is that the application of sports science has thus far been rather ineffective and unpopular. Although the causes of such shortcoming are many, one cause in particular is the inability to respond qualitatively to service recipients' needs due to shortage of expert and recognised sports science personnel. That is to say, most of the personnel exhibit a lack of knowledge, professional expertise, positive work attitudes, unity and cooperation, motivation and professional enthusiasm. Besides, due to their inadequate understanding of professional growth in their career paths, they are incapable of creating works and concretely fulfilling their objectives. As a result, the use of sports science to enhance athletes' performance has not been as effective as it should be, causing a decline in the recognition and confidence in sports science careers.

Therefore, sports science may not be appropriately developed unless there are sufficient personnel who are truly knowledgeable, skilled and expert in their respective fields. Although many universities and institutions are currently producing sports science personnel, the output remains far from sufficient, compared with the shortage and the nationwide demand. More importantly, many of the personnel have not been assigned to tasks relating to their fields of study, a condition preventing them from developing profound professional knowledge and understanding and, as a result, from creating publicly recognised works. To increase motivation and professional recognition, therefore, competency- and quality-oriented support and development are necessary for such personnel, with an aim to enable them to produce high-quality works in response to the organisations' goals and needs and to service recipients' demand. Such will truly contribute to the practical development of sports.

Definitions

1. **Functional competency** refers to the elements of knowledge, skills and behavioural qualities expected of sports science personnel, as required by their duties and stipulated by their organisations as desirable qualifications. A person with functional competency is expected to deliver relatively better performance and is likely to be supported to perform his/her duties better and more efficiently.

2. **Sports science personnel** refer to the Sports Authority of Thailand's staff entrusted with sports science duties and affiliated to Sports Science Division. Their principal duty concerns the application of sports science to develop athletes towards athletic excellence and professionalism. Such development includes testing and improving athletes' competency, analysing and processing research data, and providing athletes and relevant stakeholders with sports-related services, such as safety, healthcare and physical rehabilitation.

3. **The Sport Authority of Thailand** is a state enterprise under the Ministry of Tourism and Sports. Its main responsibility is promotion, coordination and cooperation for the staging of sporting events and activities, in accordance with the strategy to develop sports towards excellence and professionalism.

Objectives

The main objective of this study is to examine functional competency in sports science personnel of the Sports Authority of Thailand.

Research Methodology

In response to the set objective, the researcher adopted a mixed methodology,

combining a qualitative technique of in-depth interview with a quantitative technique of survey research through questionnaires. Finally, the triangulation technique was used for data attestation and in-depth examination of the data, as well as for correcting each type of data, which displayed diverse features due to different means of collection.

The sample subjects for this research were obtained by specific sampling. Totalling 168 from survey , the subjects included sports science scholars, Sports Science Division administrators and personnel, and athletes and coaches from 8 sports associations.

The research instruments consisted of an interview form and a questionnaire. The interview form was used in semi-structured interviews to elicit data. The obtained data were then used to construct the questionnaire. The questionnaire was inspected by 5 sports science scholars for its content validity. It then was analysed in terms of its IOC (index of item-objective congruence) and reliability. Its internal consistency was measured using Cronbach's alpha coefficient. The questionnaire was then pilot-administered to a total of 30 non-sample-population respondents who were staff of the Sports Authority of Thailand and athletes from other sports associations. This pilot stage yielded a criterion-complying Cronbach's alpha coefficient of .85, confirming that the instrument could be administered to the sample subjects.

Data Analysis

The data acquired were analysed using descriptive statistics for the purpose of describing the features of mean and percentage. Then the data were analysed by the LISREL for Windows programme for confirmed factor analysis.

Results

The research produced the following results.

1. The Sports Authority of Thailand is a state enterprise whose main duty is to promote and develop sports towards excellence and professionalism, hence its vision: 'The Sports Authority of Thailand is a principal organisation responsible for developing sports towards excellence and professionalism, to make Thailand one of Asia's leaders in sports'. Thus the Sports Authority of Thailand's operation is specifically directed to sports promotion, emphasising the strategy of creating its image of service, operation and activity quality. The organisation needs to adopt proactive methods in order to enhance the competency of its personnel and of the organisation as a whole, to ensure good management and to provide fast and convenient services according to the principle of good management.

Therefore, the Sports Authority of Thailand is the major organisation responsible for improving Thai sports internationals due to its wide range of readily available services,

whether concerning athletes, training facilities or accommodation. Furthermore, the organisation's Sports Science Division is fully equipped with scientific and technological instruments as well as personnel specially trained in each branch of sports science. Over the years, the Sports Science Division has been implementing various sports science projects in an attempt to develop sports towards excellence and professionalism. The primary goal has been to improve Thai athletes' performance so that they would participate in sporting events as efficiently and successfully as possible.

It is universally agreed that effective development of sports depends on a comprehensive system of sports science. At present, the Sports Science Division has adopted a more proactive approach and employed sports science as an integral part of enhancing the performance of athletes in many sports associations. The application of sports science covers such important processes as selecting athletes and physical and psychological strengthening for the context of each sport. Moreover, the Division has also been focusing on developing bodies of knowledge relating to sports science in pursuit of up-to-date sports innovations. In support of such pursuit, the Royal Thai Government has allocated a budget for the renovation of the Sports Science Centre and Sports Science Instruments Building, so that it will be a facility that provides athletes, coaches and sports personnel with comprehensive services and operation in all kinds of sports, as well as a centre for development and training based on sports science and technology principles. All these are to fulfil the goal of sports excellence and professionalism.

The Sports Authority of Thailand has a total of 1,231 staff members (as stated in the master plan for human resources, Sports Authority of Thailand, 2008-2011). Of these, 74 are sports science personnel responsible for coordinating and performing duties relating to the various fields of sports science, such as sports medicine, phisiology, dietetics, bio-mechanics, psychology, engineering and sports technology, to name a some. Their ultimate goal is to help Thai sports internationals, disabled athletes and sports associations' personnel (whether affiliated to the Sports Authority of Thailand or not) to strive towards physical and psychological fitness, and to improve athletic techniques and skills.

In addition, the Sports Authority of Thailand also collaborates with domestic and foreign higher-education institutions, medical institutions and other sports-science-related organisations. The Authority also provides medical examination, injury recuperation and rehabilitation services and illness treatment for athletes, in conjunction with both central and local medical institutions. The Authority also cooperates with relevant organisations in controlling the use of prohibited substances in accord with international regulations. The administration of the Sports Authority of Thailand is divided into 3 divisions as follows.

(1) **Division of Sports Research and Development** is mainly responsible for conducting research in all sports-related fields, such as sports medicine, physiology, dietetics, bio-mechanics and psychology. The Division of Sports Research and Development deals with 2 major branches of research: sports scientific research and other relevant academic

and technological research for sports science.

(2) **Division of Sports Medicine** is mainly responsible for providing sports safety services, medical examination and medical diagnosis for athletes. The Division's other services include radiography; bio-chemical laboratory; dentistry; recuperation of sports-related injuries; preventive and rehabilitative physiotherapy; medical, nursing and physiotherapeutic staff; and medical staff to be stationed at sporting venues and at sports associations. The Division of Sports Medicine's services are in 3 major fields: medical services and treatment, physiotherapy and dental health.

(3) **Division of Athletic Competency** is responsible for promoting sportsmen's mental and physical health and competency. The Division provides athletic competency testing services conforming to all branches of sports science. Moreover, in conjunction with relevant organisations and sports associations, the Division develops and promotes sportsmen's physical competency by planning training sessions both within the country and abroad. Another very important duty of the Division is to exercise control over the use of prohibited substances in athletes and to educate stakeholders as a preventive measure against doping. The Division of Athletic Competency is responsible for 3 main areas of work: competency testing, competency enhancement and anti-doping measures.

2. With regard to the functional competency of sports science personnel, the qualitative and quantitative analyses revealed corresponding patterns. The Sports Science Division is still in need of professional sports science personnel. The desired qualifications

include high calibre, profound knowledge of each branch of sports science and skills in assigned tasks. The main qualities expected of sports science personnel are pride of being sports scientists, diligence, determination and high sense of responsibility. Based on the study, the functional competency of sports science personnel can be classified into 3 categories.

2.1 **Academic competency**: This type of competency refers to knowledge of and expertise in sports science principles and operational procedure of each branch of sports science, for example, knowledge of the physiological system, anatomy and physiology of physical exercise, principles of physical competency enhancement in athletes, management and sports science research methodology.

2.2 **Skill competency**: This type of competency refers to possession of skills and expertise in using sports science instruments, giving sports-science-related counsel and advice, English-language communication, contacting and coordinating between organisations, both within and outside the Sports Authority of Thailand, using the computer for data compilation and processing, and management and administration.

2.3 **Professional quality competency**: This type of competency refers to confidence and pride in being sports scientists, high sense of responsibility, honesty, resoluteness, professional tolerance, professional thoroughness, agility, dedication to the organisation, consideration of the organisation's interests above individuals', learning-mindedness, on-going self improvement, team-working spirit and cooperation with parties both within

and outside the organisation.

Conclusion

To upgrade the competency of Thai athletes to compete with those from more athletically advanced countries requires not only commitment to training and competition, but also knowledge of sports science and technology, which plays an important role in maximising each athlete's mental and physical competency. To accomplish this depends on one important factor: well developed and carefully selected sports science and research professionals—or functionally competent sports scientists. Such professionals are supposed to possess 3 main types of competency: (i) academic competency, pertaining to profound knowledge of the working of each branch of sports science; (ii) skill competency, pertaining to expertise in performing assigned tasks, using sports science instruments and English-language communication; and (iii) professional quality competency, pertaining to desired characteristics expected of sports science personnel, namely, professional pride, high responsibility, commitment to work, creativity and willingness to improve themselves and their work performance.

Therefore, the application of sports science and technology to enhance athletes' competency and to upgrade Thailand's athletic standards to international levels will be more effective if Thai sports scientists, who are tasked with enhancing the competency of

athletes of all levels, are subject to full-scale development, particularly in terms of professional knowledge and skills, towards greater professionalism. This will likely result in more recognition of the image of the Sports Authority of Thailand as the country's main body of sports scientists, whilst accelerating the organisation's success in developing athletes towards excellence and professionalism.

Acknowledgements

The authors wish to thank, the following graduate research was funded by the Graduate School of Kasetsart University, Bangkok Thailand.

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Validation of the Revised ASCI Model in a Service Industry

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Validation of the Revised ASCI Model in a Service Industry

Abstract

American Customer Satisfaction Index (ACSI) has been empirically examined in a variety of industries in the US. However, the application on fitness industry is limited. Therefore, this study empirically investigates if the revised ACSI Model is applicable in the context of fitness clubs industry in Taiwan. Three hundred and seventy three valid responses are collected using convenience sampling. Confirmatory factor analysis along with structural equation modeling is performed for data analysis at the significance level of .05. Data analyses indicate satisfactory validity and reliability of the measures in the present study. Results demonstrate the Revised ACSI Model fits the data well. More specifically, customer expectation positively predicts perceived value; customer expectation and perceived value positively influence customer satisfaction. Furthermore, customer satisfaction positively affects customer complaints and customer loyalty. Additionally, while previous research has been debated the relationship between customer complaints and customer loyalty, the results of the current study reveal a positive correlation between customer complaints and customer loyalty, indicating that more customer complaints lead to greater customer loyalty if the complaints are well handled. Finally, managerial implications are provided.

***Keywords*: ASCI, customer satisfaction, customer loyalty, perceived value, customer complaints**

Introduction

The concept of consumer satisfaction occupies a central position in marketing academia and practice. Satisfaction is a major outcome of marketing activity and serves to link processes culminating in purchase and consumption with postpurchase phenomena such as attitude change, repeat purchase, and brand loyalty (Churchill & Surprenant, 1982). The homogeneity of products and services has led to increasing market competition in terms of price, service quality, and even customer satisfaction. Satisfied customers are more likely to reveal higher repurchase intention as well as loyalty. Therefore, customer satisfaction attracts researchers' attention continuously (Reichheld & Sasser, 1990). Fornell and Wernerfelt (1988) argue that market maturity and intense market competition have led business organizations to allocate more resources in maintaining customer satisfaction. Kotler (1997) further suggests that attracting new customers costs five times as much as keeping current customers. Therefore, businesses have to adopt so-called defense strategies, meaning that corporations have to increase customer satisfaction (Fornell & Wernerfelt, 1988). Additionally, Mullin, Hardy and Sutton (2003) point out that highly satisfied customers are the best sales forces, especially in the sport industry. More specifically, around 70% customers in sport industry are recruited through being referred by other customers. Moreover, it is without doubt that repatronage of customers highly relates to business financial performance, implying that how to satisfies customers becomes critical. Relatively, if the number of consumers experiencing dissatisfaction is high enough, such responses may have lasting effects in terms of negative image and reduced sales for the firm (Richins, 1983).

The number of professional and well organized fitness clubs has emerged in recent

years. It has been more than two decades since fitness clubs were established in Taiwan. However, the largest two fitness clubs went bankruptcy in 2005 and 2007, revealing the uniqueness of fitness club industry in Taiwan. Fitness Factory, established in 2006, becomes one of the largest local fitness clubs in Taiwan with 6 branches nationwide. Fitness clubs industry is extremely service-oriented; therefore, it requires effective strategies to maintain customer satisfaction. Furthermore, dissatisfied customers are more likely to disseminate negative word-of-mouth if their needs are not met, which may impose harmful effects on corporate image.

This study is to empirically examine if the American Customer Satisfaction Index model (Fornell, Johnson, Anderson, Cha, & Bryant, 1996) is applicable in explaining the fitness club industry. To elaborate, this study is to investigate the relationships among the antecedents of overall satisfaction, customer loyalty to fitness clubs and complaints. Finally, the results provide fitness club practitioners with managerial implications.

Review of Literature and Hypothesis Formation

American Customer Satisfaction Index model

Fornell and colleagues (1996) mention that the nature of the current economic systems is different from the past. Therefore, the measurement of the economic performance needs to be changed from not only the quantity, but also the quality of output. The American Customer Satisfaction Index (ACSI), a type of customer-based measurement system for evaluating and enhancing the performance of firms, industries, economic sectors, and national economies, represents a significant step forward in the evolution of national satisfaction indicators. It provides an independent and uniform means of assessing the quality of what is consumed and produced in the economy. This link is much needed in what we need to understand about the health of the economy and

the individual firms that compete in it.

ACSI consists of three antecedents and two consequences. The antecedents include customer expectation, perceived quality, and perceived value while the consequences contain customer complaints and customer loyalty. Figure 1 shows the relationships among the constructs in ACSI model. However, there are no direct measures of the efficacy of a firm's customer service and complaint-handling systems, the direction and size of this relationship reflect on these systems (Fornell, 1992). When the relationship is positive, the implication is that the firm is successful in turning complaining customers into loyal customers. When negative, the firm's complaint handling has managed to make a bad situation even worse—it has contributed further to customer defection (Fornell et al., 1996).

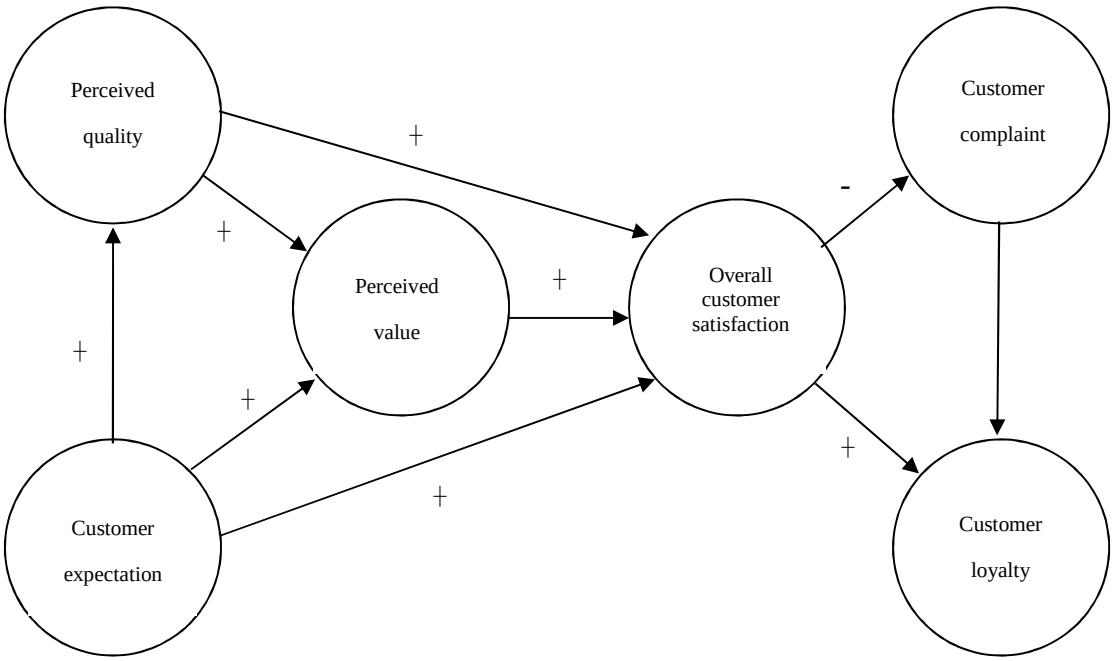


Figure 1: ACSI Model

Source: Fornell, Johnson, Anderson, Cha, & Bryant (1996)

The ACSI model had been tested in the brand Lexus of the automobile market in

Taiwan. In Lexus case, researchers found the model needs to modified from the ACSI (Yu, Wu, Chiao, & Tai, 2005), revealing that the applicability of the ACSI model varies from industry to industry. Therefore, the aim of the current study is to examine the applicability of the ACSI model in the sport market in Taiwan.

The Antecedents of Customer Satisfaction

Kurtz and Clow (1998) argue that customer expectation is customer beliefs toward how service should be presented before service actually is performed. Parasuraman, Zeithmal and Berry (1985) suggest that the following sources contribute to customer expectation: word-of-mouth, personal needs, past experiences, and external communications. Purchase motivations and behavior occur when customers are exposed to product/service image and information. Satisfaction and positive word-of-mouth emerge when actual performance of products/service exceeds expectation. However, dissatisfaction occurs when actual performance of products/service falls short of expectation. In addition, Oliver (1988) points out that customer satisfaction is an antecedent of customer satisfaction. Therefore, customer expectation plays a critical role in influencing customer satisfaction.

Aaker (1991) suggests that perceived quality is an indicator of differentiating brands, products, and services among customers. Perceived quality also directly influences purchase decisions of customers. Monroe and Krishnan (1985) argue that better perceived quality leads to higher perceived value, which in turn increases purchase intention. Moreover, Garretson and Clow (1999) reveal that perceived quality has a direct impact on purchase intention.

Perceived value refers to the overall evaluation of a product/service in terms of perceived benefits and costs (Zeithmal, 1988). Perceived value is an indicator of perceived quality and perceived sacrifice. More specifically, positive perceived value occurs when

perceived quality exceeds perceived sacrifice, further influencing repurchase intention (Monroe & Krishnan, 1985).

Past studies reveal that customer expectation influences perceived quality, further impacting customer satisfaction (Fornell et al., 1996; Halstead, Hartman, & Schmidt, 1994; Tse & Wilton, 1988; Yu et al., 2005). Additionally, Bojanic (1996) demonstrates price and quality determines perceived value; perceived value positively predicts customer satisfaction. Fornell et al. (1996) reveals consistent results among customer satisfaction, perceived value and perceived quality. Nevertheless, literature regarding customer expectation, perceived value and perceived quality is limited. Furthermore, Yu et al. (2005) argue that the distinction between perceived value and perceived quality is nebulous, leading to perceived value remaining in the framework of ACSI (see Figure 2). Based on the preceding reasoning, the following hypotheses are proposed:

H_1: Customer expectations will positively affect perceived value.

H_2: Customer expectations will positively affect overall customer satisfaction.

H_3: Perceived value will positively affect overall customer satisfaction.

The Consequences of Customer Satisfaction

Previous literature has indicated that customer loyalty is an outcome of customer satisfaction. Specifically, customer satisfaction positively influences customer loyalty (Anderson & Sullivan, 1993; Bitner, 1990; Cronin & Tayor, 1992; Reichheld & Sasser, 1990). However, some research argues that customer satisfaction is an antecedent of customer complaints (Day, Schaetzle, & Staubach , 1981). As a result, customer complaints are viewed as the reaction associated with dissatisfying purchasing experiences of customers (Day & Landon, 1977). Singh (1988) further suggests that customer

complaints include the following outcomes: refunding the purchase; disseminating negative word-of-mouth; resorting to the lawsuits. This information implies that customer complaints could influence customer loyalty. However, customer complaints could be turned into positive evaluation toward the business if they can be handled properly in a timely manner (Smart & Martin, 1992). Furthermore, Gilly (1987) shows that customers who propose their complaints reveal greater satisfaction and repurchase intentions than their counterparts. Angry and disappointed customers could be changed into loyalty customers if the complaints are properly responded (Hart, Heskett, & Sasser, 1990). ACSI model proposed by Fornell et al. (1996) adopts this perspective, suggesting that the relationship between customer complaints and loyalty depends on how the complaints are handled. In the work of Fornell and colleagues, customer complaints are measured by the number of complaints. This study replaces the number of complaints with intention to complain due to the difficulty of measuring actual number of customer complaints. Although the relationship between customer complaints and customer loyalty was not significant, positive coefficient was revealed in the work of Yu et al. (2005). Based on the preceding reasoning, the additional hypotheses are presented as follows:

H_4: Overall customer satisfaction will negatively affect customer complaints.

H_5: Overall customer satisfaction will positively affect customer loyalty.

H_6: Customer complaints will positively affect customer loyalty.

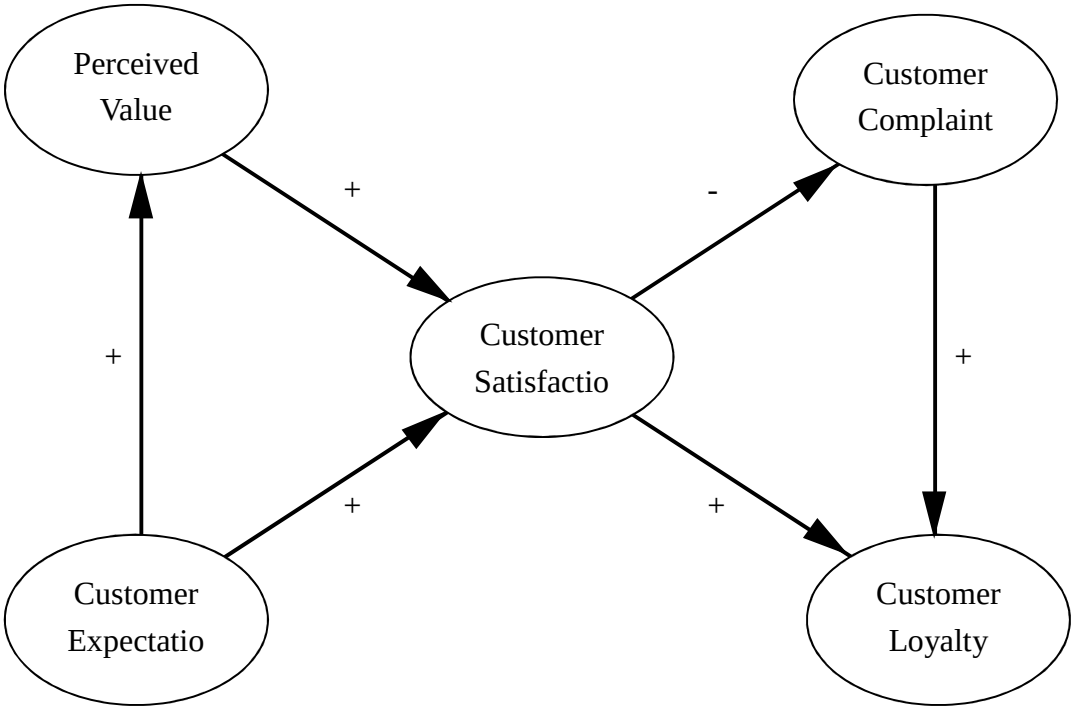


Figure 2 Revised ACSI Model

Method

Participants

One hundred and seven valid questionnaires out of 140 are collected in two of the FF branches using convenience sampling with a response rate of 76.4% for pilot study. Exploratory factor analysis is performed to examine construct validity of the constructs under study. The results reveal satisfactory construct validity. Three hundred and eighty nine valid questionnaires out of 450 are collected using convenience sampling in five FF branches with a response rate of 86.4%. The participants consist of 46.8% males and 53.2% females; 65.1% of the participants age between 21 to 40 years old.

Instrumentation

The measures of the study include the constructs of perceived value, customer satisfaction, customer complaints, customer loyalty, and customer expectations. These measures are primarily modified from the work of Fornell et al. (1996) (see Table 1 for details of the measurement items). The response format for the items is a 7-point Likert-type scale anchored by 1 = strongly disagree and 7 = strongly agree. At the end of the questionnaire, items measuring demographic characteristics are included such as gender and age.

Data Analysis

The psychometric properties of the indicators are assessed through an investigation of internal consistency via SPSS 15.0. Confirmatory factor analysis along with structural equation modeling is performed for data analysis utilizing LISREL 8.51.

Results

Assessment of the Measures

The overall fit of the measurement model is found to be satisfactory. The root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA) value (.024) is lower than the suggested threshold of .08 (Hu & Bentler, 1999). Additionally, normed fit index (NFI), non-normed fit index (NNFI), comparative fit index (CFI), goodness of fit index (GFI), and incremental fit index (IFI) are .93, .98, .99, .97, .99, respectively; and they are all greater than the suggested threshold of .90 (Hair, Black, Babin, Anderson, & Tatham, 2006). All the fit criteria suggest that the fit of the proposed measurement model is acceptable.

All items significantly load on their respective constructs with standardized factor loadings ranging from .46 to .73 (see Table 1), indicating that these indicators accurately capture the respective constructs (Anderson & Gerbing, 1988; Hair et al., 2006). Furthermore, convergent and discriminant validity are examined by average variance extracted (AVE). The computed AVEs for the five constructs range from .34 to .51, implying convergent validity is not well justified. Discriminant validity is evaluated by comparing the AVE values for each construct with the squared correlations between the respective constructs (Hair et al., 2006). Discriminant validity is acceptable since most of the squared correlations exceed the AVE values for the eleven factors (see Table2). The overall assessment of the fit indices reveals that the proposed measurement is of acceptable fit to the data. In addition, construct validity of the proposed measurement are examined. Therefore, the structural model is performed.

Table 1 CFA on the constructs in the Revised ACSI Model (n=373)

Construct/Item	λ	t	AVE	Cronbach's α
Perceived Value			.51	.68
1.Perceived value of Fitness Factory (FF) worth of its price.	.73	--		
2.Perceived value of FF is equivalent to its price.	.70	6.52*		
Customer Satisfaction			.51	.67
1.You are satisfied with FF.	.70	--		
2.You are satisfied with the experiences in FF.	.73	8.86		
Customer Complaints			.35	.60
1.I will tell my friends about dissatisfying experiences in FF.	.52	--		
2.I will complain if I encounter dissatisfying experiences in FF.	.68	7.08*		
3.I will inform FF if I encounter dissatisfying experiences in FF.	.56	6.70*		
Customer Loyalty			.34	.61
1.I will recommend friends to join FF.	.66	--		
2.I will share great experiences in FF with my friends.	.50	6.49*		
Customer Expectation			.38	.70
1.You expect FF to provide fitness information.	.69	--		
2.You expect that equipment and facility in FF are sufficient.	.73	9.14*		
3.You expect that FF protects personal information of clients.	.46	7.09*		
4.You expect that FF responds to customers' concerns.	.54	8.07*		
χ^2(df)=66.14(55)；χ^2/df=66.14/55=1.20；CFI=.99；NNFI=.99；AGFI=.96；RMSEA=.24；SRMR=.35				

* refers to p<.05

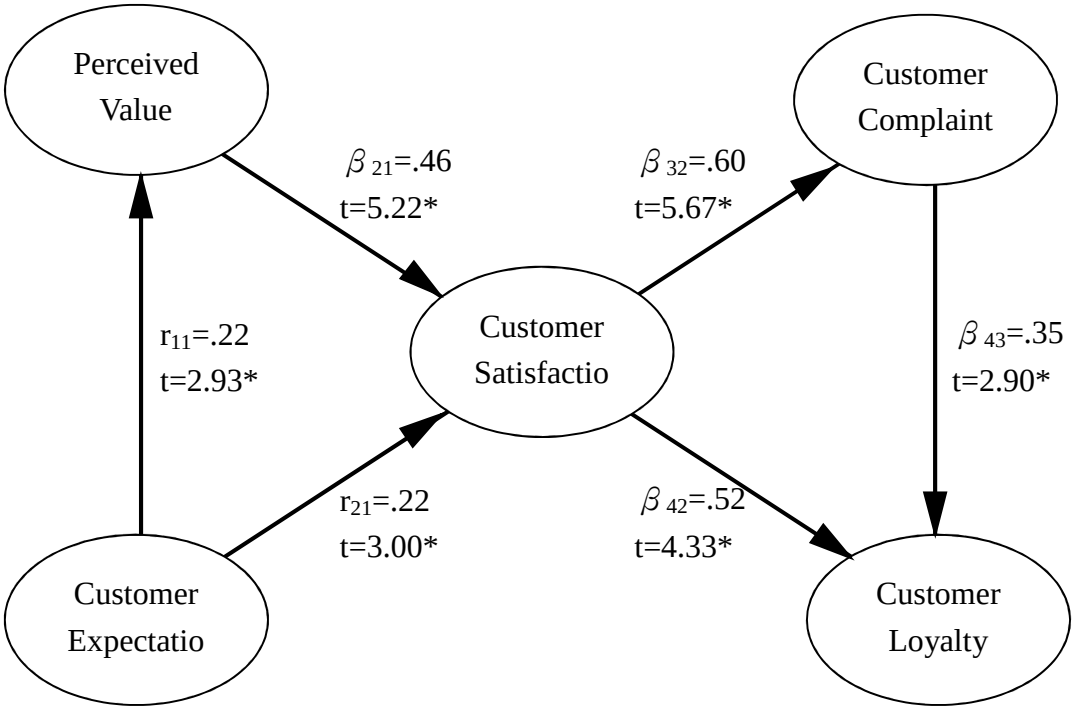
Table 2 Correlations among the Constructs in the Revised ACSI Model

Factor	PV	CS	CC	CL	CE
Perceived Value (PV)	1.00	(.20)	(.17)	(.24)	(.05)
Customer Satisfaction (CS)	.45	1.00	(.32)	(.49)	(.09)
Customer Complaints (CC)	.41	.57	1.00	(.45)	(.07)
Customer Loyalty (CL)	.49	.90	.67	1.00	(.04)
Customer Expectation (CE)	.22	.31	.26	.19	1.00

Note: The number in the parentheses stands for the square of correlation between constructs.

Comprehensive Structural Model Testing

Structural equation modeling (SEM) is performed via LISERL 8.51 in order to examine the hypothesized relationships. Similar to the measurement model, the global fit indices suggest an acceptable fit to the data (RMSEA=.027; NFI=.92; NNFI=.98; CFI=.98; GFI=.97; IFI=.98). Thus, the path coefficients are examined. Results from structural equation modeling demonstrate that customer expectation (γ11=.22, t=3.00), perceived value (β21=.46, t=5.22) have a significantly positive impact on customer satisfaction. Moreover, customer expectation (γ22=.22, t=2.93) have a significantly positive impact on perceived value. On the other hand, customer satisfaction positively influences customer complaints (β32=.60, t=5.76)and customer loyalty (β42=.52, t=4.33). Finally, customer complaints positively affects customer loyalty (β43=.35, t=2.90). All the proposed hypotheses are supported except H4.



Note: n=373, χ(df)=74.62(59), χ^2/df=1.26 CFI=.98；NNFI=.98；AGFI=.95；RMSEA=.027；SRMR=.04

Figure 3　Results of Hypotheses Testing of Revised ACSI Model

Discussion

Customer satisfaction influences customer loyalty, which in turn affects business profitability (Reichheld & Sasser, 1990). This study is to apply the revised ACSI model to examine if it can explain fitness clubs industry in Taiwan. Results of the study reveal that perceived value is the only construct that positively and directly influences overall customer satisfaction. Thus, as the level of perceived value increases, the level of overall customer satisfaction also increases. Moreover, customer expectation exerts positive influence on perceived value, indicating that perceived value mediates the relationship between customer expectation and customer satisfaction. This mediating relationship demonstrates that overall customer satisfaction increases when customer expectation

increases through the effect of perceived value. The results are partially consistent with the work of Fornell et al. (1996) and Yu et al. (2005).

On the other hand, overall customer satisfaction positively affects customer's intention to complain and customer loyalty, meaning that customer's intention to complain and customer loyalty increase when overall customer satisfaction increases. The results in this regard are inconsistent with the findings from Fornell et al. (1996) and Yu et al. (2005). The inconsistency may result from the fact that customer complaints are measured by customer' intention to complain rather than the actual number of customer complaints. The finding reveals that customers may intend to complain due to the idea of "Customer is always right" even if customers are highly satisfied. Thus, pursuing customer satisfaction is always top priority for businesses.

Additionally, customer's intention to complain positively impacts customer loyalty, demonstrating that customer's high intention to complain leads to customer loyalty. From the perspective of Fornell et al. (1996), this finding implies that customers reveal loyalty even though they have high intention to complaints when complaints are properly handled.

It should be noted that some of the AVE values fall short of .5, and some constructs fail to meet the discriminant validity. Additionally, reliability of the constructs in the study can be enhanced in the future. Curing the above issues is an interesting topic for future study.

Conclusion

On balance, the revised ACSI model is applicable in the context of fitness clubs industry in Taiwan and provides managerial implications. A striking finding was the positive relationship between customer's intention to complain and customer loyalty. It indicates that business should encourage customers to reveal their negative perceptions

toward business organizations so that they can make improvements, turning complaints into loyalty. Furthermore, validating the revised ACSI model in different industry may be an interesting topic for future study.

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The Lifestyles of New Endurance Sports Participants: Focusing on Triathlon Participants

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The Lifestyles of New Endurance Sports Participants: Focusing on Triathlon Participants

Abstract

The purposes of this study are (1) to develop a new lifestyle scale and validate its structure and (2) to discuss the characteristics of NES participants according to their lifestyles. The authors have modified Harada and Kikuchi's (1990) lifestyle scale by adding and deleting items and have conducted a questionnaire survey on triathlon participants (who served as representatives of NES participants). The new lifestyle scale consists of eight factors. Analysis results suggested the inclusion of a pro-environmental behavior factor in the lifestyle scale. Furthermore, the authors discuss the characteristics of NES participants compared with those of previously studied populations. The results indicated that the values of synthesis variables assigned to the health maintenance, achievement, and sport factors were high among the sampled triathlon participants. Thus, these high values showed the possibility of being characteristic of NES participants in general. Further, their high values for the pro-environmental behavior factor clarified that the NES participants were environmentally conscious, and their environmental orientation was verified.

Keywords: **lifestyle, endurance sports, characteristics of sports participants**

Introduction

In recent years, in Japan, people have been participating in sports more than before because of growing health consciousness and in order to prevent lifestyle-related diseases. Walking, jogging, running, and cycling are popular options among sports enthusiasts (Sasakawa Sports Foundation, 2008). Ninomiya (2011) said that the sports industry has expanded via the increase in the number of city runners. In particular, new endurance sports (NES), such as the triathlon, trail running, and hill climbing, have become more popular (Harada, 2010). Harada (2010) also notes that while the word “endurance” refers to sustaining a difficult activity over a long period, participants in these sports are motivated by interests in goal setting, development, traveling, community involvement, and sightseeing; these motivations differ from the general public image of endurance sports. Other characteristics of NES include trendiness, incorporation of NES into everyday activities, ease of engaging in NES, and environmental orientation (Harada, 2011). The promotion of environmental concerns in sports is important internationally. Chalip (2006) discusses the importance of pro-environmental behavior by professional sports organizations. If NES participants are as environment-oriented as Harada claims, sports may become a field of environmental education, thus possibly increasing their social value. However, there are no empirical studies on the characteristics of NES participants. Thus, this study examines the characteristics of NES participants according to

lifestyle-related concepts.

Lifestyle is that which "deals with everyday, behaviorally oriented facets of people as well as their feelings, attitudes, and opinions" (Plummer, 1974). This is a complex concept through which the multiphasic and multidimensional aspects of life consciousness, living activities, and life structure can be understood (Nakanishi & Namikoshi, 1989). In the field of marketing research, Wells (1975) pointed out that although we obtain consumer information through demographic variables, we need to complement that information with psychological factors such as lifestyle, because we cannot always find valid relationships between demographic variables and consumer behavior. Murata (1977) and Nakamura, Teramoto, and Yano (2009) also claim that our perception of diversity and individuality has evolved; thus, lifestyle segmentation on the basis of consumers' psychological characteristics needs to occur. These claims imply that psychological variables such as lifestyle tend to be more useful in understanding consumer behaviors than demographic variables and are considered useful consumer information for marketing efforts.

Given that background, the purposes of this study are (1) to develop a new lifestyle scale and validate its structure and (2) to discuss the characteristics of NES participants according to their lifestyles.

Theoretical Background

Concept of Lifestyle

As mentioned above, according to Plummer (1974), "lifestyle deals with everyday, behaviorally oriented facets of people as well as their feelings, attitude and opinions." Kaynak and Kara (2001) argue that "lifestyle relates to how people live, how they spend their money, and how they allocate their time among different types of activities." Additionally, Harada and Kikuchi (1990) define lifestyle as a comprehensive concept that can be grasped as a multifaceted system of living involving life activities and ways of thinking; it is a variable shared by specific groups and hierarchical populations and helps in understanding and classifying social behavior. Therefore, this study defines lifestyle as a variable dealing with the manner and orientation of people's lives.

Since Lazer advocated the concept of lifestyle in 1963, the lifestyle scale and the relationships between lifestyle and consumer behavior have been validated (Plummer, 1974). The AIO (activities, interests, and opinions) scale is the most widely used instrument for measuring lifestyle. It measures consumer orientation from three perspectives: activities (such as work, hobbies, and social events), interests (such as family, home, and work), and opinions (such as social issues, politics, and business) (Plummer, 1974). Wells and Tigert (1971) insist that AIO is effective. Another approach, the VALS (Value and Lifestyle) scale by SRI International, employs demographics and personality characteristics to classify American adults into eight groups (Kotler and Keller,

2008; SBI website). Furthermore, the LOV (List of Values), which uses a concept of value based on studies by Feather, Maslow, and Rockeach, is also used (Beatty et al., 1985).

Lifestyle in Sports Marketing

Nakanishi and Namikoshi (1989), Harada and Kikuchi (1990), and Kitamura, Kawanishi, and Ikeda (1997) have attempted to understand sports participants using the concept of lifestyle. Nakanishi and Namikoshi (1989) use the technique of lifestyle segmentation to apply the concept of lifestyle to sports in order to understand the sports consumer's lifestyle. They classify sports consumers into seven clusters and show that consumers want sports programs suited to their lifestyles. Harada and Kikuchi (1990) developed an AIO-based lifestyle scale for fitness club members. The resulting classifications reveal differences in lifestyles among segments of the population of fitness club members according to gender and age. Kitamura et al. (1997) developed an AIO-based sports-lifestyle scale focused on users of public and private sports facilities. Users are classified into five clusters on the basis of their factor scores on the sports lifestyle scale. They examine the community sentiments and constitutions of each cluster and observe differences in sentiments among the five clusters. In studies using the sports lifestyle scale, Nakanishi and Namikoshi (1989) and Harada and Kikuchi (1990) used items asking not only about sports but also about daily life. On the other hand, Kitamura et al. (1997) focused on sports behavior and used only those items asking about sports behaviors. This is the difference between the aforementioned scales.

In a recent study, Fuller and Matzler (2008) classified skiers at a resort into five clusters on the basis of their lifestyles and verified the relationships between lifestyle and satisfaction with the ski resort. Although lifestyle characteristics may assist in understanding the attributes of sports participants, most research on the lifestyles of sports participants was conducted in the 1990s. In light of the effects of social trends on people's lifestyles, it is necessary to reconsider the lifestyle scale in order to understand the characteristics of sports consumers.

Method

Sample

Data for this study were collected via a questionnaire survey from participants at triathlon competitions (competitions A–N) held in Japan in 2010. These triathlons are "age group ranking" events (an "age grouper" is an amateur triathlete). Since this study aims to elucidate the lifestyles of amateurs, participants in these triathlons were selected as respondents. The survey was conducted with the support of the Japan Triathlon Union. The questionnaires were distributed to participants at the competition; they were asked to answer the questionnaires on site. A total of 1,435 questionnaires were returned[1], and the response rate was 71.8%.

Instrumentation

To promote the general versatility of the scale and the generalizability of the

results, the scale was based on the sports participants' lifestyles scale (Harada and Kikuchi, 1990) and included items from the life attitude scale (Itatsu, 1992). These elements of the scale comprised 33 items; in addition, seven items concerning environmental action (which were based on items from a survey conducted by the Ministry of Environment) were added to the survey in order to examine the environmental orientation of NES participants. A context applicable to current social conditions was the criterion for the adoption of these items, which were then reviewed and selected in collaboration with other researchers. Ultimately, 40 items comprised the entire lifestyle scale (see Table 1). The items were measured on a seven-point scale ranging from 1 (*completely disagree*) to 7 (*completely agree*). The rest of the questionnaire consisted of items querying subjects on demographic and behavioral variables.

Table 1 The Items of the Lifestyle Scale

Factor	Item
Mode	I find it fun to incorporate trends. I consider fashion important as a means of expressing myself. I can demonstrate my individuality by incorporating trends. I do not hesitate to spend money or time on fashion. I purchase trendy items most of the time.
Autogenous suppression	I believe that smoking is injurious to health. I believe that exercises and sports activities are essential for maintaining health. I believe that aging can be prevented to some extent by exercising. I believe that it is important to continue exercising or participating in sports in a regular manner.
Achievement	I am strong-willed and may perhaps even be a person with an aggressive personality. I tend to become completely involved and somehow make things work, whether while playing or at work. I tend to get started right away when I have something to do or when I think of something. I tend to set up targets that seem a little difficult to attain. I take on new things as much as possible and keep on improving. I am the type of person who sets his/her own targets and achieves them. We only live once, so we might as well be successful during our lifetimes, even if it takes a bit of effort. I want to be the center of attention in a group. I tend to give all I have without sparing any effort in my quest to accomplish what I want to.
Weak will	When I see a friend with something interesting, I always want to have it also. I tend to get bored when I hold on to the same thing for too long. I tend to try anything in terms of hobbies or leisure activities, but I do not stick with the things I try very long.
Insubstantiality	Continuing to live seems somewhat meaningless. It is not possible to discover true happiness in this world at the present time. I am unable to do almost everything I want to do, so I find my life dreary. I often fail to do well, no matter what I do.
Positive attitude	No matter what the outcome, I persist through everything I start until the end. A promise needs to be kept, no matter what.
Sport	Sports refresh tired nerves.

Data Analysis

Among the 1,031 responses, that contained answers to all questions, 521 responses (comprising half of the total responses, randomly selected by statistical software) were analyzed in order to select the items for the lifestyle scale. Forty items were divided into ten factors (mode, autogenous suppression, achievement, weak will, insubstantiality, sport, positive attitude, brand consciousness, health maintenance, and pro-environmental behavior) on the basis of the study by Harada and Kikuchi (1990) (see Table 1). To select items for inclusion within the lifestyle factors and to verify the validity and reliability of the factor structure, item-total correlation analysis and a confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) were conducted, and Cronbach's α values were calculated. In the second step, using the 510 responses that constituted the other half of the data, the validity and reliability of the factor structure were verified.

As in the study by Takada et al. (2008), samples were divided into two groups, because the lifestyle items were selected in the first step, and the validity of the factor structure was verified in the second step. When exploratory and confirmatory factor analyses are repeatedly conducted using the same samples, the model's goodness of fit index inevitably becomes high; conducting an analysis using different samples raises the validity of the factor structure. Furthermore, since this research is based on the lifestyle scale proposed by Harada and Kikuchi (1990), it is possible to hypothesize the factor

structure even if fitness club members and NES participants are subject to different surveys, provided that they can all be considered participants in the same sports. Therefore, the factor structure is not built in an exploratory manner, but rather, the validity of the scale is verified and the model is modified through CFA. We used multiple indices of fit to evaluate the model's validity, because the results of CFA are affected by the numbers of responses and variables. In studies by Saito et al. (2010) and Oshimi and Harada (2010), similar analysis was conducted to develop a psychological measure.

Finally, in the discussion section, we discuss the characteristics of NES participants in terms of the results of previous studies.

Results

Demographics

Table 2 shows the demographics and behavioral characteristics of the respondents. More than 80% of respondents were male, and their average age was 37.6 years. The average age at which the respondents had first participated in a triathlon was 31.5 years, higher than the age at which people generally begin participating in other sports. Although the triathlon is an individual sport, many respondents participated in groups. Participating in activities collectively is one characteristic of triathletes.

Table 2 Demographics of Respondents

Item	Sub-item	
Sex	Male	84.9%
	Female	15.1%
		100% (n = 983)
Age	Average	37.6 years
Person accompanying respondent ※Multiple answers allowed	Alone	33.9% (n = 960)
	Partner for race	28.9% (n = 960)
	Friend	13.3% (n = 960)
	Family	24.0% (n = 960)
	Partner	2.5% (n = 960)
	Other	3.3% (n = 960)
Age at which respondent first participated in a triathlon	Average	31.5 years

Development of the Lifestyle Scale

Half of the total responses (521 responses) were used to develop the lifestyle scale. Forty items were divided into ten factors. To select items that have discriminative power, item-total correlation analyses were conducted. The results showed that no items needed to be deleted, since the correlation between each item and the synthesis variables of the factor in which each item was classified was higher than the correlation between that item and the synthesis variables of any other factor.

To verify the validity and reliability of the ten factors, CFA was conducted. The CFA results showed a strong positive correlation between the sports and positive attitude factors. Therefore, these two factors were integrated to create a new factor: the “sport factor.” In addition, following the findings of Fornell and Larcker (1981), who point out

that individual item convergence is considered to be adequate if the factor loading of the item is greater than .707, the model was modified by deleting 12 items; those were the only items that did not affect the definition of any factor. Consequently, the model's indices of fit were $\chi^2/df = 2.65$, GFI = .90 (reference value ≥ .90), AGFI = .87 (reference value ≥ .90), CFI = .92 (reference value ≥ .90), RMSEA = .06 (reference value ≤ .80) (Toyoda, 2007).

The value of average variance extracted (AVE) was calculated to examine convergent and discriminant validity. The observed values of this variable ranged from .48 to .65. The reference value of AVE is .50 or above (Fornell and Larcker, 1981). In this study, the AVE score of one factor was below benchmark value for convergent validity; however, because they were not significantly below the benchmarks, it was considered acceptable. Discriminant validity was examined by comparing the squared correlations between each factor and the AVE of each factor. In this study, discriminant validity was found for all factors.

Cronbach's α (which examines the reliability of the scale) for each factor ranged from .64 to .89. A value of Cronbach's α above .70 indicates high internal consistency, and a value of .50 or less needs to be reviewed (Oshio, 2004). In this study, the autogenous suppression factor (.64) and the sport factor (.69) had values lower than .70; however, their values were more than .50. Therefore, decisions pertaining to the deletion of these factors may be made in future analysis. The model was modified to consist of nine factors

with 28 items.

Verification of the Lifestyle Scale

To verify the validity and reliability of the nine factors, the other half of the total responses (510 responses) were used. Since the autogenous suppression factor had a Cronbach's α value of .54, which is low value again, this factor was removed. Consequently, an eight-factor structure was adopted. Table 3 shows the definitions, items, and Cronbach's α values of each factor.

Table 3 The Definitions and Cronbach's α Values of Lifestyle Factors

Factors	Definition and item	α	M
Mode (MOD)	A strong tendency to be sensitive to the latest fashion	.90	4.05
	I find it fun to incorporate trends.		
	I consider fashion important as a means of expressing myself.		
	I can demonstrate my individuality by incorporating trends.		
	I do not hesitate to spend money or time on fashion.		
	I purchase trendy items most of the time.		
Achievement (ACH)	Potential and passion for accomplishing goals and power to execute ideas	.87	5.07
	I tend to become completely involved and somehow make things work, whether while playing or at work.		
	I tend to set up targets that seem a little difficult to attain.		
	I am the type of person who sets his/her own targets and achieves them.		
	I tend to give all I have without sparing any effort in my quest to accomplish what I want to.		
	I tend to get started right away when I have something to do or when I think of something.		
	I take on new things as much as possible and keep on improving.		
Weak-will (WW)	Easily influenced by others and prone to adopt group behaviors	.66	3.66
	When I see a friend with something interesting, I always want to have it too.		
	I tend to get bored when I hold on to the same thing for too long.		
Insubstantiality (INS)	Sense of negative attitudes and disregard for society	.85	2.48
	Continuing to live seems somewhat meaningless.		
	It is not possible to discover true happiness in this world at the present time.		
	I am unable to do almost everything I want to do, so I find my life dreary.		
Sport (SPO)	Positive opinion of sports and the intention to participate in sports	.70	5.53
	No matter what the outcome, I persist through everything I start until the end.		
	Sports refresh tired nerves.		
Brand consciousness (BC)	Focus on fashion, especially loyalty to leading brands	.74	3.18
	I am somewhat unable to behave in a dignified manner unless I am wearing branded items of which everyone approves.		
	I would be too ashamed to wear no-name brands or imitations.		
Health maintenance (HM)	Positive outlook on health	.77	5.34
	I am careful about what I eat for the sake of my health.		
	I try to have sufficient sleep for the sake of my health.		
Pro-environmental behavior (EB)	Volunteering and participating in constructive activities such as eco-friendly shopping	.88	4.79
	I tend to be sensitive about information pertaining to environmental issues.		
	I strive to save electricity in my daily life.		
	I strive to reduce the amount of garbage I produce.		
	I strive to save water in my daily life.		

Note. M signifies the mean values of the synthesis variables that comprised the item values for each facor.

Next, CFA was conducted using eight factors, and the AVE was calculated. The CFA showed that all paths in the model were significant. The model's indices of fit were χ^2/df = 2.30, GFI = .91, AGFI = .88, CFI = .95, and RMSEA = .05. Since GFI, CFI, and RMSEA each met their respective criteria for goodness of fit, and AGFI almost met its criterion, the model was considered to fit the data (see Figure 1).

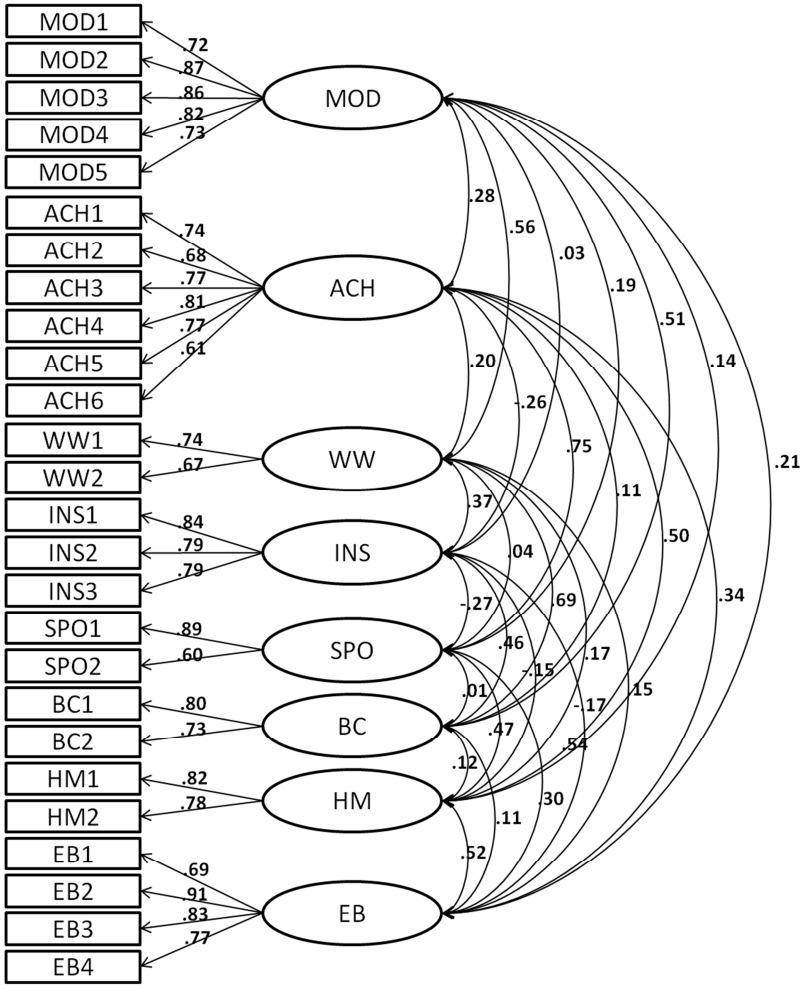

Figure 1. Structure of the lifestyle scale as revealed by confirmatory factor analysis, which was performed to examine the validity of the lifestyle scale. The numbers represent standardized estimate values. These values and the indices of model fit indicate that this model showed good fit to the data as a lifestyle scale with an eight-factor structure.

The AVE values ranged from 0.49 to 0.65 (see Table 4). The AVE score of one factor was below the benchmark value; in spite of this, since it was not remarkably below the benchmark, it was evaluated adequate. Discriminant validity was found for all factors. In conclusion, although convergent validity posed a problem, this study's lifestyle scale met the criteria for validity and reliability. Therefore, the final model consisted of eight factors with 26 items.

Table 4 Coefficients of Correlation of Factors and Average Variance Extracted AVE

	MOD	ACH	WW	INS	SPO	BC	HM	EB
MOD	.64[a]							
ACH	.28	.54[b]						
WW	.56	.20	.49[c]					
INS	.03	-.26	.37	.65[d]				
SPO	.19	.78	.04	-.30	.55[e]			
BC	.51	.11	.69	.46	-.01	.58[f]		
HM	.14	.51	.16	-.15	.51	.12	.64[g]	
EB	.21	.34	.15	-.06	.33	.11	.52	.65[h]

Note. a. AVE of mode, b. AVE of achievement, c. AVE of weak-will, d. AVE of insubstantiality, e. AVE of sport, f. AVE of brand consciousness, g. AVE of health maintenance, h. AVE of pro-environmental behavior

Discussion

Deliberation of the Lifestyle Scale

In this study, a new lifestyle scale was developed and verified. The scale consisted of 8 factors and 26 items. The validity and reliability of the factor structure were verified. Although one factor has issues with convergent validity, its marker value for convergent validity almost reached a standard threshold. Other values indicating validity (model fit and AVE) and reliability were satisfactory. Therefore, analysis of the scale confirmed its validity and reliability. These results indicated that the lifestyle scale for NES participants has eight factors. Since the purpose of this study is to develop and validate a lifestyle scale, these analyses satisfied this purpose.

Items pertaining to pro-environmental behavior were added to the lifestyle scale devised in this study in order to examine the environmental orientation of NES participants. These items were included in the lifestyle scale in addition to the other factors, and their validity and reliability were confirmed. Previous studies (e.g. Nakanishi & Namikoshi, 1989; Harada & Kikuchi, 1990) did not consider the existence of pro-environmental behavior in lifestyle factor structures; therefore, the results of this study indicate the importance of revising the lifestyle scale. Under circumstances of heightened social awareness of global environmental problems, it may be necessary to consider their pro-environmental consciousness in order to understand sports participants.

Characteristics of NES Participants

The results of factor analysis showed that the achievement factor, health maintenance factor, and sport factor showed higher values of synthesis variables than the other factors, which indicates that participants have consciousness to accomplishing goals, health, and sports. This result suggested two possibilities. First, these consciousnesses may be uniformly high among sports participants. Harada and Kikuchi (1990), who examined the lifestyles of sports participants similarly to this study, claimed that sports club members are fashion-conscious, have high motivation to achieve, and restrain themselves in order to maintain good health and feel sure of their health and physical power. Nakanishi and Namikoshi (1989) said that the lifestyles of sports participants have a wide range of variation and vary widely. They classified participants into 7 clusters according to lifestyle: the sport and health trend group, fashion and health trend group, no conscious goal and indifference group, health trend group, sport group, individualistic group, and the solid and individualistic group. The characteristics of each group indicated that participants were interested in sports or health. The results of this study are similar to those of Harada and Kikuchi and those of Nakanishi and Namikoshi in three respects: participants have high health consciousness, interest to sport and motivation to achieve. The items measuring health consciousness, the sport factor, and achievement were different from items used in these other studies. However, each lifestyle scale included similar factors, and the concepts underlying these factors were similar. That is, sports

participants may have this type of consciousness regardless of whether they are NES participants or non-NES participants.

The second possibility is that the health consciousness and motivation to achieve of NES participants are significantly higher than those of other sports participants. In other study on triathlon participants (Waseda University, Sport business management laboratory, 2012), the reasons why they began to participate in triathlons included physical ones such as diet and health maintenance. It was seen that they have high health consciousness. Further, this study reported that many participants started participating in triathlons as an extension of marathon running, swimming, or cycling. That result is supported by interview research on triathlon participants. According to a report of interview research (Waseda university, Sport business management laboratory, 2012), the participant may set a goal of participating in a triathlon after achieving "sub-three"[2] in a marathon. That is, participants are seen to be aspirational and conational. Therefore, for NES participants, the present results of high values for the health maintenance factor and the achievement factor are reasonable.

Furthermore, the addition of the pro-environmental behavior factor to the lifestyle scale (and the verification of its validity) indicated that NES participants were environmentally conscious. In other words, the environmental orientation of NES participants was verified. The value of synthesis variable also tended to be high compared with those of other factors. This result supported Harada's (2011) description of

environmental orientation as a behavioral characteristic of NES participants.

However, we did not formulate the above discussion from only this study. Since the lifestyle scale used in this study is different from the contents of those used by Harada and Kikuchi (1990) and by Nakanishi and Namikoshi (1989), the values of the variables for each factor were not compared in a statistical way. Moreover, since this study focused exclusively on triathlon participants, the study did not examine whether their degrees of lifestyle factors are significantly higher than those of non-NES participants. There is a need to verify whether these results represent unique characteristics of NES participants and whether they are weaker or do not exist in others.

Conclusion

The results of this study showed that the lifestyles of those who participate in NES could be described by an eight-factor model and that a pro-environmental behavior factor is appropriate to include in the lifestyle scale along with the other factors. In addition, this paper's discussion of the eight factors showed some possibilities about the characteristics of NES participants.

However, this study has certain limitations. Surveys need to be conducted in order to verify the validity of the lifestyle scale for participants in other forms of NES. In this study, data were collected only from triathlon participants. In order to enhance the

validity, reliability, and usability of the scale, data need to be collected from other NES participants. Although the model of the lifestyle scale proposed by Harada and Kikuchi (1990) served as a template for the scale proposed in this study, it is also essential to configure scales in an exploratory manner. Exploratory analysis could potentially make it possible to clarify the lifestyle configurations that are unique to NES participants.

Moreover, surveys need to be conducted on non-NES participants. We were not able to define the characteristics of NES participants from only present results, since the values for lifestyle factors could not be compared with those of participants in other sports. In this study, the results only indicated possibilities regarding the characteristics of NES participants. It is necessary to conduct further research in order to ascertain the characteristics of NES participants.

Footnotes

[1] The number of questionnaires that were returned: competition A, n = 211; competition B, n = 145; competition C, n = 26; competition D, n = 102; competition E, n = 147; competition F, n = 124; competition G, n = 104; competition H, n = 6; competition I, n = 34; competition J, n = 192; competition K, n = 177; competition L, n = 54; competition M, n = 65; competition N, n = 48.

[2]Sub-three means to run a full marathon within three hours.

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A Conceptual Framework for Understanding the Motives of Sport Spectators in China

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A Conceptual Framework for Understanding the Motives of Sport Spectators in China

Abstract

The purpose of the study was to develop a conceptual framework to understand the motives of sport spectators in China. Whereas conventional research on sport spectators' motives has primarily focused on spectators in the United States or in some European countries, there has been scant research on Chinese sport spectators. This study, based on a literature review of sport spectators' motives, attempted to develop a unique model for evaluating motives of sport spectators in China. Meanwhile, in light of the consumer behavior model, attempted to identify motives, as well as influential factors and effects of sport spectators' motives, and thus present some useful advice for sports managers and marketers. Finally, this paper also provided suggestions for future research that emphasizes the generalization and globalization of research on sport spectators' motives, such as using a standardized or basic scale for evaluating the motives of sport spectators and taking cultural differences into account.

Keywords: **Consumer Behavior, Sport Spectators**

Introduction

With the booming Chinese economy, the standard of living has remarkably improved for most people, and their need for leisure time and recreational activities has greatly increased. Recreational sports have gained wide attention. In addition to participating in physical exercise or watching sports on television, an increased number of sport spectators enjoy going to a stadium to watch "a live competition." In China, attendance at the CSL (Chinese Super League) was 4,220,000 in 2011, much higher than any other season in its history.

The successful hosting of the 29th Olympic Games greatly promoted the development of the Chinese sports industry. Consequently, there is no shortage of literature addressing sports management, sports marketing, and consumer sports consumption behavior. However, when referring to the motives of sport spectators, the research is relatively scarce. Wang, Liu, and Guo (2005), Feng and Wu (2005), and Yu (2007) explored the satisfaction of sport spectators. The results showed that the level of satisfaction varied among different kinds of sports. Football spectators report low satisfaction, while tennis spectators demonstrate high satisfaction. The demographic statistics showed that most spectators belong to the age group of 20 to 40, except for spectators of t'ai chi, who are in their late 40s. More than half of the spectators have high educational backgrounds—male spectators more so than female spectators. (Chen & Li,

2008; Chen, 2010; Wang, 2005; Feng & Wu, 2005; Guo, 2007; Yu, 2007; Yao, Zhao, & Zhang, 2009; Zhou, Wang, & Li, 2008).

On the contrary, in the United States or some European countries, sufficient studies have dealt with the motives of sport spectators. Research has been conducted on the scales for evaluating the motives of sport spectators: Wann's (1995) Sport Fan Motivation Scale (SFMS); Trail and James's (2001) The Motivation Scale for Sport Consumption (MSSC); Funk, Mahony, Nakazawa, and Hirakawa's (2001) Sport Interest Inventory (SII); Zhang et al.'s (2001) Scale of Attendance Motivation (SAM); and Funk, Filo, Beaton, and Pritchard's (2009) SPEED (Socialization, Performance, Excitement, Esteem, and Diversion). Research has been conducted on the relationships among motives and other variables: Kahle, Kambara, and Rose (1996) developed a functional model of fan attendance motivations for college football; Zhang et al. (2001) explored the relationship between five socio-motivational factors (stress and entertainment, achievement seeking, catharsis and aggression, salubrious effects, and community image) and attendance at minor league hockey games; Trail, Fink, and Anderson (2003) empirically tested the theoretical model that proposed explanatory and predictive relationships among fan/spectator motives and behavior variables; Trail, Robison, Dick, and Gillentine (2003) and Woo, Trail, Kwon, and Anderson (2009) explored the relationships among motives and points of attachment; and Andrew, Kim, O'Neal, Greenwell, and James (2009) examined the relationship between spectator motivations and media and merchandise

consumption at a professional mixed martial arts event. Empirical studies have tested the variability and reliability of the scales or have explored the motives of certain groups: Kwon and Trail (2001) compared sport fan motives between American students and international students; Robinson, Trail, Dick, and Gillentine (2005) tried to classify spectators who attend intercollegiate football games according to the NCAA divisions of the teams; Lee and Smith (2008) made an empirical analysis of fandom in Korea and the United States; Kim, Greenwell, Andrew, Lee, and Mahony (2008) examined spectator motives in the individual combat sport, mixed martial arts; Fink, and Parker (2009) compared spectators' motives for watching their favorite team versus watching games in which their favorite team is not involved; and Izzo et al. (2011) investigated the motivations of Romanian soccer spectators.

Since there are so many theories and scales for exploring the motives of sport spectators in the United States or in European countries, can we just borrow those theories and scales to study Chinese sport spectators? The answer will most certainly be "NO." Because of the following reasons, the concepts developed in the previous studies need to be adjusted to Chinese spectators.

First, as a developed country, the sports industry in the United States is highly developed. The "Big 4" leagues (the National Football League (NFL), the National Basketball Association (NBA), the National Hockey League (NHL) and Major League Baseball (MLB)) can provide spectators with plenty of high-quality games. In addition,

National Collegiate Athletic Association (NCAA) sports and various kinds of international games are good choices for sport spectators. Whereas in China, as a developing country, although an increased number of international games are held, its domestic professional leagues, such as the Chinese Basketball Association (CBA) and the Chinese Super League (CSL), are still in their beginning stages; therefore, the history and quality of the games cannot be compared to the Big 4 leagues, as spectators might not be satisfied with the games. Considering the size of the population, the attendance rate has been relatively low.

Second, as a capitalist country, the cultural background in the United States is quite different from a socialist country. Jackson and Andrews (2005) noted that sports mirror the idealized version of capitalism. Both capitalism and sports are based on competition, achievement, efficiency, technology, and meritocracy. However, in a socialist country, national interests, collective interests, and the family concept play a very important role in people's daily lives. "Harmonious culture" is one of the key characteristics of the Chinese culture.

Finally, according to the principle that the economic basis determines the superstructure, the different economic backgrounds between the two countries establish the different consumption patterns of the nations.

Therefore, the motives of Chinese sport spectators might differ from those of Western spectators. In order to better understand the motives of Chinese sport spectators, a more suitable model should be developed.

The purpose of the study was to develop a conceptual framework to understand the motives of sport spectators in China. The sports industry plays an increasingly important role in the national economy. For example, in 2010, the sports industry generated a revenue of $441 billion USD in the United States, which amounted to 2.65 percent of the gross domestic product (GDP); whereas in China, the amount generated was 200 billion RMB ($31.7 billion USD), which was slightly over 0.5 percent of the GDP. However, the global recession in 2007 and 2008 did have a significant effect on the sports industry, and some professional teams encountered difficulty in selling tickets. The continuous growth of real estate prices in China has had a negative effect on people's recreational consumption budget; the CBA, CSL, and other sports organizations have had serious problems attracting spectators. The present paper, based on a literature review of sport spectators' motives in different countries, among different sports, and among sports of different levels, has attempted to learn more about the motives of sport spectators in China. Knowing the motives of spectators can help sports managers develop a more efficient marketing plan, improve the resource-utilization rate, and attract the most spectators at the least cost.

The second objective of the study was to discuss the factors that influence spectators' motives and the effects of spectators' motives on consequences. The more we learn about motives, the more we will learn about the spectators' psychological attachment to the sport, and the easier it will be for managers to construct a marketing plan. Trail et al. (2003)

examined the relationship between motives and points of attachment in intercollegiate athletics. The results showed that the motive of vicarious achievement is associated with the spectator's identification with the team, coach, community, and the university; the motives of aesthetic and dramatic qualities are associated with identification with the sport in general and with the level of the sport; the motives of social support and escape are overarching motives that are associated with both spectators and fans. Based on those theories, managers can attract fans by promoting the image of their team, coach, community, or university and can attract spectators by telling them that the quality of the competition is quite high.

Finally, this paper provided some suggestions for future research that emphasizes the generalization and globalization of research on sport spectators' motives, such as using a standardized or basic scale for evaluating the motives of sport spectators and taking cultural differences into account.

Literature review

1. Sport fans/spectators

Prior to the research, the definitions of "sport fans" and "sport spectators" must be clarified. Among previous studies, both "sport fans" and "sport spectators" are used. The two terms are treated equally by many researchers. However, Trail, Robison et al. (2003) pointed out that from a marketing perspective, the distinction between a fan and a

spectator may be crucial.

Sloan (1989) made a distinction between fans and spectators. Those who are merely watchers or observers are called spectators, while those who are enthusiastic devotees of a given diversion and watch sports to satisfy a particular desire are called fans.

Sutton, McDonald, Milne, and Cimperman (1997) classified fans on three levels: social fans, who are low in identification, enjoy socialization, and care little about the outcome of the game; focused fans, who are moderate in their level of identification and who are attracted to some aspect of the sport; and vested fans, who maintain a high emotional attachment to a team for a long time and make major financial and time investments in the sport. According to this classification, the fist level of fandom is similar to what Sloan called spectator; consequently, the second and the third levels of fandom are fans.

Based on Sloan's (1989) discussion that fans and spectators react differently to winning and losing, Trail, Robison et al. (2003) hypothesized that motives can be segmented into three categories: an achievement motive that applies solely to fans of successful teams; escape and social interaction motives that apply to both fans and spectators alike; and other motives, such as aesthetics and drama/eustress, that apply to spectators or fans of unsuccessful teams. According to this hypothesis, spectators may not care about the outcome of the game.

Sometimes, when judging whether an individual is a fan or spectator, simply ask the

person how many games he/she watches each year, how much money the individual spends on his/her favorite team/sport, if the person will support his/her team after the team experiences a failure, and the individual's motives for watching the game.

In all, a spectator is someone who watches the game by chance; he/she simply watches the game, enjoys the atmosphere, or enjoys the socialization. On the other hand, a fan is someone who has some points of attachment to the athlete, team, sport, or organization. He/she watches the game to satisfy a particular desire. To some extent, however, a fan in a stadium must be a spectator.

According to the different kinds of media, spectators can be classified as TV spectators, Internet spectators, and stadium spectators. This study attempted to develop a more suitable model for evaluating the motives of individuals who go to a stadium in China. The motives for going to the stadium to watch the game rather than the people themselves were focused on. So when the term "spectator" was used, sports fans in the stadium are involved, but TV/Internet spectators are excluded.

2. Motive

What is motive? Schermerhorn, Hunt, and Osborn (2002) noted that motive refers to the individual forces that account for the direction, level, and persistence of a person's efforts expended at work. Hoy and Miskel (as cited in Chelladuri, 1999) defined it as "The complex forces, drives, needs, tension states, or other mechanisms that start and maintain

voluntary activity toward the achievement of personal goals." Robbins (as cited in Chelladuri, 1999) defined it as "The willingness to exert a persistent and high level of effort toward organizational goals, conditioned by the effort's ability to satisfy some individual need…"

The given definitions suggest that motive is a kind of force that makes the individual work hard to satisfy certain kinds of personal needs. For sport spectators, motive can be described as why they want to go to the stadium to watch the game or what kinds of needs are satisfied from watching the game.

Over twenty terms were used to describe a sport spectator's motives in the previous studies. After a short summary, they were classified into the following fourteen categories.

Entertainment. Entertainment refers to engaging another's attention and/or occupying him/her pleasurably. Sloan (1989) noted that attraction to a sport must be, at least in part, a consequence of its entertainment value. Wann (1995) described entertainment as a pastime, similar to a trip to the movies or an amusement park. Funk, Mahony, and Ridinger (2002) noted that the U.S Cup is an entertaining event due to its reasonable price. Funk, Ridinger, and Moorman (2003) described entertainment value as the extent to which the affordability of the entertainment contributes to one's attendance at games. James and Ross (2004) noted the enjoyment of a sport as a source of entertainment.

In all, spectators who go to the stadium for entertainment will feel happy and enjoy themselves during or after the game.

Vicarious achievement/ Self-esteem/ Self-actualization. Vicarious achievement refers to the desire to be successful, to persist in the face of failure, and to take pride in the final result. Funk et al. (2001) noted that vicarious achievement is the feeling of personal achievement experienced by sport spectators when their favorite team is successful. Funk et al. (2003) described vicarious achievement as the extent to which an individual is interested in the team due to a heightened sense of personal or collective esteem based on his/her psychological association with the team.

The tendency of sport spectators to bask in reflected glory (BIRG) could be the best explanation for vicarious achievement. After winning, spectators who have some points of attachment to the team/athlete/coach/university/community may feel as if it is their own achievement. Further, the achievement, to some extent, can satisfy their need for self-esteem or self-actualization.

Although self-esteem can result from feelings of identification and belongingness (Branscombe & Wann, 1991), vicarious achievement can also result in self-esteem and self-actualization. Kim et al. (2008) noted that even though self-esteem and vicarious achievement are labeled differently, they refer to the same motive.

Empathy. Empathy refers to emotional attachment to a certain team (James & Ross, 2004). Campbell, Aiken, and Kent (2004) discussed the four kinds of empathy situations: basking in reflected glory (BIRG), cutting off reflected failure (CORF), basking in spite of reflected failure (BIRF), and cutting off reflected success (CORS).

Aesthetics. Aesthetics refers to the beauty, grace, or other artistic characteristics of a sport. It has been defined as the "excellence, beauty, and creativity of athletics performance" (as cited in Funk et al., 2003).

Wann, Grieve, Zapalac, and Pease (2008) noted that an aesthetic motive is found to be particularly prominent in individual sports (e.g., figure skating), nonaggressive sports (e.g., professional baseball), and stylistic sports (e.g., gymnastics).

Drama/ Eustress/Excitement. Drama refers to the extent to which an individual is interested in the team because of the excitement associated with a close game versus a one-sided game and the element of uncertainty about the outcome of the game (Funk et al., 2003).

Eustress (pleasant stress), although different from the word "drama," refers to the same motive as the latter (Kim et al., 2008). Some spectators go to the stadium to watch a game simply because the uncertainty of the outcome/the drama of the game can stimulate their senses and provide them with the stress they seek.

Drama/Eustress can result in excitement. The excitement surrounding the game adds to the enjoyment of the event. It is said that modern society does not present enough exciting variability, and only sports allow people to face desired challenges and experience wanted excitement and stimulation in socially acceptable ways. According to Funk et al. (2001), the importance of excitement would be expected to be particularly high at large events when the spectacle is a major focus of event managers. The more important the

event is, the more excitement it will generate.

Interest in Sport/ Team/ Athlete/ Coach. This motive refers to something (Sport/ Team/ Athlete/ Coach) that has the power to attract or hold one's attention. Previous studies cited interest in a sport, interest in a team, interest in coach, and interest in an athlete as different motives (Funk, Mahony, Nakazawa & Hirakawa, 2001; Funk, Mahony & Ridinger, 2002; Funk, Ridinger & Moorman, 2003). In this study, however, they were classified as one motive. Spectators go to the stadium to watch the game because they are interested in some certainty aspects of the game, not in the process of the game, nor the outcome of the game, nor the service; they are only interested in the game itself. In other words, before they go to the stadium, they know what kind of sport they will watch and who will play it, which is enough.

Physical Skills/ Performance/ Knowledge. This motive refers to the quality of the game. Spectators are attracted by the athletes' perfect skills or a well-executed athletic performance. Furthermore, they can learn from watching a high-level game. Physical skills and performance are classified as the same motive because skillful athletes can give the spectators a more exciting performance. However, to some extent, we can say that spectators are interested in the team, the athlete, or the coach because those individuals are skillful.

Role model/ Adoration/ Hero worship. This motive refers to the fact that athletes can provide inspiration for young girls and boys; their athletic abilities and achievement in

high-level competitions make them appear to be unbeatable and heroic (Funk et al., 2002).

Socialization /Family/Friends/Affiliation. As social beings, people have a desire to be with others, communicate with others, and live as a member of a group. Watching a sport in a stadium is a perfect opportunity for people to communicate with each other. They can go to the stadium with their family members, friends, partners, or even with other sport spectators. Before, after, or even during the game, they can enjoy time with others, meeting, talking, discussing, eating, drinking, playing, and so on. As time goes by, they may feel a sense of affiliation to a certain group; for example, family, friends, and fans of a special team or fans of a special sport share an affinity with each other.

Several studies have discussed the motives of socialization, bonding with family, bonding with friends, and affiliation, respectively (Trail & James, 2001; Funk et al., 2002; James & Ross, 2004). However, Wann (1995) described affiliation and bonding with family as similar motives. This study attempted to classify those four motives as socialization or communication.

National pride. National pride refers to the strong emotion that occurs in spectators who are proud of their country. Patriotism is the traditional virtue of the Chinese nation. When spectators watch an international sporting event, they must, at least in part, go to the stadium to support their country. According to Yu (2007), supporting Chinese women's basketball is one of the most important motives for spectators who attend the Federation Internationale de Basketball (FIBA) Women's World League in Shaoxing.

Escape. Escape refers to the fact that watching a sport can help individuals "get away" or be a part of something different from their "normal routine" (Funk et al., 2003). Sport fans want to escape from their "humdrum daily routines" and find a diversion through the experience of watching a game (Sloan, 1989).

In all, sports can add new dimensions to life, allow spectators to feel relaxed, release their stress, rejuvenate their energies, and contribute to their well-being.

Aggression/ Violence/ Cruelty/ Risk taking. Aggression refers to the action that one commits with an intent to harm others and the infliction of an aversive stimulus upon one person by another. Sloan (1989) noted that aggressive actions, on the one hand, are a consequence of observing sports; on the other hand, they might be the source of spectator attraction to athletic events. Violence and cruelty have similar meanings to aggression.

McDonald, Milne, and Hong (2002) evaluated the motives of sport spectators and sport participants. They used the term "risk taking" to refer to the desire to engage in thrill seeking through such activities as parachuting, hang gliding, and mountain climbing. That is to say, the danger involved to the athletes may attract spectators to the game.

Due to the danger aspect of aggression, violence, cruelty, and risk taking are classified as one motive.

Economic. Economic refers to the economic profits that can be gained from wagering or lotteries. Through sports wagering, spectators may gain some money (Guttmann, 1986). However, the economic motive appears to be the lowest reported level of motivation

(Wann, 1995).

Value Development/Physical Fitness. Sports activities and education have had a close relationship ever since the origin of sports. To some extent, a sport is a training ground for the growth of personal values. Sports can help people develop values of physical fitness, hard work, dedication, team cooperation, obeying rules, socialization, altruism, and so on.

When participating in a sport, individuals can improve their physical fitness. However, watching the game can still help individuals develop their concept of health.

3. Consumer Behavior Model

Hawkins and Mothersbaugh (2010) developed a conceptual model of consumer behavior (Figure 1).

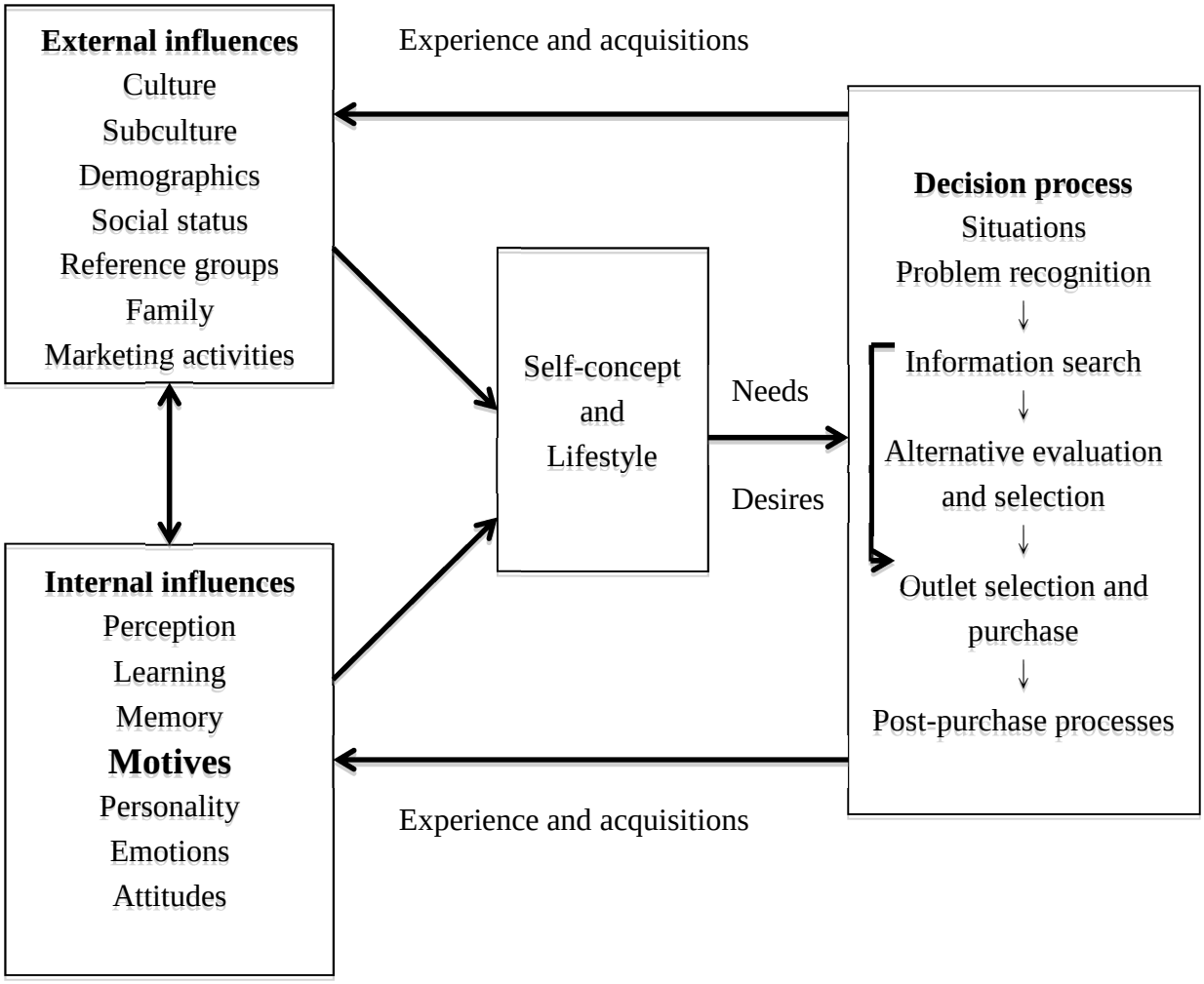

Figure 1 Overall Model of Consumer Behavior (Hawkins & Mothersbaugh, 2010)

According to their model, individuals develop self-concepts and lifestyles based on a series of internal and external influences. The self-concepts and lifestyles then result in needs and desires, many of which should be satisfied by consumption behaviors. Individuals' consumption experiences and acquisitions in turn influence the external and internal environments; thus, they have an indirect effect on self-concepts and lifestyles.

Also, it can be seen that as an internal influence, motive can be affected by external influences and an individual's consumption experiences and acquisitions. To some extent, it can be hypothesized that motives may also be affected by the other internal influences.

Model for sport spectator motives in China

Based on the literature review, the authors developed the model for sport spectator motives among Chinese sport spectators (Figures 2 & 3). In the following sections, motive structure (Figure 3), the core of the model would be discussed first, followed by the whole model.

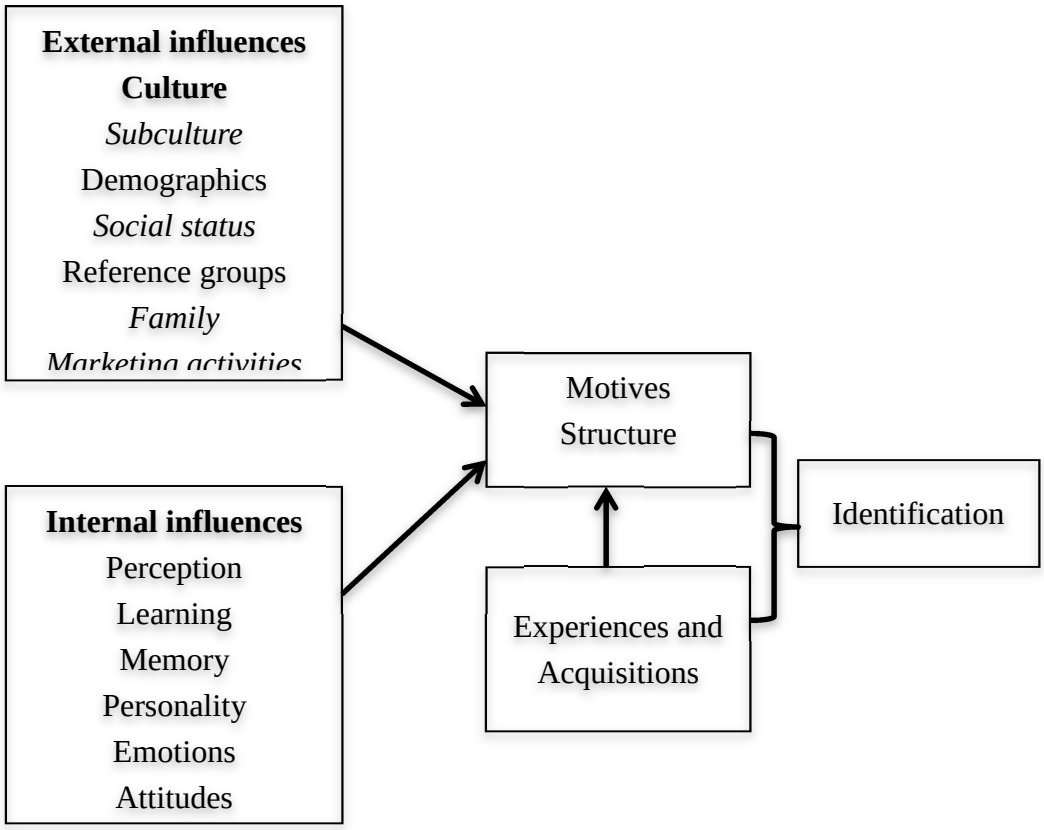

Figure 2 Model for Sport Spectator Motives in China

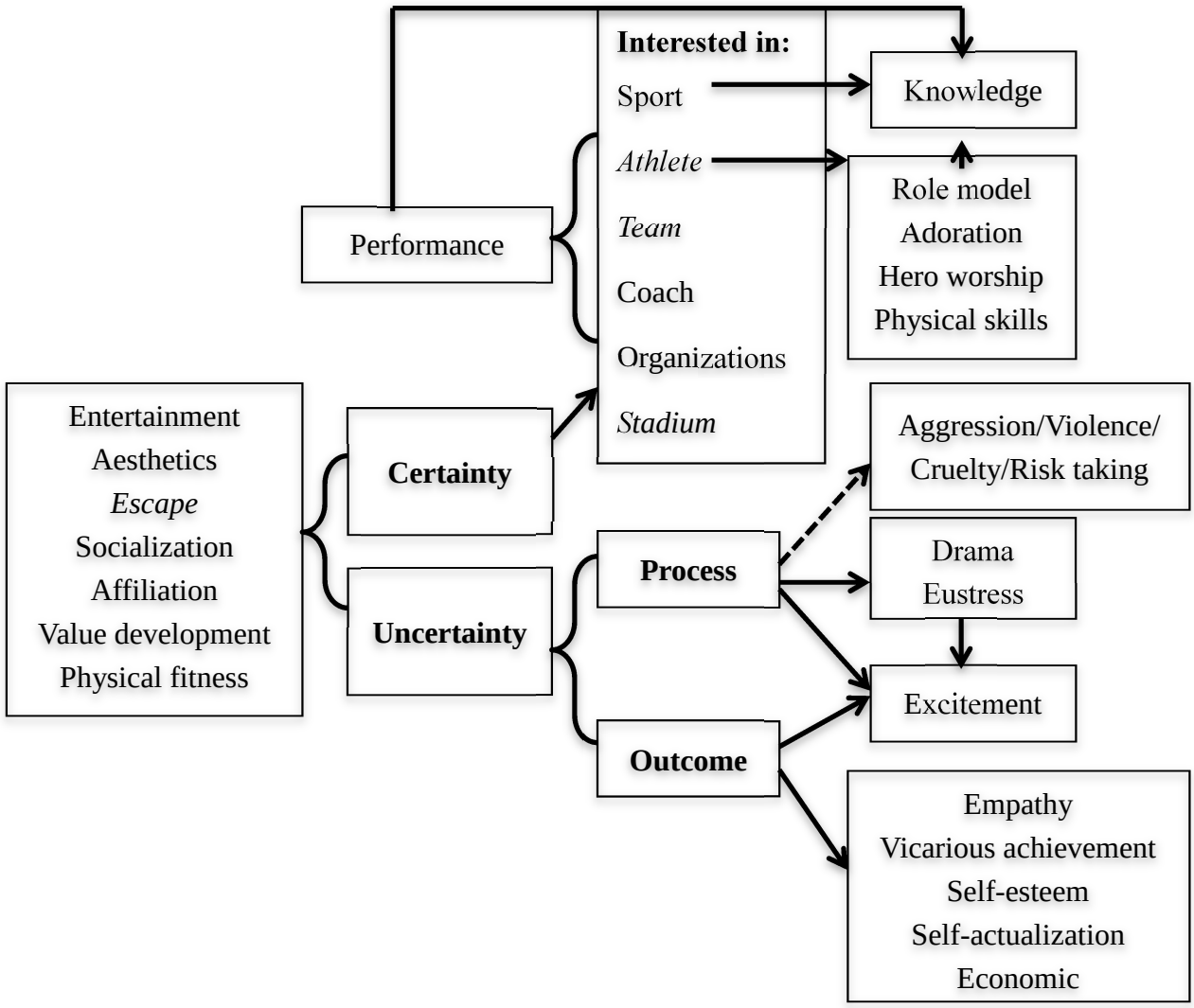

Figure 3 Motive Structure

The uniqueness of a sporting event should be its uncertainty. Spectators are able to know the outcome when the event is over. Even under the same conditions (team A & B, stadium C, time D, referees E, etc.), we cannot produce the same game. The process and the outcome of the event will be totally different. These are attributes of sports as a service, which is defined as an intangible performance that is produced and consumed simultaneously (Chelladurai, 2001).

Sporting events can be divided into two parts: certainty and uncertainty. The former refers to the sport (basketball, football, tennis, etc.), the athlete, the team, the coach, the stadium, and the organizations (universities, cities, countries, etc.); the latter refers to the process of the event and the outcome of the event (win/lose). Each part of the event can satisfy certain needs of the spectators.

For the certainty part, spectators may be interested in the sport, the athlete, the team, the coach, the stadium, and the organization. Further, due to the high level of physical skills, the athlete may be a role model to some spectators. They admire the athlete and regard him/her as their hero. Finally, spectators can learn strategies and tactics from a well-organized game.

For the uncertainty part, there are processes of uncertainty and an outcome of uncertainty. When there is fierce competition, the lead changes back and forth; that is to say, the drama of the event can cause the spectators to feel excitement and find eustress. During some kinds of competitions, such as rugby, basketball, wrestling, and mixed martial arts, the spectators may enjoy the aggression, violence, or cruelty aspects of the event. To some extent, they may feel like they are experiencing the risk themselves. Those are processes of the uncertainty part of a sporting event. While referring to the outcome of the event, no matter who wins, there must be some effect on the spectators' motives or satisfaction with the event. Basking in reflected glory (BIRG), cutting off reflected failure (CORF), basking in spite of reflected failure (BIRF), and cutting off reflected success

(CORS) are four kinds of primary emotional reactions to the outcomes. If an individual basks in reflected glory, he/she may feel as if he/she has achieved success. Further, the success can satisfy their needs for self-esteem and self-actualization. Finally, there is a close relationship between the win/lose phenomenon and economic interests because there are some spectators who attend a game to participate in wagering.

If people see the sporting event as a whole, it can provide them with entertainment, aesthetics, escape from daily life, socialization opportunities, and affiliation. To some extent, it can help them develop the concept of value and health.

However, China, as a socialist country, elite sport has been developed under the nation-wide system. Which refers to the whole nation invest their material and financial resources to develop elite sport in order to win in world-wide championships, such as Olympic Games. With the development of Chinese economy, the nation-wide system is changing gradually, however, its influences on people's values are still alive. Gold medal is the most valuable thing, champion is the hero. The more gold medals Chinese athletes gain, the more powerful Chinese are. Therefore, national pride is supposed to be one of the most important motives for Chinese spectators. National pride can derive from the certainty part of an event—especially for an international sporting event that includes a Chinese team or when it's a dominant event in China—in which spectators go to the game to support their country. In addition, national pride can derive from the entire event. As a sports power country, an increasing number of international sporting events are held in

China, and spectators go to watch the event and enjoy the feeling of being the host.

Finally, the stadium can also be an attractive factor. Since the Beijing Olympic Games, a lot of modern gymnasiums have emerged, such as the Bird's Nest and the Water Cube. Besides, in order to undertake the National Games in China, the host cities constructed various kinds of stadiums. For examples, Ji'nan Olympic Center Stadiums, Shanghai Stadium, and so forth. The architecture of these buildings itself is extraordinary enough for spectators to visit them, let alone visit and watch a sporting event.

Influence factors and effects

Based on the Model of Consumer Behavior, we concluded that motives can be affected by experiences and acquisitions as well as by external and internal factors (Figure 2).

Culture, subculture, demographics, social status, reference groups, family, and marketing activities are the main external influence factors of motive.

For sports spectators, there is plenty of research that focuses on the effects of demographic factors, such as age and gender. Both in China and in Western countries, young spectators attend sporting events more frequently than older spectators (Kim et al., 2008; Fink & Parker, 2009; Shi & Han, 2004; Chen, Z. R., & Li, 2008). In China, male spectators outnumber female spectators (Yu, 2007; Guo, 2007), while in the United States, men like to attend men's games, and women prefer women's games (Trail, Fink et al., 2003; Kahle, Duncan, Dalakas & Aiken, 2001).

Meanwhile, a substantial amount of research has distributed socialization, family, friends, and affiliation factors as motives for spectators to watch a game. Here, according to the Influence Factors of Motives, family and friends were hypothesized as external influences, while socialization and affiliation were motives. Spectators go to watch a game because the activity can satisfy their need for socialization and affiliation with a special group, such as family and friends; on the other hand, family members and friends can influence an individual's consumer behavior.

In China, most of the organizers of sporting events distribute a lot of tickets to the sponsors or the local government as a reward. Thus, most of the attendees can get a free ticket (Yu, 2007; Zhou et al., 2008). In this situation, social status must be an important external influence factor. There are five classes and ten stratifications in China; the higher an individual's stratification, the more resources he/she can possess. Based on the social stratification theory, a person with a higher stratification may have a greater opportunity to obtain a free ticket. Consequently, the middle class, the middle-upper class, and the upper class may occupy a large proportion of spectators. In modern societies, competition becomes fiercer day by day; the higher an individual's stratification, the fiercer the competition they will face. Thus, Chinese spectators who go to watch a game may want to escape from their boring daily lives or rejuvenesce themselves. Therefore, sports marketers should emphasize the escape function of the sporting event.

Marketing activities are another important factor that can influence spectators'

consumer behavior. The differences between marketing and promotion hint that suitable activities can attract more spectators. Producing what the spectator wants is better than producing what the producer wants. For example, if spectators go to the stadium to enjoy family time, the manager can provide the consumers with family tickets and design activities that the whole family can be involved in; if spectators go to the stadium to support their favorite team, the manager can distribute small pins that represent their team or sell licensed products that cannot be purchased anywhere outside the stadium.

Finally, Confucianism culture and Christian culture are different from each other in several ways. Individuals who are raised in different cultures may have differences in perception, memory, personality, emotion, attitude, and learning. For example, family is important in Confucianism culture, while Christian culture encourages individuals to break away from their family and seek God. Thus, family plays an important role in Chinese daily life; the Chinese like to stay with their family, play with their family, and work hard for their family. When evaluating the motives of Chinese sport spectators, family must be a very important influence factor.

According to the definition, motive is the reason why spectators want to go to the stadium to watch a game or defines the needs that are satisfied from watching the game. Thus, motive may result in consumption behaviors and satisfy the needs of spectators. As time passes, motives for individuals to watch a game may change. However, if someone has been watching a particular sport for a long time, identification will be the final

result—whether they identify with the sport, the team, the athlete, the coach, the community, the university, or their countries. As Matsuoka, Chelladurai, and Harada (2003) noted, team identification is the most critical factor affecting an individual's intention to attend future games; hence, identification development will be one of the most important factors for sport event managers to focus on.

Future research

The present paper attempted to create a conceptual model for evaluating the motives of Chinese sport spectators. Based on the literature review, the motives structure model and the model for sport spectator motives in China were developed. According to the model of consumer behavior, the influence factors and the effects of motives were also discussed. However, it is only a conceptual model; further research should be conducted to test the hypothesis of this paper. In addition, empirical studies should be made to discover the characteristics of Chinese sport spectators' motives. Finally, in order to accommodate globalization development, we should develop a standardized or a basic scale for evaluating the motives of sport spectators and take cultural differences into account.

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Asian Sport Management Review

Volume 5 / November 19 / 2012

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Publisher: TASSM associated with AASM
ISSN: 19994109
Address: Rm. 5211, SHIH-CHIEN Building, No.16, Sec. 4, Jhongshan N. Rd., Jhongshan District,, Taipei City, Taiwan(R.O.C.)
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