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Examining Motives of Sport Spectators
in China and Japan:
A Case of Professional Football in Shanghai and Chiba

中国と日本におけるスポーツ観戦動機の比較研究：
上海と千葉のプロサッカーについて

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Abstract

The main purposes of this study were to develop a scale to evaluate the motives of sport spectators in China and to confirm the scale with Japanese data. Further, this scale was used to examine the motives of sport spectators in both countries and explore similarities and differences between Chinese and Japanese spectators.

Findings from focus group discussions and four sets of data collected in or around stadiums were used to accomplish the purposes of this study. Further, SPSS 21 and Amos 21 were used for data analyses.

Results of this study showed that the 9-motive-24-item scale could be used for Japanese spectators. Although Chinese spectators had higher scores than Japanese spectators for each motive, respondents from both countries attributed the highest values to vicarious achievement, interest in sport, and socialization. Further, Japanese spectators were older than Chinese spectators, and Japanese females were more likely to attend games. Additionally, differences in gender, age, and years as a fan for spectators from both countries were discussed in this study.

Some discrepancies were noted based on expressions and judgments of Japanese spectators. Additionally, lifestyles, female employment status, league histories, and ticket sales programs were factors associated with differences between Japanese and Chinese spectators. However, Confucianism appeared to be the most important reason for

similarities.

Sport managers and marketing professionals who wish to attract oriental or global markets will find the scale developed through this study useful for exploring the motives of spectators in these markets. For Chinese markets, family and student segments should be considered when developing business and advertising strategies. For Japanese markets, gender inequality is an important issue that must be considered.

Finally, discussions regarding limitations of this research and recommendations for future research have been included in discussions at the end of this study. More research is needed to explore motives, satisfaction levels, loyalties, and identities of sport spectators throughout the world. Additionally, further research is needed regarding brand equity, sponsorship, and advertisements.

Dedicated to my parents, Fucai Wang and Furong Wang

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Chapter 1 Introduction

In 1931, Bogardus pioneered a study on sport spectator behavior (cited in McPhail & Wohlstein, 1983) by analyzing galleries at professional golf tournaments. This was followed by a plethora of research dealing with sports spectators' behavior. These studies involved influencing factors (Hansen & Gauthier, 1989; Pan & Gabert, 1997; Zhang, Pease, Hui, & Michaud, 1995), motives (Sloan, 1989; James & Ridinger, 2002; Robinson & Trail, 2005; Wann, 1995), spectators (Trail, Robinson, Dick, & Gillentine, 2003; Robinson, Trail, Dick, & Gillentine, 2005), and fans (Smith & Stewart, 2007; Rainey, Yost, & Larsen, 2011). The disciplinary point of view was typically sociological (Zhang et al., 2001) or psychological (Funk & James, 2001; Groot & Robinson, 2008), and the spectators were from intercollegiate (Kahle, Kambara, & Rose, 1996; Kahle, Duncan, Dalakas, & Aiken, 2001) and professional sports (Sutton, McDonald, Milne, & CImperman, 1997). Both individual sports (Kim, Greenwell, Andrew, Lee, & Mahony, 2008) and team sports (Fink & Parker, 2009) were represented.

1-1 Definition of terms

1-1-1 Sport fans and sport spectators

In order to avoid ambiguity and possible confusion, a clarification of the definitions of sport fans and sport spectators is crucial. Further, this distinction has proven very important from the sports marketing perspective (Trail, Fink, & Anderson, 2003).

Previous studies typically distinguished fans from spectators by utilizing the following three dimensions: cognitive, affective and behavioral (Jones, 1997). Pooley (as

cited in Jones, 1997) stated that spectators are those who attend a game and then forget it quickly. Fans, on the other hand, continue their interest and eventually devote parts of every day to a special team or even to the broad realm of the sport itself. Sloan (1989) noted that those who merely watch or observe are called spectators, while those who are enthusiastic devotees of a given diversion and watch sports to satisfy a particular desire are called fans. Wann and Branscombe (1990) pointed out that die-hard fans offer continuous support to their chosen team under almost all conditions, even during the years of defeat; however, fair-weather fans are persons who seem to enjoy the fun only when the team's performance is good. Fair weather fans are more likely to enjoy basking in their team's reflected glory. Wann, Melnick, Russell, and Pease (2001) generalized the definition of sports fans and gave it a broader scope. They posited that a sports fan is an individual who is interested in and follows not only a team but also an entire sport or specific athletes. Sport spectators are those who simply witness a sporting event in person or through radio, TV or other forms of media.

In a general sense, a spectator is someone who watches a game by chance; he/she simply watches the game, enjoys the atmosphere or the socialization, and enjoys the feelings of victory. On the other hand, a fan is someone who has points of attachment to the athlete, team, sport, or organization. He/she devotes time or money to their hobby. Further, he/she watches the game to satisfy particular desires. To some extent, however, a fan in a stadium must also be a spectator. In this study, when the term 'spectator' is used, it includes fans.

1-1-2 Motives

Motive refers to an activated state that creates a desire to take a specific pathway to achieve a goal-directed behaviour (Mowen & Minor, 1998). 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..." According to the push-pull concept, a two-dimensional approach to motive is proposed. Crompton (1979) noted that push motives represent the recognition of unsatisfied internal social-psychological needs, while pull motives reflect the seeking of external experiences that can satisfy these needs.

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.

1-2 Research on sport spectators

1-2-1 Research on Sport spectators in China

In China, with the booming economy, the standard of living has remarkably improved for most people, and their needs for leisure time and recreational activities have increased greatly. Recreational sports have gained wide attentions. In addition to participating in physical exercise and watching sports on television, an increased number of sport spectators enjoy going to a stadium to watch “a live competition.” In 2012, attendance at the Chinese Super League (CSL) was 4,497,578, 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 sport management and sport marketing. However, when referring to the behavior 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 reported low satisfaction, while tennis spectators demonstrated high satisfaction. The demographic statistics showed that most spectators belonged to the age group of 20 to 40, except for spectators of t'ai chi, who were in their late 40s. More than the 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).

1-2-2 Research on Sport spectators in Japan

In Japan, which will be the host country of the 2020 Olympic Games, much research studies have been conducted on sport consumer behavior. Ninomiya (2003, 2011) focused on the relationship between sport consumer behavior and point of attachment; Sano (2007, 2008) examined the motives and characteristics of international sports events attendees; Sumino and Harada (2003), Sumino (2004), and Matsui and Harada (2011) discussed the influence of emotions on sport spectators' behavior; and Matsuoka, Fujimoto, and James (2002) further developed the scale of sport spectators' motives. Oinuma, Ryokai, and Yamamoto (2004, 2005, 2006), Yamamoto, Oinuma, and Ryokai (2005, 2006), and Ryokai, Oinuma, and Yamamoto (2005) conducted a series of studies to explore the characteristics of spectators of Sumo; Nakazawa, Mahony, Funk, and Hirakawa (1999), Matsuoka, Chelladurai, and Harada (2003), Mahony, Nakazawa, Funk, James, and Gladden (2002), and Sumino and Harada (2004) focused on the behavior of J-League spectators. In addition, the J-League has conducted surveys on spectators every year and published the "J-League Fan Survey Report," to help the managers and marketers better understand consumers and develop effective marketing strategies.

1-2-3 Research on Sport spectators in other countries

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). Further, research studies have been conducted on the relationships among motives and other variables: Kahle et al. (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 et al. (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. Finally, 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 et al. (2005) attempted 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 et al. (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.

1-3 Research background

1-3-1 Reasons for developing a new scale

Since there are so many theories and scales for exploring the motives of sport spectators in the United States and in European countries, can we just borrow those theories and scales to study Chinese sport spectators? The answer will most certainly be "NO." As cited in Mooij (2004), "People across cultures can do the same thing for different reasons or motives, and people in different countries may do different things for the same reasons". Further, 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, the spectators might not be satisfied with the games. Further, considering the size of the population, the attendance rate has been relatively low in China.

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. Previous studies have indicated that culture influences motivation to participate in physical activities or sports among Chinese children (PRC), American-born Chinese children (ABC), and American children (USA). PRC sought social affiliation and wellness through participation, ABC were more driven by personal preferences and USA enjoyed the competition and skill improvement related to sports (Yan & McCullagh, 2004). Fung (1992) examined participation motives in competitive sports among the United States, Great Britain, and Japan. Results of the study showed that Japanese

athletes were less likely to be motivated by excitement and challenge factors. Culture-associated differences were also demonstrated in studies about sport consumer behavior (Armstrong, 2008; Kwon & Trail, 2001; Trail, Robinson & Kim, 2008; Won & Kitamura, 2006, 2007).

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. Zhang, Pease, Hui, and Michaud (1995) noted that socio-demographic variables such as age, economic status, ethnicity, education, and occupation related to spectator decision-making.

Based on the aforementioned reasons, the motives of Chinese sport spectators might differ from those of Western spectators.

1-3-2 Introduction of Chinese Super League (CSL)

Football is the most-watched sport in China. According to a report from the Economist Intelligence Unit, from January to August 2009, the broadcasting hours devoted to football was much more than any other sport. Till date, there are two professional leagues, the Chinese Super League (CSL) and the China League One (Chinese Jia League), and both receive considerable attention from the state-owned broadcaster, CCTV5, and other local television stations.

As the highest tier of professional football in China, the CSL was created in 2004 by rebranding the Chinese Football Association Jia-A league. After nearly 10 years of

development, and especially after the anti-corruption movement in 2010, the image of the CSL has improved a great deal. The average attendance rate has dramatically increased by 21.10%, reaching over 4 million in 2011 for the first time. Currently, the CSL includes 16 clubs and 240 games are played each season. The total attendance was nearly 4.5 million in 2012 (Table 1-1). However, the average attendance rates for each club show significant differences. For example, in 2011, Guangzhou had the highest attendance rate (45,666), while Chengdu had the lowest attendance rate (6,443), which was only one-seventh that of Guangzhou.

Table 1-1**Basic Attendance Information (Jia-A league (1994 - 2003) to CSL (2004 - 2013))**

Season	Clubs	Games	Total	Avg.	Change	High avg.
1994	12	132	2,155,000	16,326	--	40,000
1995	12	132	3,140,280	23,790	45.70%	40,182
1996	12	132	3,203,122	24,266	2.00%	42,272
1997	12	132	2,801,100	21,220	-14.40%	39,180
1998	14	182	3,883,000	21,335	0.50%	39,713
1999	14	182	3,623,500	19,909	-7.20%	33,538
2000	14	182	3,622,000	19,901	-0.10%	35,615
2001	14	182	3,329,872	18,296	-8.80%	38,700
2002	15	210	3,146,640	14,984	-22.10%	32,429
2003	15	210	3,719,700	17,710	18.20%	30,500
2004	12	132	1,430,600	10,838	-63.40%	23,636
2005	14	182	1,871,700	10,284	-5.40%	26,000
2006	15	210	2,228,300	10,611	3.20%	30,679
2007	15	210	3,173,500	15,112	42.40%	24,643
2008	16	228	3,065,280	13,444	-12.40%	26,501
2009	16	240	3,854,115	16,059	19.50%	36,805
2010	16	240	3,499,304	14,581	-9.20%	33,342
2011	16	240	4,236,322	17,651	21.10%	45,666
2012	16	240	4,497,578	18,740	6.20%	37,250
2013	16	240	4,456,977	18,571	-0.90%	40,428

Note. http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Chinese_Super_League#Attendances

Rosner and Shropshire (2004) noted that professional sports teams generate revenue from four principal sources: tickets sales or gate receipts, broadcasting rights, licensing income and stadium-related revenues (e.g., luxury boxes, concessions, stadium-naming rights, etc.). The Sports Business Group at Deloitte split revenues into three categories: revenue derived from match-day (i.e., largely derived from gate receipts, including season tickets and memberships), broadcasting (i.e., both domestic and international broadcasting rights), and commercial sources (i.e., sponsorships and merchandising). This group formed the Deloitte Football Money League during the 2012–2013 season. From the report, the Barclays Premier League gained 40% of its total revenues from broadcasting, 50% from tickets sales, and only 10% from merchandising and sponsorship. In particular, the team, Manchester United, which won the England Domestic League championship in the 2012–2013 season, and came third in the 2013 Deloitte Football Money League, gained 32% of its total revenues from broadcasting, 31% from match-day and 37% from commercial sources. In China, tickets sales, merchandising, sponsorship, and broadcasting are considered the main revenues for football clubs of the CSL (Xu et al., 2009). According to the Report for Commercial Values of the CSL, 84% of the CSL's total revenues came from merchandising and sponsorship, 12% from tickets sales, and 4% from advertising in the stadium. However, due to the dominance of the state-owned broadcaster (CCTV5), less revenue is generated from the broadcast rights of domestic sporting events in the national television market in comparison to broadcasters in other countries. Consequently, the Chinese clubs gained little revenue from broadcasting.

It seems inadequate to assert that the proportions of revenues for the Barclays Premier League are better than that of the CSL. However, a rational hypothesis could be that if each source contributes a relatively equal share to the total revenues, to some extent, the team could diversify their risk, and reduce the potential impact of each factor, such as adverse conditions in the sponsorship market. The CSL relied heavily on sponsorship which will be a fatal constraint for the development of the CSL. Besides, a virtuous circle exists between sport managers or marketing professionals, and sponsors: popular events expand the fan and participant base, which in turn increase the popularity or awareness of the products from the sponsors' company, which in turn attract more sponsors and foster more events. Therefore, sport marketers and managers should emphasize attracting more spectators.

A sports economy company in Brazil noted that during the 2010–2011 season, the CSL attracted most spectators from among Asian professional football leagues. However, when considering attendance rates, the CSL had no superiority to other Asian leagues, such as the J-League. Some sport managers or marketing professionals may attribute the low attendance rates to the large capacity of the stadiums. Though the large capacity of the stadiums did have a negative influence on the attendance rates, the fact that two clubs once sold out tickets indicates the possibility for the clubs to attract more spectators.

1-3-3 Introduction of Japan Professional Football League (J-League)

The forthcoming season will be the 22nd for the J-League since kicking off on May

15, 1993, The mission for the J-League is to foster the development of Japan's sporting culture and to build a happier country through sport. In 1999, in order to open the doors more widely to the emerging clubs that support the J-League's mission, Division 2 (J2) was launched with 10 teams. To date, there are 18 clubs in J1 and 22 in J2. More than seven hundred games are played each season. The average attendance for J-League Division 1 (J1) and J2 in 2012 was 17,566 and 5,805 respectively. Though the average attendance for both J1 and J2 seems to have decreased in recent years, the total attendance at J-League games has increased gradually, except for in the year of 2011, which might have been influenced by the earthquake off the pacific coast of Tohoku. Detailed attendance information for J-League was reported in Table 1-2 and Table 1-3.

*Table 1-2**Basic Attendance Information for J1*

Season	Clubs	Games	Total	Avg.	Change
1993	10	180	3,235,750	17,976	
1994	12	264	5,173,817	19,598	9.02%
1995	14	364	6,159,691	16,922	-13.65%
1996	16	240	3,204,807	13,353	-21.09%
1997	17	272	2,755,698	10,131	-24.13%
1998	18	306	3,666,496	11,982	18.27%
1999	16	240	2,798,005	11,658	-2.70%
2000	16	240	2,655,553	11,065	-5.09%
2001	16	240	3,971,415	16,548	49.55%
2002	16	240	3,928,215	16,368	-1.09%
2003	16	240	4,164,229	17,351	6.01%
2004	16	240	4,551,695	18,965	9.30%
2005	18	306	5,742,233	18,765	-1.05%
2006	18	306	5,597,408	18,292	-2.52%
2007	18	306	5,834,081	19,066	4.23%
2008	18	306	5,875,865	19,202	0.72%
2009	18	306	5,809,516	18,985	-1.13%
2010	18	306	5,638,894	18,428	-2.94%
2011	18	306	4,833,782	15,797	-14.28%
2012	18	306	5,375,300	17,566	11.20%

*Table 1-3**Basic Attendance Information for J2*

Season	Clubs	Games	Total	Avg.	Change
1999	10	180	827,217	4,596	
2000	11	220	1,340,820	6,095	32.62%
2001	12	264	1,505,722	5,703	-6.42%
2002	12	264	1,806,392	6,842	19.97%
2003	12	264	2,084,185	7,895	15.38%
2004	12	264	1,904,172	7,213	-8.64%
2005	12	264	1,975,340	7,482	3.74%
2006	13	312	1,998,648	6,406	-14.39%
2007	13	312	2,034,543	6,521	1.80%
2008	15	315	2,227,570	7,072	8.44%
2009	18	459	2,903,607	6,326	-10.55%
2010	19	342	2,290,082	6,696	5.85%
2011	20	380	2,440,695	6,423	-4.08%
2012	22	462	2,681,881	5,805	-9.62%

In 2011, the average attendance rate for the CSL exceeded that for J1 for the first time ever since 2004; however, in terms of ticket sales for the two leagues, the J-League is doing much better than the CSL. According to Table 1-4, the total attendance for J1 was 1.1 times the number for the CSL, while ticket sales were 163.8 times more than for the CSL. In addition, for J2, though its total attendance was only 57.61% that of the CSL, total ticket sales were 49 times that of the CSL; even the average ticket sales for J2 were 1.5 times more than the total ticket sales for the CSL. The enormous disparity in ticket sales between the CSL and J-League cannot be explained only by ticket price disparity between the two countries. Based on a report from “Sports.163,” one of the most influential Internet sports media in China, the ratio of season ticket prices to local

monthly household income is 15.54% and 27.36% for CSL and J1 respectively. To some extent, one conclusion might be that because the season tickets price for J1 is a little higher than for the CSL, there is a potential for the CSL to generate more revenues from ticket sales.

Table 1-4

Ticket Sales for CSL & J1 & J2 in 2011

	CSL	J1	J2
No. of Clubs	16	18	20
No. of games	240	306	380
Total Attendance	4,236,322	4,833,782	2,440,695
Avg. Attendance	17,651	15,797	6,423
Total Ticket Sales	3,825,000RMB (632,147 dollars)	10,885,000,000yen (104,187,604 dollars)	3,304,000,000yen (31,624,790 dollars)
Avg. Ticket Sale (Club)	239,000RMB (39,498 dollars)	605,000,000yen (5,790,859 dollars)	165,000,000yen (1,579,325 dollars)

1-4 Purpose of the study

The first purpose of this study was to develop a scale to evaluate the motives of sport spectators in China. Due to the scarcity of research on sport spectators' behavior in China, little is known about their motives and no motivational scale with good psychometric properties has been developed. Previous scales have all been developed within English speaking countries, and then translated to Japan, Romanian, and Korean (Mahony et al., 2002; James et al., 2009; Izzo et al., 2011; Won & Kitamura, 2007). Therefore, this study will be the first attempt to try to develop a scale and generalize

previous theories to Chinese spectators.

The second purpose of this study was to use the developed scale to examine the motives of sport spectators in China. The sports industry has played 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 had a significant effect on the sports industry, and some professional teams encountered difficulty in selling tickets. Moreover, the continuous growth of real estate prices in China has had a negative effect on recreational budgets of individuals; accordingly, the CBA, CSL, and other sports organizations have had serious problems attracting spectators. Based on a literature review of sport spectators' motives in different countries, among different sports, and among sports of different levels, the present study is an attempted to learn more about the motives of sport spectators in China. Since motive is the reason for behavior, knowing the motives of spectators will help sport managers or marketing professionals to better understand their consumers, develop more efficient marketing plans, improve resource-utilization rates, and attract the most spectators at the least cost.

The third purpose of this study was to discuss the relationship between each of motives, demographic information, and experience, with intention of future behavior.

The fourth purpose of this study was to confirm the scale with Japanese data.

Armstrong and Peretto Stratta (2004) noted that standardizing instruments at the outset of research is necessary for market analyses. To date, only one study has attempted to develop a motive scale for sport spectators between two countries for the same sport (Won & Kitamura, 2006). Matsuoka et al. (2003) translated the motivation scale for sport consumption (MSSC) (Trail and James, 2001) into Japanese and used it to evaluate motives of Japanese baseball spectators. James et al. (2009) further confirmed the reliability and validity of MSSC and used it to evaluate and compare the motives of professional baseball spectators in the United States and Japan. Therefore, this study could be a good supplement to the spectator motives scale, to compare the motives of consumers in different countries.

The fifth purpose of this study was to compare Chinese and Japanese spectators. Based on the national culture and economic ideology, Ralston et al. (1997) divided countries into four categories (Figure 1-1), including Western-Capitalism (W-C), Western-Socialism (W-S), Eastern-Capitalism (E-C), and Eastern-Socialism (E-S). As a traditional eastern country, China not only has the second-largest economy in the world, but also has a leading socialist economy, especially in terms of economic ideology. In contrast, Japan is one of the most developed and richest countries, and is widely accepted as one of the leading eastern economic powers with a capitalistic ideology. Therefore, both countries have group-oriented cultures, but one has an individual-oriented ideology while the other has a group-oriented ideology. Previous studies have compared various kinds of motives among countries, which belong to the different cultural-economic

categories (Silverthorne, 1992; Prescott, Young, O’Neill, Yau, & Stevens, 2002; Fung, 1992; You, O’Leary, Morrison, & Hong, 2008; Tachibana, Matsukawa, & Zhong, 1996). In terms of sport spectators’ motives, previous studies have dealt with the comparison between W-C and E-C countries (James et al., 2009); and between E-C and other E-C countries (Won & Kitamura, 2006 & 2007); similarities and differences have been found. In addition, useful and valuable suggestions have been offered for sport marketers and managers aimed at those different countries. However, this study will focus on the comparison between an E-C and an E-S country, and will be the first comparative study on sport spectators’ motives between these two categories of countries.

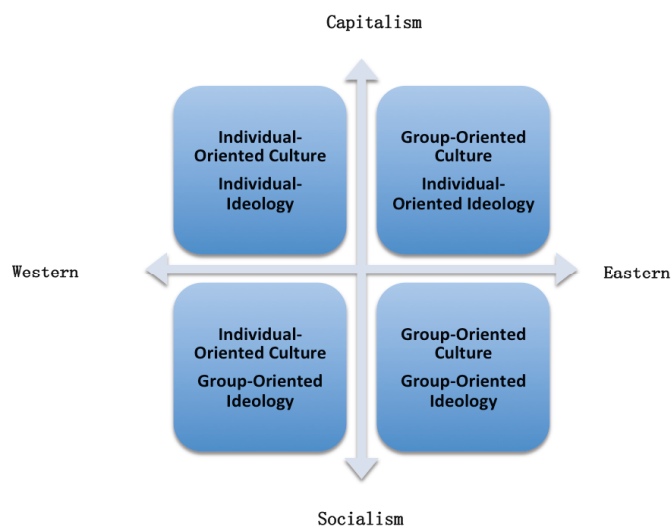


Figure 1-1

A Two-by-Two Matrix of National Cultural and Economic Ideology

As Asian countries, Japan and China share some similarities in terms of their cultural environments. The traditional cultures of the two countries are both based on

Confucianism, with an emphasis on harmony, unity, and co-operation. As globalization continues to develop, the influence of Confucianism in the younger generation has become weaker (McDonald, Mihara, & Hong, 2001). However, Confucianism has already permeated almost every facet of daily life in these countries, and could be a very important factor influencing consumer behavior. James et al. (2009) noted several motivational differences between spectators from collectivistic versus individualistic countries. This study compared the motives of sport spectators from China and Japan, both of which are collectivistic countries. Results of this study could help researchers to understand better whether spectators from the similar cultural backgrounds have different motives to attend games. In addition, this study will promote research on motives of sport spectators in China and Japan.

The sixth purpose of this study was to provide suggestions for Chinese football clubs to cultivate allegiant fans. Allegiance refers to loyal or committed fans who have considerable strong psychological connections to a sport or team, and whose attitudes towards the team remain unchanged regardless of the performance of the team (Funk & James, 2001). In China, the performance of the team is a significant indicator of attendance. For example, the new emerging club of Guangzhou Evergrande, which played in CSL during the 2008–2009, 2011–2012, 2012–2013, and 2013–2014 seasons, has become the champion of the league, with average attendance rates greater than for any other club ever since 2011. However, the managers and marketers need to learn more about consumers, and how to motivate them to support teams continuously even when

facing failure. From an academic perspective, cultivating allegiant fans is a wise choice for improving attendance at games.

The final purpose of the study was to give suggestions for sport marketers and managers who aimed at oriental markets or even global markets. Since 1978, China has moved from a closed, centrally planned system to a more market-oriented one. After more than 30 years of development, China became the second-largest economy in the world after the United States in 2010. Along with the successful hosting of the 29th Olympic Games, the sport markets in China have been gaining more attention from global marketers and managers. NBA and Italian Super Cup have already brought their games to China and benefited from their activities. In addition, a large number of Chinese sports fans watch the NBA, NFL, NHL, MLB, Barclays Premier League, UEFA European Championship and other top professional sports from around the world through TV or the Internet. Therefore, this study will give a general view of the characteristic and motives of spectators in China. Further to help the sport marketers and managers to make more effective market strategies.

Chapter 2 Literature review

2-1 Consumer Behavior Model

Hawkins and Mothersbaugh (2010) developed a conceptual model of consumer behavior (Figure 2-1).

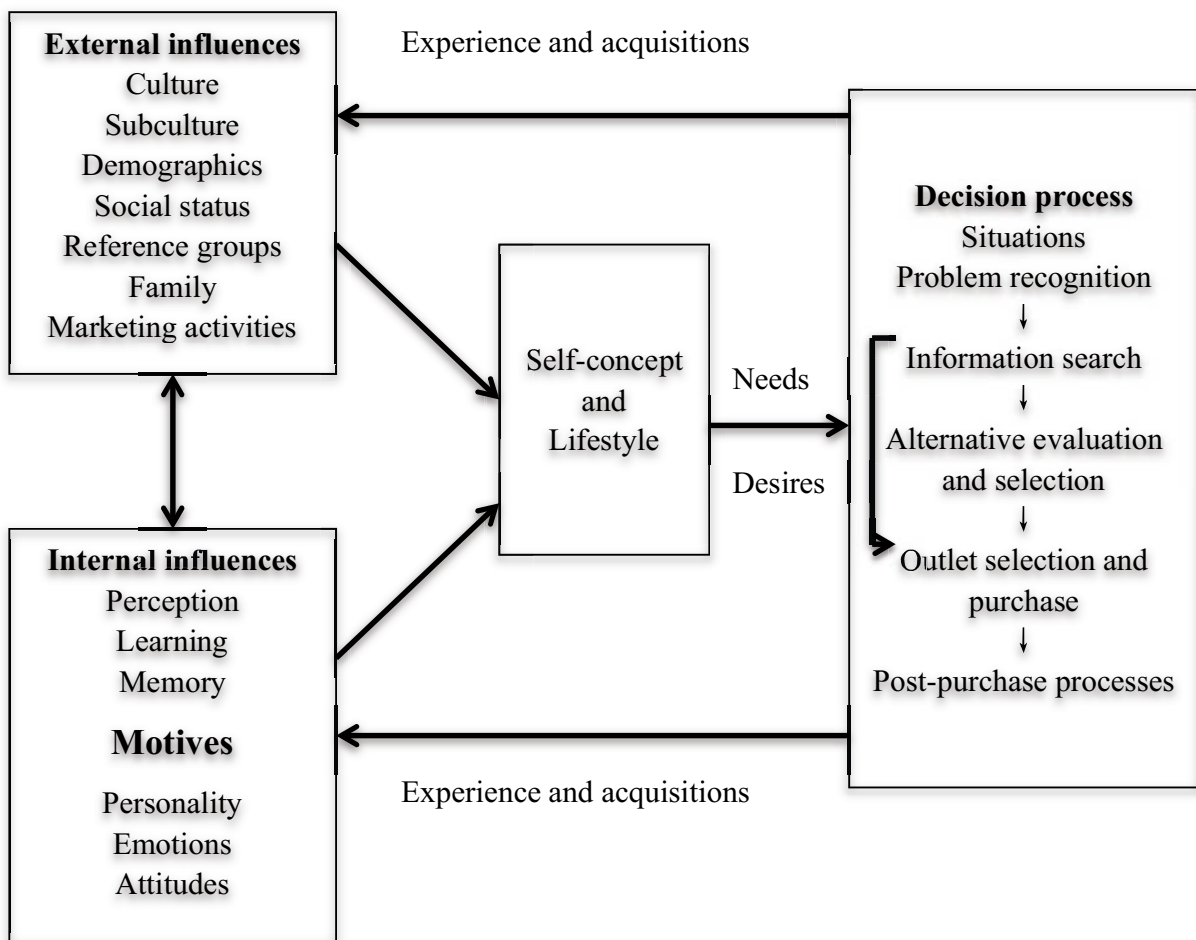


Figure 2-1

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.

2-2 Classification of Sport Spectators Motives

A number of theories have been proposed to systematize the influence of motivation on behavior. These include Maslow's hierarchy of needs theory, Alderfer's ERG theory, McClelland's acquired needs theory, Herzberg's two-factor theory, Adams' equity theory, and Vroom's expectancy theory.

To date, only Maslow's hierarchy of needs theory has been applied to sports. According to Maslow's theory, there exist a hierarchy of human needs. Starting with those most critical and immediate, the list proceeds from physiological to safety and then social, esteem, and self-actualization. In order to fulfill the higher needs, the more critical lower ones must first be satisfied.

Based on Maslow's theory, Darmon, Laroche and Petrof (as cited in Correia & Esteves, 2007) divided sports necessities into the following three categories: energy

spending, which corresponds to the primary or body needs of human beings; sports insurance, body products and the quest for health, which corresponds to the secondary or security needs of human beings; and team affiliation and quality services which corresponds to the tertiary or social needs of human beings. Next, they developed a specific pyramid of the quaternary necessities: passions, rest and leisure. These necessities roughly correspond to the fourth and fifth needs of Maslow's hierarchy, ego needs and self-actualization. McDonald, Milne, and Hong (2002) note that motives such as risk taking, stress reduction and aggression belong to physiological needs; while affiliation and social facilitation belong to social needs. They deem self-esteem a particularly broad category, which includes competition, achievement, skill mastery, aesthetics, risk taking and stress reduction. Self-actualization, also broad, is considered to include value development, self actualization and aesthetics.

Sloan (1989) developed a five-factor framework to aid in the categorization and understanding of sports spectator's motives and their influence on behavior. The extent to which each factor is present and influences the individuals behavior varies widely across different spectators. The factors are: (1) Salubrious effects – Sports increase an individual's positive feelings, leading to improved physical and mental states. (2) Stress and stimulation seeking – Sports help individuals regulate their tension and energy levels, and particularly can act to increase arousal intensity. (3) Catharsis and aggression – Viewing aggressive sports can either decrease or increase the viewer's aggression levels; when the favored team loses, anger will rise. (4) Entertainment – Sports can enhance

individuals' happiness and enjoyment and satisfy their seeking of aesthetic and moral representation (5) Achievement seeking – Sports invoke a relationship between emotion and outcome of the game; anger increases in losses and happiness in victories.

Wann et al. (2001) applied Maehr and Braskamp's (1986) personal investment model to sporting events and concluded that the interaction of perceived options, and a sense of self and personal incentives result in an increased personal investment. Based on this hypothesis, Correia and Esteves (2007) utilized empirical results to develop a 5-factor-19-motive model. Postulated factors included material reasons, team affiliation, extras and facilities, star players, and the form of entertainment.

2-3 Motives of Sport Spectators

The search for sport spectators' motives can be described as a quest to answer the following two questions: (1) Why do individuals want to go to the stadium to watch a game? (2) What kinds of needs can be satisfied from watching the game? (Wang & Matsuoka, 2012). Previous studies have utilized over twenty terms to describe a sport spectators' motives, and more than five scales have been developed to evaluate the motives of sport spectators (Wann, 1995; Kahleet al., 1996; Milner & McDonald, 1998; Trail & James, 2001; Funk et al., 2001; Correia & Esteves, 2007; Funk et al., 2009).

2-3-1 Discussion of the previous scales

First of all, according to a literature review, the reliabilities and discriminant

validities for certain previous scales are given in Table 2-1 and described below.

Wann developed 'The Sport Fan Motivation Scale' (1995) and confirmed the internal consistency of the scale (1999). However, when Kwon and Trail (2001) generalized the scale to American students and international students, the reliabilities for group affiliation (.55), economic or betting on sport (.64), and eustress (.69) were below the .70 benchmark (Hair, Black, Babin, & Anderson, 2010). Since most of the participants in those studies were students, the scale might not be generalized to the normal mix of spectators in a stadium or arena.

'The Motivation Scale for Sport Consumption' (Trail & James; 2001) showed good reliability when used in several empirical studies (Trail et al., 2003; Fink & Parker, 2009; James et al., 2009). However, the participants for those studies were students, season tickets holders or consumers of a special team. In one study, 683 Japanese professional baseball spectators completed the questionnaire as they left the stadium (James et al., 2009). Since the performance of the teams or the outcome of the game clearly has an effect on the spectators' emotions, it would have been better to collect data before the game.

'The Sport Interest Inventory' (Funk et al., 2001; Funk, Mahony, & Ridinger, 2002; Funk, Ridinger, & Moorman, 2003) was developed especially for spectators who attend women's games. In the final version of the scale, eighteen motives were included. However, the discriminant validities for the first (AVE ranged from .26 to .52) and second (AVE ranged from .22 to .60) versions of the scale were far below the acceptable

level (Hair et al., 2010). Further, data collection was conducted by sending the questionnaires directly to 800 season ticket holders and 800 single game attendees (in the third study). Among the 623 usable respondents, 60% were season ticket holders. To some extent, the sample was relatively unique and thus difficult to generalize. Thus, further empirical research should be done to reconfirm the reliability of the scale. In addition, participants responded the questionnaire after the game, which also decreased the reliability of the results.

The SPEED scale (Socialization, Performance, Excitement, Esteem, and Diversion) was developed by Funk et al. (2009) and represented a good hybrid approach for measuring and explaining sport consumers' behavior. However, when Homma et al. (2009) used it to evaluate the motives of Japanese spectators, the reliability of factor 'Excitement' was only .395. This is substantially lower than the benchmark of .70 (Hair et al., 2010).

Table 2-1

Reliabilities and Discriminant Validities for Sport Spectators Motives Scales

	Wann' SFMS (1995)		Kahle, Kambara, & Rose (1996)		Milne & McDonald's MSC (1999)		Trail & James' MSSC (2001)			
Motive	α	AVE	Motive	α	Motive	α	AVE	Motive	α	AVE
Aesthetics	.81	.60	Internalization	.80	Aesthetics	.88	.72	Aesthetics	.88	.72
Drama (Eustress)	.89	.78	Self-expressive experience	.56	Sport-Based Needs	.79	.36	Drama	.80	.58
Economics	.84	.65	Camaraderie	.72	Skill Mastery	.83	.69	Physical attraction	.78	.69
Entertainment	.85	.69	Compliance	.53	Self-esteem	.93	.53	Physical skills	.75	.53
Escape	.85	.70	Obligation	.64	Self-actualization	.92	.55	Escape	.72	.51
Family	.63	.61	Self-defining experience	.61	Value Development	.85	.48	Family	.68	.48
Group Affiliation	.72	.51	Identification with winning	.59	Social Needs	.84	.38	Social	.78	.54
Self-esteem	.78	.68			Affiliation	.84	.74	Achievement	.89	.74
					Achievement	.82	.59	Knowledge	.80	.59
					Risk-taking	.90	.23			
					Aggression	.85				
					Competition	.72				

(Continued)

Table 2-1

Reliabilities and Discriminant Validities for Sport Spectators Motives Scales (Continued)

	Mahony, Nakazawa, & Hirakawa's SII (2001)		Correia & Esteves (2007)		Funk, Filo, Beaton, & Pritchard's SPEED (2009)		
Motive	α	AVE	Motive	alpha	Motive	α	AVE
Soccer	.87	.52	Material Reasons	.81	Socialization	.86	.60
Vicarious achievement	.86	.44	Team Affiliation	.71	Performance	.83	.78
Excitement	.84	.40	Extras & Facilities	.74	Excitement	.77	.77
Team Identification	.83	.40	Star Players	.65	Esteem	.85	.75
Supporting Women's Opportunity in sport	.80	.32	Form of Entertainment	.63	Diversions	.83	.75
Aesthetics	.71	.35					
Socialization	.70	.31					
National Pride	.78	.27					
Drama	.72	.26					
Interest in Player	.81	.35					

2-3-2 Descriptions of each motive

Sport interest/ Interest in player

For attending sport games, interest in the particular sport and interest in particular player are two of the motives that were most discussed in previous studies (Funk et al., 2001; Correia & Esteves, 2007; Trail & James, 2001). The above motives refer to curiosity or concern about or attention to particular sport and to player that command an individual's attention. However, in Funk et al.'s study (2001), sport interest refers to the love of football and personal identification as a football fan motivate individuals to attend the game; while interest in player refers to the player rather than the team that attracts individuals to the game.

Vicarious achievement/self-esteem

Kim et al. (2008) noted that even though vicarious achievement and self-esteem are labeled differently, they refer to the same motive. Vicarious achievement or self-esteem refers to the desire to feel successful, proud or bask in reflected glory. There is an antecedent to this motive, one has team preference, he/she supports the team and believes the team he/she supports will win or at least performs very well. 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. Zhang et al. (2001) noted that achievement seeking was the most important motive for spectators from an International Hockey League. Further, achievement was a crucial and effective predictor of future sport attendance (Zhang et al., 2001; Ridinger & Funk, 2006; Mahony et al., 2002).

Socialization

Socialization refers to the concept that attending game at a stadium gives individuals the opportunity to interact with others (McDonald et al., 2002; Funk et al., 2003). It is very common for a spectator to go to the game with friends. Such groups of friends usually have similar sport interests, and thus can cheer for the same team, comment on the performance of the team, talk about the players on the team, discuss the referees, and even gossip about certain players. Those communications typically help improve one's relationship with others. Therefore, attending the game can satisfy one's desire to socialize with others, especially people with similar sport interests and with whom they came to the game.

Escape

Escape refers to attending a game to get away from the problems and stresses of daily life (Wann, 1995; Trail & James, 2001; Kim, Andrew, & Greenwell, 2009). Sports can add new dimensions to life, allow spectators to feel relaxed, release their stress, rejuvenate their energies, and contribute to their well-being. As far back as the first century, the Greek orator Dio Chrysostom noted the escape function of sport. He spoke, in an oration about the Alexandrian crowd, that "when they enter the stadium, it is as

though they had found a cache of drugs; they forget themselves completely, and shamelessly say and do the first thing that occurs to them” (as cited in Guttman, 1981). Sloan (1989) noted that sport fans want to escape from their “humdrum daily routines” and find a diversion through the experience of watching a game.

Drama/ Eustress

Eustress (pleasant stress), although different from the word “drama,” refers to the same motive as the latter (Kim et al., 2008). It refers to the uncertain outcome of a game, or the excitement associated with a close game, that motivates individuals attend a game (Funk et al., 2003; Funk et al., 2009). 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. To some extent, due to the comparable competitiveness of the two teams, and the games’ increased importance, drama explains why semi-final and final games are better attended than normal season games. Increased drama also explains the increased attendance of relegation matches. While such matches are rare in the United States, they are common in other countries, and refer to a match in which, if the lower ranking team loses, they are demoted to a lesser league. Such games are hotly contested and very well attended.

Knowledge

Knowledge refers to a situation where desire to learn about a sport motivates individuals to attend game (Funk & Pastore, 2000; Funk et al., 2001). Through watching the game, one can learn the rules of the game, the meaning of special gestures of the

referee, and the technique or tactics of playing the game. Understanding the sport, in turn, increases the enjoyment of watching the game.

Support the city

Support the city refers to the situation where attachment to the city or city pride motivates individuals to attend games. Depending upon the entity the team represents, this motive has also been termed community support (Funk et al., 2003), national pride (Funk et al., 2001), and university pride (Ridinger & Funk, 2006).

Family bonding

Family bonding refers to a situation where the opportunity to spend time with other family members in the stadium motivates individuals to attend a game (Gantz & Wenner, 1991; Wann, 1995). Previous studies noted that female spectators are particularly motivated by family bonding (Wann, 1995; Ridinger and Funk, 2006). There are also cultural differences, as shown by the observation that Japanese spectators are more motivated by family bonding than are spectators in the United States (James et al., 2009). Such differences are particularly valuable for sport managers or marketing professionals who aim their product at a global market.

Entertainment

Entertainment refers to engaging another's attention and/or occupying him/her pleurably. 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. James and Ross (2004)

noted the enjoyment of a sport as a source of entertainment. However, Funk et al. (2002) noted that the U.S Cup is an entertaining event due to its reasonable price; Funk et al. (2003) described entertainment value as the extent to which the affordability of the entertainment contributes to one's attendance at games. Therefore, there are two dimensions for entertainment, pleasurable and affordable.

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).

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).

2-4 Team attachment and team identification

Team attachment refers to psychological attachment to a team (Kwon & Armstrong, 2004). Though it might just be one point of attachment for identification (Robinson &

Trail, 2002), to some extent, team attachment is equal to team identification. It was noted that highly identified fans are more attached to the team (Mitrano, 1999; Sutton et al., 1997). Wann and Branscombe (1990) suggested that different levels of team identification could explain the phenomena of die-hard and fair-weather fans. Since fair-weather fans only associate with the team when it is performing well, they might be the cause of attendance fluctuations. Therefore, it is important for sport managers or marketing professionals to know the level of their fans' attachment and then adapt appropriate marketing strategies for different marketing segmentations.

Funk & James (2001) developed the psychological continuum model (PCM) to describe an individual's psychological change from an aware spectator to a fan with an enthusiastic allegiance. Awareness, attraction, attachment, and allegiance were included in the model. However, as in the previous studies, attachment and allegiance were the most discussed (Alexandris & Tsiotsou, 2011; Kwon & Armstrong, 2004; Funk & James, 2006). Attachment describes a stable psychological connection to a sport or team. Based on the perceived importance associated with the sport or team, to some extent attachment also reflects the level of association. A spectator who has moderate or high level of team identification has an attachment to the team. Allegiance refers to the loyal or committed fans who have strong psychological connections to a sport or team, and whose attitudes towards the team remain unchanged regardless of the performance of the team.

Fink, Trail, and Anderson (2002) explored the relationship between team identification and sport spectators' motives. The results showed that vicarious

achievement, aesthetics, drama, and social interaction could explain 72.6% of the variance in team identification.

Ridinger and Funk (2006) noted that university pride, excitement, team interest, escape, sport interest and vicarious achievement could explain 62% of the variance in commitment for the men's team; while university pride, family/friend, team interest, support sport, escape, socialization, sport interest and vicarious achievement could explain 60% of the variance in commitment for women's team.

According to Neale and Funk (2006) 52.5% of the variance in attitudinal loyalty could be explained by interest in player, vicarious achievement, excitement, and team interest.

Funk et al. (2009) found that performance, esteem, excitement and diversion could explain 75% of the variance in team commitment.

2-5 Intention of future behaviour

Zhang et al. (2001) conducted three multiple liner regression analyses to examine the relationship between the Scale of Attendance Motivation factors and game attendance level. The results showed that achievement seeking and salubrious effects explained 17.1% of the variance in game attendance for the current season and 21.9% of the variance in game attendance intention for the coming next season. In addition, achievement seeking, salubrious effects, and stress and entertainment explained 17.1% of the variance in game attendance intention for the remainder of the present season.

Mahony et al. (2002) noted that 15% of the variance in frequency of attendance could be explained by team attachment, community pride, drama, player attachment, and vicarious achievement.

Ridinger and Funk (2006) noted that 18% of the variance in men's team attendance could be explained by university pride excitement, team interest and escape; while university pride, team interest, role model and vicarious achievement explained 14% of the variance in women's team attendance.

From the study of Funk et al. (2009), 30% of the variance in game attendance could be explained by performance, esteem and excitement.

2-6 Motives and other issues

James and Ross (2004) examined sport consumer motives among three nonrevenue collegiate sports in the USA: baseball, softball and wrestling. The results indicated that there are significant differences across sports on the following motives: skill, drama, team effort, vicarious achievement, family bonding, team affiliation, and empathy. In addition, people who attend nonrevenue sports tend to be motivated by sport related motives, such as entertainment, skill, drama, and team effort. Wann et al. (2008) explored a motivational profile for sport fans of different sports. The results showed that different kinds of sports spectators valued each motive differently. To some extent, this finding was consistent with James and Ross's (2004) study.

Kim et al., (2009), Andrew et al. (2009) explored the relationship between mixed martial arts fans' motives and media consumption behavior. The regression analyses indicated that sport interest, drama, and adoration had significant impact on Korean spectators' media consumption, while sport interest, fighter interest, and drama influenced American spectators more. Further, male spectators were more influenced by drama, aesthetics, knowledge, and violence; female spectators were more influenced by drama, aesthetics, and knowledge.

Kwon and Trail (2001) compared sport fan motives between American students and International students; Won and Kitamura (2006, 2007) compared sport consumer motivations between South Korea and Japan; Kim et al. (2009) explored the differences on spectator motives and media consumption behavior between American and South Korean mixed martial arts fans; the results of the above studies confirmed the importance of cultural differences in the determination of motivational factors underlying sport attendance.

Chapter 3 Methodology

3-1 Study1: Development of the scale

In order to accomplish the first purpose of the study, to develop a scale to evaluate the motives of sport spectators in China, study1 was conducted. Focus group, back-translate, questionnaire surveys, and confirmatory factory analyses were used in study1.

3-1-1 Focus group

As mentioned above, only demographic characteristics of Chinese sport spectators could be known from previous studies. Therefore, the purpose of the focus group was to determine the possible motives among Chinese sport spectators.

Questionnaires with open-ended questions were used to accomplish this purpose. Participants were asked how many times they had attended a sporting event the year before they came to Japan, and the kinds of factors that motivated them to attend sporting events.

Data were collected among Chinese students enrolled in the Waseda University and Tsinghua Alumni Association in Japan. Forty Chinese students (20 male, 20 female) replied that they had attended at least one sporting event and gave some detailed information about their motives for attending sporting events.

Based on the responses from the focus group and previous studies, 12 motives were extracted for study1, namely aesthetics, vicarious achievement, drama, sport interest, family bonding, interest in player, support the city, escape, knowledge, socialization, entertainment, and the wholesome environment. Aesthetics refers to the beauty, grace, or other artistic characteristics of a sport (as cited in Funk et al., 2003). Vicarious achievement refers to the desire to be associated with the successful ones, such as a winning team (Trail & James, 2001). Drama refers to the excitement associated with a close game (Mahony et al., 2002). Sport interest represents the enthusiasm toward the sport (Funk et al., 2002). Family bonding refers to the need to spend time with family members (Wann, 1995). Interest in player corresponds to the desire to see the sports star (Funk et al., 2001). Support the city refers to the spectator's attachment to the city that contributes to the attendance (Funk et al., 2002). Escape refers to the desire to get away from daily life through the game (Wann, 1995). Knowledge embodies the desire to learn about the techniques, tactics, or rules of the sport (Trail and James, 2001). Socialization refers to the desire to communicate with social beings (James & Ross, 2004). Entertainment denotes the ability of the spectator to afford and enjoy the game (Funk et al., 2003). Wholesome environment refers to the atmosphere around the stadium (Funk et al., 2003).

3-1-2 Original scale development

Items for each factor were generated from previous scales. Except socialization and

knowledge, which contained four items, the other 10 factors contained three items each. Each of the items for the 12 motivational factors were assessed by a 7-point Likert-type scale (1 = strongly disagree, 7 = strongly agree).

Since the previous scales were all in English, the English version of the scale (12 motives with 38 items) was translated separately into Chinese by two Chinese Ph.D. students in sport sciences. Subsequently, the two Chinese versions of the scale were translated back into English by another two Chinese Ph.D. students, who also majored in sport sciences. Finally, the authors and the four Chinese Ph.D. students deliberated and decided the words of the final version of the Chinese scale. The back translation results showed that the questionnaire was consistent in its content.

3-1-3 Instrument

A questionnaire survey was conducted to accomplish the aims of the study. 'Demographic information', 'experience', 'motives', and 'intention of future behavior' were the main sections of the questionnaire.

In the demographic section, participants were asked to provide their personal information, such as gender, age, educational background, occupational classification, income bracket, and their travel time from their house to the stadium.

In study1, experience referred to the spectators' past attendance and their sports experience. Participants were asked whether they were fans of the home team, how long had it been since they became fans of the home team, how many home games they had

attended this season, and whether they had experience playing football.

Finally, the participants were asked to evaluate their past attendance frequency, indicating home game attendance, frequency of game viewing on television, and how often they read team news on the Internet during the season. Also, they were questioned about their future intentions, indicating how likely they are to attend home games of the team, watch games on TV, and read team news on the internet.

3-1-4 Participants and data collections

Data were collected outside each stadium before the games on October 6, 2012 (Shanghai Shenxin vs. Tianjin Taida) and October 20, 2012 (Shanghai Shenhua vs. Changchun Yatai). For each game, ten volunteers from universities or colleges around the stadiums were recruited. They were told the purpose of the data collection and trained to distribute and collect questionnaires. Only tickets holders were targeted participants. During the first game 338 questionnaires were distributed and 324 (95.9%) of them were collected; 257 questionnaires were distributed during the second game and 234 (91.1%) of them were returned. In all, 558 questionnaires were collected in the two games, and 478 (85.7%) of them were responded completely. However, due to the possibility that holders of free tickets come to the game only because they have a ticket, only data from the participants who paid for their tickets were included in this study. This procedure yielded a final sample of 333 valid respondents.

3-1-5 Procedure

First of all, the 333 valid respondents were sorted by gender and age; then, they were numbered in sequence; finally, respondents with odd numbers were labeled as group1 (n = 167) and the others were labeled as group2 (n = 166). Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA) was conducted using data from group1 to verify the scale. Using data from group2, CFA was conducted again to confirm the revised model.

3-2 Study 2: Motives of Chinese Super League (CSL) spectators

The second and third purposes of the study were to explore the motives of Chinese sport spectators and discuss demographic and experiential influence on intention of future behaviour. In order to accomplish those purposes, study2 was conducted.

3-2-1 Instrument

Based on study1, an improved questionnaire was developed. 'Demographic information', 'experience', 'motives', and 'intention of future behavior' were still the main sections of the questionnaire.

However, in the demographic section, participants were asked their monthly disposable income instead of their income bracket; whether they are student, full-time work, retired, no job, or other employment status instead of their occupational classification. In the motives section, a scale with psychometric properties, which is developed in study1, replaced the original scale (12 motives with 38 items).

3-2-2 Participants and data collections

Two sets of data were collected from Hongkou Football Stadium in Shanghai.

As mentioned in study1, the first set of the data was collected on October 20, 2012 (Shanghai Shenhua vs. Changchun Yatai). The original scale was used. Ten volunteers distributed 257 questionnaires in one and a half hours before kick off. Only 234 (91.1%) of the questionnaires were returned and 217 (92.7%) of them were responded completely. In study2, the 217 questionnaires were labeled as Shenhua1.

Using the improved questionnaire, the second set of data were collected outside the stadium before the games on August 31, 2013. (Shanghai Shenhua vs. Wuhan Zall). Ten volunteers from universities or colleges around the stadiums were recruited. They were told the purpose of the data collection and trained to distribute and collect questionnaires. The game kicked off at 19:45, volunteers distributed and collected questionnaires around different entrances from 18:00 to 19:30. In all, 365 questionnaires were collected, and 279 (76.4%) of them were responded completely. In study2, the 279 questionnaires were labeled as Shenhua2.

3-2-3 Procedure

First of all, demographic information and experience for Shenhua1 and Shenhua2 were reported. t-tests were conducted to explore if there were significant differences between the two groups.

Secondly, two Confirmatory Factor Analyses and Cronbach's internal consistency analyses were conducted separately for the two groups to reconfirm the reliability and validity of the improved scale.

Thirdly, means, standard deviations for each motive, team attachment, future intention and past attendance were reported separately for the two groups and for fans of Shenhua1 and Shenhua2. MONOVAs were conducted to explore the differences between the two groups' spectators and fans. Also, intra-groups' gender differences were examined.

Finally, multiple liner regressions with stepwise were conducted to explore the relationship between motives and future intention and the influence of demographic characteristics and experience on the future intention. Future intention was input as a dependent variable, all the motives were input as independent variables to check the relationship among them; then future intention was still input as a dependent variable, however, demographic information and experience were input as independent variables to check the relationship among them.

3-3 Study 3: Motives of J-League Spectators

Study3 was conducted to accomplish the forth purpose of the study, to confirm the scale with Japanese data.

3-3-1 Instrument

Based on study1 and study2, the improved scale for sport spectators in China was translated from English into Japanese by two Japanese students who major in sport management. Then one expert who major in sport management and focus on research of sport spectator helped to revise the Japanese version of the scale.

Further, according to the results of the multiple liner regressions in study2, only gender and age were chose for the demographic information; ‘whether the participants are fan or not’, ‘how many home game they have attended this season’, and ‘how long had it been since they became a fan of the home team’ were asked in the experience section.

3-3-2 Participants and data collection

Data were collected on October 6, 2013 (JEF United CHIBA VS VISSEL KOBE). Twelve volunteers from Waseda University who major in sport management were recruited to distributed the questionnaires. They were randomly distributed around the corridor in the stadium and distributed the questionnaire randomly. During the two hours before the kick off (from 14:00 to 16:00), 392 questionnaires were distributed and collected. However, only 382 participants responded the questionnaire completely.

3-3-3 Procedure

First of all, demographic information and experience for J-League spectators were reported. Then, a confirmatory factor analysis and Cronbach's internal consistency analysis were conducted to check the reliability and validity of the scale. Finally, descriptive analysis and MANOVA were conducted to explore the motives of J-League spectators and motivational differences among male and female spectators.

3-4 Study 4: Comparative study between Chinese and Japanese

3-4-1 Participants and data collections

Data collected in study2 (On August 31, 2013) and study3 (on October 6, 2013) were used for study4. In study 4, data collected in study2 were labeled as CSL (N=279) while data collected in study 3 were labeled as J-League (N=382).

3-4-2 Procedure

First of all, MONOVA was conducted to examine differences in motives, team attachment, demographic and experience between Chinese and Japanese spectators. Then, MONOVAs were conducted to explore the differences between the two countries' spectators of the same gender, same age group, and same length of time as a fan.

3-5 Information about the two teams

Shanghai is a metropolis of China while Chiba is an important city in the national capital region of Japan. Both are port cities with highly developed economies. The population densities for the two cities are both above 1,000 per square kilometer. Furthermore, both cities had two professional football teams in 2012. Shanghai Shenhua and Shanghai Shenxin played in CSL, while Kashiwa Reysol and JEF United CHIBA played in J-League. Though Shanghai Shenhua was officially established in 1993, its history dates back to 1951; JEF United CHIBA was established in 1946. For Shanghai Shenhua, the ratio of average season ticket prices to monthly disposable income is up to 29.9%; for JEF United CHIBA, the ratio is up to 28.4%. Detailed information were reported in Table 3-1.

Table 3-1

Information about Shanghai and Chiba

	Shanghai	Chiba
Average income	55,978 yen	243,083 yen
Population Density (/ km ²)	3,630.50	1,205.08
Professional football	<i>Shanghai Shenhua</i> Shanghai Shenxin Shanghai Shanggong	Kashiwa Reysol <i>JEF United CHIBA</i>
Established	1951	1946
Avg. Season Ticket price/ Monthly Income	29.9% ~ 23.9%	28.4% ~ 10.3%
Average attendance	14,918 (2012)	9,281(2012)
Performance	↓	↓

Chapter 4 Results

4-1 Development of the scale

4-1-1 Scale purification

A confirmatory factor analysis and Cronbach's internal consistency analyses were conducted using the data from group1. The correlations among items, AVE values, and Cronbach's alpha coefficients are reported in Table 4-1. The correlations among factors ranged from -.11 to .97, and 14 of them were above .85 (Kline, 2005), which revealing a low discriminant validity among the 12 factors. In addition, the AVE values for socialization (.37), escape (.34), interest in player (.39), and entertainment (.32) were far below the ideal cut-off of .5 (Hair et al., 2010). Moreover, some of the model fit indices were below the acceptable limits (CFI = .782; IFI = .789; RMSEA = .081). However, the Cronbach's alpha coefficients ranged from .60 to .84. As Hair et al., (2010) noted, in exploratory studies, the lower limit for Cronbach's alpha is .60, thus the internal reliability of the 12-factor model was moderate. In order to improve the model, the scale was purified on the statistical results and the meaning of each item.

Table 4-1**Correlation & AVE & Cronbach α for the 12-motive Scale (Group1, n=167)**

	SI	ACH	SOC	ESC	DRA	KNO	CITY	FAM	IP	AES	ENT	ENV	α
SI	.64 _a												.84
ACH	.59	.64 _b											.83
SOC	.74	.76	.37 _c										.69
ESC	.68	.66	.90	.34 _d									.60
DRA	.50	.69	.86	.76	.45 _e								.68
KNO	.68	.76	.94	.88	.70	.41 _f							.73
CITY	.49	.66	.74	.69	.75	.67	.54 _g						.77
FAM	.41	.39	.64	.66	.58	.50	.66	.56 _h					.79
IP	-.11	-.11	-.02	.28	.09	.09	.20	.34	.39 _i				.62
AES	.86	.72	.83	.71	.71	.83	.72	.52	.06	.40 _j			.67
ENT	.95	.79	.80	.93	.70	.88	.71	.46	-.03	.94	.32 _k		.60
ENV	.82	.71	.94	.82	.72	.91	.69	.49	-.03	.97	.89	.42 _l	.68

Note. SI= Sport Interest; ACH=Vicarious Achievement; SOC= Socialization; ESC= Escape; DRA= Drama; KNO= Knowledge; CITY= Support the City; FAM= Family Bonding; IP= Interest in Player; AES= Aesthetics; ENT= Entertainment; ENV= the Wholesome Environment; 'a', AVE for SI; 'b' AVE for ACH; 'c' AVE for SOC; 'd' AVE for ESC; 'e' AVE for DRA; 'f' AVE for KNO; 'g' AVE for CITY; 'h' AVE for FAM; 'i' AVE for IP; 'j' AVE for AES; 'k' AVE for ENT; 'l' AVE for ENV.

First, the factors of entertainment and wholesome environment were eliminated from the model. Entertainment refers to the spectator's ability to afford and enjoy the event (Funk et al., 2003), and wholesome environment represents the atmosphere around the stadium (Funk et al., 2003). Though previous studies (Funk et al., 2002; Funk et al., 2003) identified entertainment and wholesome environment as motives for spectators to attend the game, several of the correlations among those two factors and other factors were above the .85 ceiling (Kline, 2005) which indicate a high degree of similarity. According to Table 4-1, Entertainment was highly correlated with the wholesome

environment (.89), while both were highly correlated with sport interest, socialization, escape, knowledge, and aesthetics. One hypothesis might be that sport interest, socialization, escape, knowledge, and aesthetics are sub-dimensions of entertainment and the wholesome environment. In the stadium, the wholesome environment could satisfy spectators' needs to socialize with others, help them forget about "life's little problems," and give them the opportunity to learn about and enjoy their favorite sport. Moreover, as mentioned previously, since the reform embarked upon in 1978, the economy in China has grown rapidly, and for most people the standard of living has remarkably improved. As reported in Figure 4-1, Engel's Coefficient for both urban and rural citizens has decreased dramatically. Therefore, personal budgets for leisure activities such as movies, concerts, and travels may have increased. Thus, affordability of the event is not an important factor in the decision-making process. Therefore, the factors of entertainment and wholesome environment were eliminated from the study.

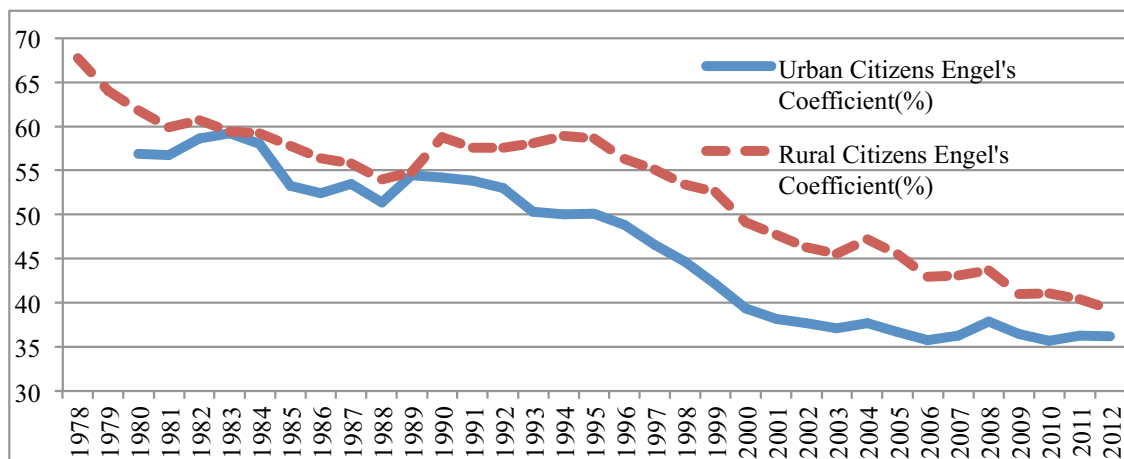


Figure 4-1

Engel's Coefficient for Urban and Rural Citizens in China

Second, though aesthetic was one of the most important motives in previous studies (e.g., Funk et al., 2002), the items for this motive were difficult to understand in Chinese. To Chinese people, aesthetic is an abstract word. They always associate aesthetic with art or beauty. It is easy for them to understand the aesthetic aspect of dancing due to the individual's graceful body movement. However, when referring the aesthetic aspect of football, a team sport, they may feel confused. As mentioned by Wann et al. (2008), aesthetic is particularly prominent in individual sports, such as figure skating; nonaggressive sports such as professional baseball; and stylistic sports, such as gymnastics. Since this study was focused on football, an aggressive, non-stylistic, team sport, the aesthetic factor was eliminated.

Third, based on the correlations among factors, AVE values, Cronbach's alpha

coefficients and the meaning of each item, five items from three factors were eliminated. Two items relating to the social factor were removed (“The CSL game is a great opportunity to socialize with others”; and “Interacting with other fans is a very important part of being at CSL game”), while the other two items that focus on the socialization with friends were remained (“Sharing the experience with my *friends* is a very important part of being at CSL game”; and “I enjoy CSL game because it gives me an opportunity to be with my *friends*”). One item in the knowledge (“I enjoy learning about my favorite team”) was removed, since the other three items refer to learning about football (“I increase my *knowledge of football* when I attend CSL game”, “I increase my understanding of *football tactic* by watching CSL game”; and “I learn about the *technical aspects of football* by watching CSL game”). The item, “The main reason I attend a CSL game is to cheer for my favourite player” was removed, since the remaining items emphasize the relative importance between the player and the team (“I am *more* a fan of individual player in CSL game *than* I am of the team”, “I tend to follow individual player in CSL game *more than* the team”). In addition, “Going to a CSL game can help me escape from my day-to-day activities” was removed from the escape factor. When translated into Chinese, the word “escape” implies negative feelings such as wanting to run away from daily life and never return. However, the remaining two items, “Going to CSL game is great change of pace from what I regularly do” and “I like going to CSL game because when I’m there I forget about all of ‘life’s little problems,” mean that individuals want to temporarily retreat from unpleasant realities through sport.

Finally, a 9-motive, 24-item model was developed. The model included three factors with two items each from socialization, escape, and interest in player, as well as six factors with three items each from achievement, drama, sport interest, family bonding, and support the city.

4-1-2 Confirmation of the model

In this section, several analyses using data from group2 were conducted to further confirm the reliability and validity of the revised scale.

First of all, the Cronbach's internal consistency analyses showed that Cronbach's alpha coefficients for the nine motives ranged from .60 to .88. Thus, providing evidence for a moderate degree of internal reliability of the scale.

Secondly, two CFAs were conducted to check the discriminant validity of the 1-factor scale and the 9-factor scale. As reported in Table 4-2, CFI (.900) and IFI (.903) for the 9-factor scale were both above the .90 benchmark (Bentler, 1990); RMSEA (.072) for the 9-factor scale was below the 0.08 benchmark (Hair et al., 2010) which indicated an acceptable model fit. Further, none of the indices from the 1-factor scale meets the benchmark. Therefore, the 9-factor scale has a better discriminant validity than the 1-factor scale.

Table 4-2**Model fit indices 1-factor scale VS 9-factor scale**

	CFI	IFI	GFI	RMSEA	X ²	df	X ² /df
1-factor	.628	.633	.656	.129	940.645	252	3.73
9-factor	.900	.903	.842	.072	401.295	216	1.86

Thirdly, the correlations among factors, AVE values, and VIF (Variance Inflation Factor) are reported in Table 4-3. According to the table, all of the correlations between factors were below .85 (Kline, 2005), which revealed moderate discriminant validity among the nine factors. In addition, VIFs were ranged from 1.35 to 2.39 which were far below the benchmark 10 (Hair et al., 2010) and showed a small degree of multi-collinearity among factors.

Finally, the 9-factor, 24-item scale was confirmed.

Table 4-3**Correlation & AVE & Cronbach α for the 9- motive Scale (Group2, n=166)**

	SI	ACH	SOC	ESC	DRA	KNO	CITY	FAM	IP	α	VIF
SI	.53 _a									.76	1.36
ACH	.51	.63 _b								.83	2.39
SOC	.68	.66	.44 _c							.61	1.77
ESC	.49	.72	.78	.54 _d						.70	2.00
DRA	.43	.75	.75	.77	.58 _e					.81	2.22
KNO	.46	.65	.63	.81	.69	.61 _f				.81	1.97
CITY	.28	.73	.58	.68	.60	.58	.44 _g			.70	1.71
FAM	.27	.36	.59	.51	.54	.38	.54	.70 _h		.88	1.58
IP	-.05	-.08	.07	.16	.27	.17	.40	.55	.43 _i	.60	1.35

Note. SI= Sport Interest; ACH= Vicarious Achievement; SOC= Socialization; ESC= Escape; DRA= Drama; KNO= Knowledge; CITY= Support the City; FAM= Family Bonding; IP= Interest in Player. 'a', AVE for SI; 'b' AVE for ACH; 'c' AVE for SOC; 'd' AVE for ESC; 'e' AVE for DRA; 'f' AVE for KNO; 'g' AVE for CITY; 'h' AVE for FAM; 'i' AVE for IP.

4-2 Motives of Chinese Super League (CSL) spectators

4-2-1 Demographic information and experience

According to the two surveys in 2012 and 2013, more than three quarters of CSL spectators were male. They ranged from 12 to 60 years of age, with an average of 25.78 years. Most of them (77.7%) received higher education (Junior college or bachelor degree). In addition, 35.1% were students without any income and nearly two thirds of them were full time employees. Further, most of the spectators lived near the stadium. The average travel time from their home to the stadium was 51.76 minutes. Finally, 86.7% of the spectators were fans of the Shanghai Shenhua. Nearly one fourth of them had been a fan for more than ten years and 52.6% of them had attended more than 5 games during the season when the survey was conducted. What was noteworthy was that there were 16.6% of the spectators who never played football themselves. Detailed demographic information and experience for CSL spectators were reported in Table 4-4 and 4-5.

Table 4-4**Demographic Information for CSL spectators**

		Shenhua1		Shenhua2		Total	
		n	%	n	%	n	%
Gender	Male	152	75.2	236	84.6	388	80.7
	Female	50	24.8	43	15.4	93	19.3
		M=25.57		M=25.94		M=25.78	
Age	12–20	46	21.4	54	19.9	100	20.5
	21–25	83	38.6	98	36.0	181	37.2
	26–30	53	24.7	73	26.8	146	25.9
	31–35	16	7.4	22	8.1	35	7.8
	36–40	8	3.7	17	6.2	25	5.1
	41–45	4	1.9	6	2.2	10	2.1
	46–55	5	2.4	1	.4	6	1.2
	56–60	0	0	1	.4	1	0.2
Education	Junior High	5	2.3	4	1.4	9	1.8
	Senior High	33	15.3	50	18.1	83	16.9
	Junior College	87	40.5	114	41.2	201	40.9
	Bachelor	82	38.1	99	35.7	181	36.8
	Master-	8	3.8	10	3.6	18	3.7
Occupation	Student	--	--	98	35.1	--	--
	Full time	--	--	174	62.4	--	--
	Retired	--	--	0	0	--	--
	No Job	--	--	4	1.4	--	--
	Others	--	--	3	1.1	--	--
		--		M=3482.89		--	
Income (RMB6.13=\$ 1)	0–1250	70	32.6	90	34.2	160	33.5
	1250–1800	7	3.3	2	.8	9	1.9
	1800–2300	16	7.4	10	3.8	26	5.4
	2300–3000	26	12.1	39	14.8	65	13.6
	3000–5200	63	29.3	71	27.0	134	28.0
	5200–	33	15.3	51	19.4	84	17.6
		M=55.58		M=48.82		M=51.76	
Time	0–30mins	87	42.4	112	42.1	199	42.3
	31– 60mins	72	35.1	114	42.9	186	39.5
	61–90mins	21	10.2	16	6.0	37	7.9
	90mins–	25	12.2	24	9.0	49	10.4

Table 4-5**Experience for CSL spectators**

		Shenhua1		Shenhua2		Total	
		n	%	n	%	n	%
Fan type	Fan of Home Team	158	72.8	271	97.5	429	86.7
	Fan of other Teams	26	12.0	1	0.4	27	5.5
	Not a Fan	33	15.2	6	2.2	39	7.9
		M=6.09		M=8.38		M=7.39	
Years as a fan	Not a fan of Home Team	59	27.2	7	2.6	66	14.0
	1 Year	12	5.5	23	8.6	35	7.4
	2 - 5 Years	48	22.1	90	33.7	138	29.3
	6 - 10 Years	46	21.2	73	27.3	119	25.3
	11 - 28 Years	39	18	74	27.7	113	24.0
		M= 6.74		M=7.13		M=6.95	
Home game	0	44	21.0	5	2.0	49	10.7
	1-5	65	31.0	103	41.5	168	36.7
	6-10	31	14.8	55	22.2	86	18.8
	11-20	70	33.3	85	34.3	155	33.8
Playing Experience	Now/Often	46	22.1	98	35.9	144	29.9
	Past/Often	55	26.4	62	22.7	117	24.3
	Sometimes	63	30.3	77	28.2	140	29.1
	Never	44	21.2	36	13.2	80	16.6

4-2-2 Confirmation of the reliability and validity of the scale

The results of CFA and Cronbach's internal consistency analyses for Shenhua1 were reported in Table 4-6. The data from Shenhua1 adequately fit the revised 9-factor scale. The CFI (.920) and IFI (.920) were at acceptable levels (Bentler, 1990); moreover, a RMSEA = .060 was below the 0.08 benchmark (Hair et al., 2010) which indicated an acceptable model fit. The correlation matrix (Table 4-6) demonstrates that all of the

correlations between factors were below .85 (Kline, 2005) and the AVE values ranged from .40 to .69 which revealed moderate discriminant validity among the nine factors. The Cronbach's alpha coefficients ranged from .57 to .86 which indicated a moderate degree of internal reliability of the scale.

Table 4-6

Reliability and Validity of the Scale for Shenhua1 (CSL, N=217)

	SI	ACH	SOC	ESC	DRA	KNO	CITY	FAM	IP	α
SI	.62 _a									.83
ACH	.56	.69 _b								.86
SOC	.66	.62	.43 _c							.60
ESC	.47	.59	.71	.55 _d						.71
DRA	.46	.66	.78	.71	.57 _e					.80
KNO	.47	.51	.68	.81	.64	.57 _f				.79
CITY	.46	.73	.61	.63	.68	.56	.49 _g			.75
FAM	.36	.36	.50	.54	.60	.46	.64	.61 _h		.82
IP	-.20	-.18	-.19	-.03	.05	.11	.11	.30	.40 _i	.57

Note. SI= Sport Interest; ACH= Vicarious Achievement; SOC= Socialization; ESC= Escape; DRA= Drama; KNO= Knowledge; CITY= Support the City; FAM= Family Bonding; IP= Interest in Player. 'a', AVE for SI; 'b' AVE for ACH; 'c' AVE for SOC; 'd' AVE for ESC; 'e' AVE for DRA; 'f' AVE for KNO; 'g' AVE for CITY; 'h' AVE for FAM; 'i' AVE for IP.

The results of CFA and Cronbach's internal consistency analyses for Shenhua2 showed that the data also fit the revised 9-factor scale adequately. The CFI (.952) and IFI (.954) were both above the .90 benchmark (Bentler, 1990); moreover, RMSEA (.044) was below the 0.08 benchmark (Hair et al., 2010) which indicated an acceptable model fit. The correlation matrix (Table 4-7) demonstrates the correlations between factors ranged from -.21 to .74, all of which were below .85 (Kline, 2005); the AVE values ranged

from .44 to .65 which revealed moderate discriminant validity among the nine factors. The Cronbach's alpha coefficients ranged from .70 to .84 which providing further evidence for a moderate degree of internal reliability of the scale.

Table 4-7

Reliability and Validity of the Scale for Shenhua2 (CSL, N=279)

	SI	ACH	SOC	ESC	DRA	KNO	CITY	FAM	IP	α
SI	.56 _a									.79
ACH	.62	.48 _b								.73
SOC	.44	.59	.54 _c							.70
ESC	.54	.74	.73	.57 _d						.73
DRA	.46	.48	.43	.47	.44 _e					.70
KNO	.34	.35	.35	.34	.53	.65 _f				.84
CITY	.26	.55	.41	.47	.31	.47	.50 _g			.75
FAM	.14	.33	.30	.29	.47	.23	.24	.64 _h		.84
IP	-.04	-.21	-.21	-.10	.26	.15	.05	.40	.55 _i	.71

Note. SI= Sport Interest; ACH= Vicarious Achievement; SOC= Socialization; ESC= Escape; DRA= Drama; KNO= Knowledge; CITY= Support the City; FAM= Family Bonding; IP= Interest in Player. 'a', AVE for SI; 'b' AVE for ACH; 'c' AVE for SOC; 'd' AVE for ESC; 'e' AVE for DRA; 'f' AVE for KNO; 'g' AVE for CITY; 'h' AVE for FAM; 'i' AVE for IP.

4-2-3 Motives of sport spectators in China

As mentioned in Chapter 3 and Table 4-5, there were 217 spectators completed the questionnaire during the survey in 2012 and 158 of them were fan of Shanghai Shenhua; while, there were 279 spectators completed the questionnaire during the survey in 2013 and 271 of them were fan of Shanghai Shenhua.

Descriptive statistical results showed that sport interest, vicarious achievement and

socialization were the top three motives for CSL spectators; while support the city, family bonding, and interest in player were the least important motives.

The Multivariate Analysis of Variance (MANOVA) showed that except knowledge and interest in player, spectators of Shenhua2 were significantly more highly motivated by seven of the nine motives. However, when compared the motives between fans from the two groups, differences were decreased. Fans of Shenhua2 only scored significantly higher on vicarious achievement than Shenhua1.

Table 4-8***Means of each motive for CSL spectators and fans***

Items	Shenhua1		Shenhua2,	
	N=217	n=158	N=279	n=271
Sport Interest [#]	5.77	6.03	6.08	6.14
First and foremost, I consider myself a fan of football				
I love to follow the game of football				
I am a huge fan of football in general				
Vicarious Achievement ^{*#}	5.61	6.15	6.36	6.40
I feel proud when my favorite team plays well				
I feel like I have won when my favorite team wins				
I feel a personal sense of achievement, when my favorite team plays well				
Socialization [#]	5.70	5.87	6.03	6.06
Sharing the experience with my friends is a very important part of being at CSL game				
I enjoy CSL game because it gives me an opportunity to be with my friends				
Escape [#]	5.48	5.76	5.85	5.89
Going to CSL game is great change of pace from what I regularly do				
I like going to CSL game because when I'm there I forget about all of 'life's little problems'				
Drama [#]	5.36	5.56	5.69	5.72
I like the excitement of CSL game' outcome not being decided until the end				
I enjoy the dramatic turn that CSL game can take				
I like the suspense of CSL game where the lead changes back and forth				
Knowledge	5.41	5.64	5.61	5.65
I increase my knowledge of football when I attend CSL game				
I increase my understanding of football tactic ^{*2} by watching CSL game				
I learn about the technical aspects of football by watching CSL game				

[#]Significant differences between spectators from Shenhua1 and Shenhua2, $P < .05$

^{*}Significant differences between fans from Shenhua1 and Shenhua2, $P < .05$

(Continued)

Table 4-8***Means of each motive for CSL spectators and fans (Continued)***

Items	Shenhua1		Shenhua2,	
	N=217	n=158	N=279	n=271
Support the City [#]	5.09	5.42	5.57	5.61
I attended the CSL game to support my city				
When my city's team wins, I feel proud to be a citizen				
I support the team because the team enhances the status of the city				
Family Bonding [#]	4.58	4.73	5.05	5.07
Being with my family is why I enjoy attending the CSL game				
The opportunity to spend time with my family is something I like about attending CSL game				
I enjoy CSL game because they are a good family activity				
Interest in Player	3.72	3.41	3.67	3.69
I tend to follow individual player in CSL game more than the team				
I am more a fan of individual player in CSL game than I am of the team				

[#]Significant differences between spectators from Shenhua1 and Shenhua2, $P < .05$

^{*}Significant differences between fans from Shenhua1 and Shenhua2, $P < .05$

4-2-4 Team attachment, future intention and past attendance

According to Cronbach's internal consistency analyses, the items for evaluating team attachment, intention of future behavior, and past attendance showed good internal reliabilities. Further, both of the spectators for Shenhua1 and Shenhua2 had relatively high team attachment. The mean score was 5.50 for Shenhua1 and 6.15 for Shenhua2. In addition, their intentions of future attendance were both above the median.

Since the 7-point Likert-type scale was used, scores which are less than 4 were labeled as group L; while, scores which are equal to or greater than 6 were labeled as group H; others were labeled as group M. Detailed information were reported in Table 4-8. There were more than half of the responders reported that they were high attached to the team. Also, more than half of the responders reported that they are likely to pay attention to the team and attend home games in the future. However, only 48.1% of them reported that they had followed the team very frequently during the present season; on average, they had attended 8.74 games (Shenhua1=10.01; Shenhua2=7.99). In summary, fans were tended to have higher scores on each item.

Table 4-9

Team Attachment & Future Intention & Past Attendance

Items	Shenhua1, N=217 (N=158)			Shenhua2, N=279 (N=271)			Shenhua N=496 (N=429)		
	M	SD	α	M	SD	α	M	SD	α
<u><i>Team Attachment</i></u>	5.50 (6.06)	1.58 (1.14)	.84 (.76)	6.15 (6.20)	1.05 (1.00)	.80 (.78)	5.86 (6.14)	1.35 (1.05)	--
I am a loyal fan of my favorite team	L	M	H	L	M	H	L	M	H
It is important for me to feel connected	17.1% (5.7%)	29.9% (27.2%)	53.0% (67.1%)	4% (3.3%)	23.7% (23.0%)	72.3% (76.7%)	9.7% (4.2%)	26.5% (24.5%)	63.8% (71.3%)
I feel like part of my favorite team									
<u><i>Intention of future behavior</i></u>	5.62 (5.96)	1.37 (1.15)	.79 (.71)	6.26 (6.30)	.89 (.83)	.65 (.61)	5.98 (6.17)	1.17 (0.97)	--
How likely are you to attend home games	L	M	H	L	M	H	L	M	H
How likely are you to watch the game	11.1% (5.7%)	35.0% (31.6%)	53.9% (62.7%)	2.5% (1.9%)	23.4% (22.2%)	74.1% (75.9%)	6.3% (3.3%)	28.4% (25.7%)	65.3% (71.0%)
How likely are you to read the news									
<u><i>Past Attendance</i></u>	5.01 (5.50)	1.63 (1.30)	.77 (.63)	5.88 (5.94)	1.12 (1.04)	.70 (.64)	5.50 (5.78)	1.44 (1.63)	--
How often do you attend home games	L	M	H	L	M	H	L	M	H
How often do you watch the game	21.1% (10.8%)	41.9% (43.6%)	36.9% (45.6%)	5.8% (4.8%)	37.4% (37.1%)	56.8% (58.1%)	12.5% (7.0%)	39.4% (39.5%)	48.1% (53.5%)
How often do you read the news									

Note. L: less than 4; H: equal to or greater than 6; M: others.

The bivariate correlate analyses among team attachment, intention of future behavior, past attendance, and attendance rate showed that there were significant correlations among the four variables. Detailed information were reported in Table 4-9.

Table 4-10

Correlation Coefficients for Shenhua (N=496)

	Team attachment	Future	Past	Rate
Team attachment	1			
Future	.61** (.54)**	1		
Past	.67** (.57)**	.79** (.75)**	1	
Rate	.37** (.25)**	.32** (.20)**	.43** (.33)**	1

**P < .01, two-tailed.

4-2-5 Gender differences for CSL spectators

MANOVAs were conducted using data from Shenhua1 and Shenhua2 to examine whether there were significant differences between male and female spectators' and fans' motives. The results showed that male spectators and fans were significantly more interested in football than female and they were more likely to follow the team. Besides, though not significant, female spectators and fans had higher scores on family bonding and interest in player. Detailed means and standard deviations were reported in Table 4-9.

Table 4-11**Motives for CSL Spectators---Gender Differences**

	Shenhua1				Shenhua2			
	N=217		n=158		N=279		n=271	
	Male (152)	Female (50)	Male (113)	Female (35)	Male (235)	Female (43)	Male (230)	Female (41)
SI	5.91 (1.30)**	5.19 (1.50)	6.15 (1.01)**	5.57 (1.15)	6.19 (.90)**	5.44 (1.29)	6.24 (.83)**	5.60 (1.09)
ACH	5.70 (1.59)	5.41 (1.60)	6.30 (.97)**	5.67 (1.56)	6.37 (.81)	6.32 (.86)	6.41 (.74)	6.29 (.87)
SOC	5.80 (1.25)	5.47 (1.45)	5.97 (1.15)	5.57 (1.41)	6.02 (.90)	6.10 (.91)	6.05 (.87)	6.12 (.89)
ESC	5.52 (1.46)	5.27 (1.33)	5.80 (1.25)	5.57 (1.25)	5.87 (1.08)	5.76 (1.14)	5.91 (1.04)	5.75 (1.14)
DRA	5.37 (1.48)	5.31 (1.38)	5.64 (1.27)	5.30 (1.41)	5.70 (1.09)	5.60 (1.00)	5.73 (1.07)	5.67 (.93)
KNO	5.46 (1.29)	5.29 (1.33)	5.69 (1.12)	5.45 (1.36)	5.58 (1.20)	5.73 (1.30)	5.62 (1.19)	5.85 (1.09)
CITY	5.04 (1.69)	5.22 (1.44)	5.43 (1.56)	5.38 (1.34)	5.61 (1.29)	5.39 (1.46)	5.66 (1.26)	5.35 (1.47)
FAM	4.42 (1.68)*	5.09 (1.69)	4.59 (1.72)	5.22 (1.68)	4.98 (1.49)	5.40 (1.25)	5.01 (1.50)	5.38 (1.24)
IP	3.51 (1.84)*	4.28 (1.81)	3.20 (1.83)*	3.97 (1.90)	3.63 (1.86)	3.86 (1.89)	3.64 (1.88)	3.97 (1.86)
TA	5.57 (1.56)	5.14 (1.67)	6.15 (1.01)**	5.64 (1.50)	6.17 (1.04)	6.02 (1.11)	6.22 (.98)	6.06 (1.10)
Intention of future behavior	5.73 (1.36)*	5.29 (1.35)	6.11 (1.00)**	5.38 (1.48)	6.30 (.83)*	5.98 (1.10)	6.34 (.79)*	6.07 (1.01)
Past attendance	5.10 (1.66)	4.75 (1.47)	5.63 (1.26)	5.04 (1.41)	5.94 (1.07)*	5.57 (1.34)	5.98 (1.01)*	5.70 (1.16)

Note. SI= Sport Interest; ACH= Vicarious Achievement; SOC= Socialization; ESC= Escape; DRA= Drama; KNO= Knowledge; CITY= Support the City; FAM= Family Bonding; IP= Interest in Player; TA= Team attachment.

**P< .01

*P< .05

4-2-6 Relationship between motives and future intention

In order to explore the relationship between motives and future intention, multiple liner regressions with stepwise were conducted on spectators and fans from Shenhua1 and Shenhua2 separately. The results (see Tables 4-12, 4-13, 4-14, and 4-15) showed that vicarious achievement and drama were good predictors of intention of future behavior, they could explain more than 20% of the variance in intention of future behavior. In addition, sport interest, family bonding, and socialization were predictors of intention of future behavior for spectators and fans from Shenhua2.

Table 4-12***Relationship between Motives and Future Intention: Spectators (N=217)***

Variable	b	SE B	β	R	R ²	Adjusted R ²	ΔR^2	F change
ACH	.518	.051	.602	.680	.463	.460	.463	185.14
DRA	.133	.057	.140	.690	.476	.471	.013	5.49

Note. Full Model: F=97.24 p< .01(Shenhua1, N=217)

Table 4-13***Relationship between Motives and Future Intention: Fans (n=158)***

Variable	b	SE B	β	R	R ²	Adjusted R ²	ΔR^2	F change
ACH	.622	.067	.620	.705	.497	.493	.497	153.94
DRA	.168	.073	.155	.717	.513	.507	.017	5.33

Note. Full Model: F=81.77 p< .01(Shenhua1, n=158)

Table 4-14***Relationship between Motives and Future Intention: Spectators (N=279)***

Variable	b	SE B	β	R	R ²	Adjusted R ²	ΔR^2	F change
ACH	.300	.064	.276	.485	.236	.233	.236	85.42
SI	.220	.049	.251	.563	.317	.312	.082	33.00
DRA	.165	.046	.200	.586	.343	.336	.026	10.72
FAM	-.087	.032	-.144	.598	.358	.348	.015	6.28
SOC	.143	.054	.145	.611	.374	.362	.016	7.06

Note. Full Model: F=32.60; p< .01(Shenhua2, N=279)

Table 4-15***Relationship between Motives and Future Intention: Fans (n=271)***

Variable	b	SE B	β	R	R ²	Adjusted R ²	ΔR^2	F change
ACH	.312	.068	.286	.457	.209	.206	.209	71.06
SI	.156	.055	.170	.500	.250	.244	.041	14.64
SOC	.146	.054	.154	.524	.274	.266	.024	8.99
DRA	.148	.047	.188	.539	.291	.280	.016	6.10
FAM	-.080	.032	-.140	.554	.307	.294	.016	6.29

Note. Full Model: F=23.49; p< .01(Shenhua2, n=271)

4-2-7 Demographic information/experience and future intention

Using demographic information and experience as independent variables and future intention as dependent variable, multiple linear regressions with stepwise were conducted again. The results (see Tables 4-16, 4-17, 4-18, and 4-19) showed that numbers of home game attendance, years as a fan, gender, and age might be predictors of intention of future behavior. However, only about 10% of the variance could be explained by some of those variables.

Table 4-16***Relationship between Demographic Information/Experience and Future Intention:******Spectators (N=217)***

Variable	b	SE B	β	R	R ²	Adjusted R ²	ΔR^2	F change
Home	.067	.019	.277	.385	.148	.143	.148	28.112
Years	.053	.017	.244	.442	.196	.186	.048	9.593

Note. Full Model: F=19.60, p< .01(Shenhua1, N=217)

Table 4-17***Relationship between Demographic Information/Experience and Future Intention:******Fans (n=158)***

Variable	b	SE B	β	R	R ²	Adjusted R ²	ΔR^2	F change
Home	.063	.018	.294	.312	.097	.090	.097	12.80
Gender	-.682	.230	-.251	.400	.160	.146	.063	8.82

Note. Full Model: F=11.23, p< .01(Shenhua1, n=158)

Table 4-18***Relationship between Demographic Information/Experience and Future Intention:******Spectators (N=279)***

Variable	b	SE B	β	R	R ²	Adjusted R ²	ΔR^2	F change
Years	.043	.010	.322	.269	.072	.068	.072	17.891
Age	-.023	.010	-.173	.310	.096	.088	.023	5.898
Home	.026	.012	.139	.337	.114	.102	.018	4.594

Note. Full Model: F=9.715, p< .01(Shenhua2, N=279)

Table 4-19***Relationship between Demographic Information/Experience and Future Intention:******Fans (n=271)***

Variable	b	SE B	β	R	R ²	Adjusted R ²	ΔR^2	F change
Years	.048	.010	.373	.249	.062	.058	.062	13.53
Age	-.032	.010	-.250	.330	.109	.100	.047	10.71

Note. Full Model: F=12.44, p< .01(Shenhua2, n=271)

4-3 Motives of J-League Spectators

4-3-1 Demographic information and experience

Demographic information and experience for J-League spectators were reported in Table 4-14 and Table 4-15. Japanese spectators were 12 to 72 years old, with an average age of 37.81. Nearly 60% of the spectators were male and 96% of them were fan of the home team. Further, more than half of them have been fan of the home team for more than 6 years and 71.6% of them had attended more than 10 games during the current season.

Table 4-20**Demographic Information for J-League Spectators**

		n	%
Gender	Male	221	59.2
	Female	152	40.8
		M= 37.81	
Age	12–20	23	6.2
	21–25	43	11.6
	26–30	42	11.3
	31–35	57	15.4
	36–40	61	16.4
	41–45	46	12.4
	46–55	69	18.6
	56–72	30	8.1

Table 4-21**Experience of J-League Spectators**

		n	%
Fan type	Fan of home team	364	96.0
	Not a fan	15	4.0
		M=10.36	
Years as a fan	Not a fan of Home Team	14	5.4
	1 Year	19	7.4
	2–5 Years	54	21.0
	6–10 Years	82	31.9
	11–22 Years	88	34.2
		M=14.31	
Home game	0	24	7.1
	1–5	40	11.8
	6–10	32	9.5
	11–20	242	71.6

4-3-2 Confirmation of the reliability and validity of the scale

Confirmatory factor analysis and Cronbach's internal consistency analyses were conducted to explore whether the scale developed among Chinese spectators could be used for Japanese spectators. As reported in Table 4-16, the correlations between factors were ranged from .16 to .82 which were all below the benchmark of .85 (Kline, 2005); the AVE values ranged from .40 to .83 also indicated moderate discriminant validity among the nine factors. While, the Cronbach's alpha coefficients which ranged from .60 to .93 revealed acceptable internal reliability of the scale. Further, the CFI (.940), IFI (.941), and RMSEA (.060) were all at acceptable levels (Bentler, 1990; Hair et al., 2010). Therefore, data from J-League spectators fit the model adequately, to some extent, the scale developed among Chinese spectators could be used for Japanese football spectators.

Table 4-22**Reliability and validity of the scale (J-League, N=382)**

	SI	ACH	SOC	ESC	DRA	KNO	CITY	FAM	IP	α
SI	.60 _a									.81
ACH	.60	.46 _b								.70
SOC	.40	.38	.67 _c							.80
ESC	.60	.70	.55	.43 _d						.60
DRA	.58	.77	.53	.82	.40 _e					.66
KNO	.71	.46	.37	.79	.62	.63 _f				.84
CITY	.43	.58	.27	.53	.47	.58	.70 _g			.88
FAM	.28	.35	.28	.38	.36	.39	.49	.83 _h		.93
IP	.16	.17	.21	.44	.37	.45	.35	.30	.76 _i	.86

Note. SI= Sport Interest; ACH= Vicarious Achievement; SOC= Socialization; ESC= Escape; DRA= Drama; KNO= Knowledge; CITY= Support the City; FAM= Family Bonding; IP= Interest in Player. 'a', AVE for SI; 'b' AVE for ACH; 'c' AVE for SOC; 'd' AVE for ESC; 'e' AVE for DRA; 'f' AVE for KNO; 'g' AVE for CITY; 'h' AVE for FAM; 'i' AVE for IP.

4-3-3 Motives and team attachment of sport spectators in Japan

Cronbach's internal consistency analysis for items of team attachment showed that the three items were internal reliable ($\alpha=.78$). According to the descriptive statistics, sport interest, vicarious achievement, and socialization were the top three motives for Japanese spectators; their mean scores were 5.74, 5.87, and 5.47, respectively. Further, support the city, family bonding, and interest in players, which had mean scores of 4.82, 4.32, and 3.51, respectively, were the least important motives for these spectators. When referring to the team attachment, Japanese spectators had an average score of 5.43 on a 7-point Likert scale.

Table 4-23***Motives for J-League Spectators***

	M(SD)
SI	5.74(1.12)
ACH	5.87(.97)
SOC	5.47(1.34)
ESC	5.18(1.30)
DRA	5.24(1.13)
KNO	4.62(1.36)
CITY	4.82(1.58)
FAM	4.32(1.88)
IP	3.51(1.72)
TA	5.43 (1.27)

Note. SI= Sport Interest; ACH= Vicarious Achievement; SOC= Socialization; ESC= Escape; DRA= Drama; KNO= Knowledge; CITY= Support the City; FAM= Family Bonding; IP= Interest in Player; TA= Team attachment.

4-3-4 Gender differences for J-League spectators

According to the results of MANOVA, male Japanese spectators had significantly higher score on support the city. While, female Japanese spectators had higher scores on socialization, escape, drama, family bonding, and interest in player.

Table 4-24**Gender Differences for J-League Spectators**

	Male (n=201)	Female (n=141)
SI	5.85(1.07)	5.66(1.13)
ACH	5.93(.87)	5.85(1.05)
SOC	5.43(1.37)	5.62(1.25)
ESC	5.13(1.29)	5.31(1.31)
DRA	5.24(1.05)	5.27(1.23)
KNO	4.77(1.24)	4.51(1.44)
CITY	5.06(1.48) **	4.54(1.62)
FAM	4.22(1.85)	4.54(1.88)
IP	3.38(1.60)	3.72(1.87)
TA	5.54(1.17)	5.35(1.34)

Note. SI= Sport Interest; ACH= Vicarious Achievement; SOC= Socialization; ESC= Escape; DRA= Drama; KNO= Knowledge; CITY= Support the City; FAM= Family Bonding; IP= Interest in Player; TA= Team attachment.

**P< .01

4-4 Comparative study between Chinese and Japanese

4-4-1 Demographic and experience differences between Chinese and Japanese

The average age for Chinese spectators was 25.94 while for Japanese spectators it was 37.81; the ratio of male and female was 5.5 for Chinese and 1.45 for Japanese. According to the t-test, Japanese spectators was significantly older than Chinese ones, further, more Japanese female attended the game than Chinese female.

The average number of home game attendance for Chinese was 7.13 and 14.31 for Japanese. Since it was the 12th home game when the survey was conducted in China and

the 18th home game in Japan, therefore, the attendance rate for Chinese was 59.4% and 79.5% for Japanese. The t-test results showed that Japanese spectators attended significant more games than Chinese ones.

Further, there were 96.0% of the Japanese spectators considered themselves as a fan of the home team, while, 97.5% of the Chinese spectators considered themselves as a fan of the home team. On average, Chinese fans reported that they had been fans for only 8.38 years while Japanese had been fans for 10.36 years.

4-4-2 Motives and team attachment differences between Chinese and Japanese

The means scores of motives and team attachment for Chinese and Japanese spectators were reported in Table 4-19. Vicarious achievement, sport interest, and socialization were top three motives for both groups; while knowledge, family bonding, and interest in player were the least important motives for J-League spectators; support the city, family bonding, and interest in player were the least important motives for Chinese spectators. Except interest in player, Chinese spectators had higher scores on each motive than Japanese spectators. In addition, for team attachment, Chinese spectators had an average score of 6.15 on a 7-point Likert scale; however, Japanese spectators only had an average score of 5.43. Finally, according to a bivariate correlation analysis, the correlation between motives' rankings of the two countries was .967 and it was statistically significant at the .01 level. The high correlation indicated high similarities.

Table 4-25***Comparative between Chinese and Japanese***

	J-League	%Ceiling	Ranking	CSL	%Ceiling	Ranking	F
SI	5.74 (1.12)	21.1	2	6.08 (1.01)	29.4	2	13.51**
ACH	5.87 (.97)	21.6	1	6.36 (.82)	43.7	1	44.02**
SOC	5.47 (1.34)	23.7	3	6.03 (.90)	28.0	3	35.09**
ESC	5.18 (1.30)	13.8	5	5.85 (1.09)	26.2	4	45.70**
DRA	5.24 (1.13)	10.9	4	5.69 (1.08)	15.4	5	24.27**
KNO	4.62 (1.36)	7.4	7	5.61 (1.22)	19.4	6	86.22**
CITY	4.82 (1.58)	12.4	6	5.57 (1.32)	19.7	7	39.18**
FAM	4.32 (1.88)	10.1	8	5.05 (1.46)	10.8	8	26.50**
IP	3.51 (1.72)	5.6	9	3.67 (1.87)	5.4	9	1.02
TA	5.43 (1.27)	16.7	--	6.15 (1.05)	34.1	--	15.86

Note. SI= Sport Interest; ACH= Vicarious Achievement; SOC= Socialization; ESC= Escape; DRA= Drama; KNO= Knowledge; CITY= Support the City; FAM= Family Bonding; IP= Interest in Player; TA= Team Attachment.

**P< .01

Ceiling effects (percentage of the sample had the best possible score) for each motive were also reported in Table 4-25. McHorney and Tarlov (1995) noted that ceiling effect exceeding 15% is considered to be significant. Significant ceiling effect makes it difficult to analysis data due to the reduction of the amount of variation in the variable (Vogt, 1993). In this study, ceiling effects were detected among both Chinese and Japanese data. However, considering the theoretical basis, reliability, and validity of the 9-motive scale, the nine motives were all kept for analyses.

4-4-3 Differences between Chinese and Japanese---Gender group

MONOVA was firstly conducted between Japanese male spectators and Chinese

male spectators; then, between Japanese female spectators and Chinese female spectators. The results showed that both male and female Chinese spectators scored significantly higher on vicarious achievement, socialization, escape, knowledge, support the city, and family bonding. For Chinese male spectators, they still scored significantly higher on sport interest and drama. No significant differences were found on motives of interest in player either. However, Japanese female spectators showed a little more interest in football which was the only finding that Japanese spectators were higher than Chinese ones. For team attachment, Japanese spectators were significantly lower than Chinese spectators, both for male and female.

Table 4-26

Differences between Chinese and Japanese---Gender group

	Male		Female	
	CSL (n=236)	J-League (n=201)	CSL (n=43)	J-League (n=141)
SI	6.19(.90)**	5.85(1.07)	5.44(1.29)	5.66(1.13)
ACH	6.37(.81) **	5.93(.87)	6.32(.86)**	5.85(1.05)
SOC	6.02(.90) **	5.43(1.37)	6.10(.91)*	5.62(1.25)
ESC	5.87(1.08) **	5.13(1.29)	5.76(1.14)*	5.31(1.31)
DRA	5.70(1.09) **	5.24(1.05)	5.60(1.00)	5.27(1.23)
KNO	5.58(1.20) **	4.77(1.25)	5.73(1.30) **	4.51(1.44)
CITY	5.61(1.29) **	5.06(1.48)	5.39(1.46)**	4.55(1.62)
FAM	4.98(1.49) **	4.22(1.84)	5.40(1.25) **	4.55(1.89)
IP	3.63(1.86)	3.38(1.60)	3.86(1.89)	3.72(1.87)
TA	6.17(1.04) **	5.54(1.17)	6.02(1.11) **	5.35(1.33)
Years as a fan	9.11(6.40)	11.38(7.18)	4.39(4.16)	8.90(6.11)
Home game	7.10 (4.49)	13.75(5.68)	7.29 (4.53)	15.04(4.97)
Attendance%	59.2%	76.4%	60.8%	83.5%

Note. SI= Sport Interest; ACH= Vicarious Achievement; SOC= Socialization; ESC= Escape; DRA= Drama; KNO= Knowledge; CITY= Support the City; FAM= Family Bonding; IP= Interest in Player; TA= Team Attachment.

**P< .01

4-4-4 Differences between Chinese and Japanese---Age group

In order to further explore the characteristics of motives of sport spectators from the two countries, all the spectators were classified into five groups according to their age. Then, MANOVAs were conducted again, using age group as a fixed factor. Detailed information were reported in Table 4-21. According to the table, there were no significant differences between Chinese and Japanese spectators on drama for each age group. In addition, no significant motivational differences were found between Chinese and Japanese spectators for age group of 13–20. From the age group 21–25, with the age increased, the differences between the two countries' spectators decreased. For age group 31–35 and 36–40, Chinese spectators reported significant higher scores on five motives, while, for age group 21–25 and 26–30, there were seven motives that Chinese spectators scored significantly higher than Japanese spectators. In summary, Chinese spectators scored higher than Japanese spectators. However, for age group 13–20, Japanese spectators had higher score on the motive of interest in player than Chinese spectators.

Table 4-27***Differences between Chinese and Japanese---Age group***

Age	13-20			21-25			26-30		
	China (n=54)	Japan (n=23)	F	China (n=98)	Japan (n=42)	F	China (n=73)	Japan (n=42)	F
SI	5.90	5.62	.92	6.17	5.76	4.82*	6.08	5.59	4.55*
ACH	6.24	5.82	3.20	6.29	5.74	10.29**	6.39	5.58	20.64**
SOC	5.89	5.55	1.86	6.14	5.46	13.19**	6.03	5.35	8.84*
ESC	5.71	5.36	1.43	5.75	5.29	4.25*	6.04	4.91	21.96**
DRA	5.73	5.48	.85	5.62	5.60	.01	5.73	5.39	2.23
KNO	5.57	5.11	2.46	5.59	4.39	22.04**	5.50	4.55	12.11**
CITY	5.58	5.02	2.49	5.51	4.25	21.86**	5.57	4.38	16.33**
FAM	4.74	4.35	1.02	4.73	3.70	10.80**	5.43	4.09	23.31**
IP	3.53	3.82	.42	3.38	3.33	.02	3.90	3.78	.12
TA	6.11	5.38	6.79*	6.06	5.21	13.83**	6.25	4.99	33.20**

Note. SI= Sport Interest; ACH= Vicarious Achievement; SOC= Socialization; ESC= Escape; DRA= Drama; KNO= Knowledge; CITY= Support the City; FAM= Family Bonding; IP= Interest in Player; TA= Team Attachment. *P< .05; **P< .01.

(Continued)

Table 4-27***Differences between Chinese and Japanese---Age group (Continued)***

Age	31~35			36~40		
	China (n=22)	Japan (n=57)	F	China (n=17)	Japan (n=61)	F
SI	6.38	5.99	2.67	5.94	5.82	.20
ACH	6.76	5.93	14.18**	6.63	5.94	9.60**
SOC	6.11	5.99	.24	6.18	5.32	5.14*
ESC	6.32	5.29	12.68**	5.68	4.88	4.03*
DRA	5.73	5.27	2.70	5.50	5.20	.88
KNO	5.88	4.93	8.91**	5.88	4.72	11.25**
CITY	5.86	4.98	6.37*	5.68	5.25	1.15
FAM	5.28	4.07	6.68*	5.43	4.57	2.95
IP	3.75	3.43	.54	4.15	3.16	4.53*
TA	6.52	5.75	8.23**	5.68	5.25	4.63*

Note. SI= Sport Interest; ACH= Vicarious Achievement; SOC= Socialization; ESC= Escape; DRA= Drama; KNO= Knowledge; CITY= Support the City; FAM= Family Bonding; IP= Interest in Player; TA= Team Attachment. *P< .05; **P< .01.

4-4-5 Differences Between Chinese and Japanese---Years as a fan

Finally, 1-year fans, 5-year fans, 10-year fans, and 20-year fans were extracted separately as four different groups. Using ‘year as a fan’ as the fixed factor, MANOVAs were conducted between Chinese and Japanese spectators. The results were reported in Table 4-22.

For 1-year fans, socialization, vicarious achievement, and drama were the top three motives for both Chinese and Japanese fans. While, support the city, bonding with family, and interest in player were the least important motives for them. Chinese fans scored higher than Japanese ones on each motive, especially on socialization, knowledge, and family bonding.

For 5-year fans and 20-year fans, sport interest, vicarious achievement, and socialization were the most important motives for both Chinese and Japanese fans. Further, knowledge, support the city, family bonding, and interest in player were the least important motives for the two groups.

Finally, for the 10-year fans, the most important motives for Chinese were vicarious achievement, sport interest, and support the city; while Japanese ones were still attracted most by vicarious achievement, sport interest, and socialization.

Team attachment, age, the ratio of gender, number of home game attendance, and attendance rate were also reported in Table 4-22. Attendance rate referred to the ratio of number of home game attendance to number of home games that had been kicked off

when the survey was conducted. Though Chinese fans reported higher on team attachment; Japanese fans tended to attend more games than Chinese fans, they attended more than 80% of the home games during the season. In addition, Japanese fans were statistically significant older than Chinese fans and there were more female fans in Japan.

Table 4-28***Differences Between Chinese and Japanese---Years as a fan***

	1 year		5 years		10 years		20 years	
	CSL(23)	J2 (18)	CSL(28)	J2 (19)	CSL(38)	J2 (22)	CSL(28)	J2 (42)
SI	5.41 (1.25)	5.09 (1.43)	6.30 (.75)**	5.35 (1.14)	6.31 (.81)	5.95 (.95)	6.46 (.66)**	5.88 (.94)
ACH	5.91 (1.17)	5.67 (.98)	6.48 (.68)**	5.49 (.88)	6.55 (.56)**	6.09 (.78)	6.74 (.42)**	6.04 (.88)
SOC	6.15 (.92)*	5.28 (1.36)	6.16 (.82)**	5.24 (1.17)	5.99 (.84)	5.77 (1.07)	6.29 (.76)	5.80 (1.24)
ESC	5.38 (1.40)	5.14 (1.14)	6.16 (.92)**	5.05 (1.17)	5.53 (1.13)	5.66 (1.03)	6.25 (.84)**	5.19 (1.38)
DRA	5.80 (1.17)	5.52 (1.06)	6.11 (.80)**	5.18 (1.19)	5.60 (1.03)	5.44 (.95)	6.08 (1.06)**	5.34 (1.07)
KNO	5.47 (1.12)**	4.41 (1.33)	5.38 (1.59)*	4.32 (1.70)	5.74 (1.06)*	5.05 (1.53)	5.48 (1.46)*	4.74 (1.30)
CITY	5.05 (1.87)	4.37 (1.42)	5.36 (1.64)	4.68 (1.37)	6.28 (.82)**	5.17 (1.79)	5.50 (1.18)	5.10 (1.47)
FAM	5.30 (1.64)*	3.94 (1.74)	5.10 (1.38)	4.74 (1.43)	5.30 (1.11)	4.76 (1.47)	5.42 (1.30)**	4.24 (1.91)
IP	3.91 (1.73)	3.61 (1.76)	3.88 (1.87)	3.58 (1.57)	3.59 (1.84)	3.30 (2.27)	3.46 (1.98)	3.25 (1.87)
TA	5.49 (1.66)	4.56 (1.26)	6.45 (.64)**	5.11 (1.22)	6.18 (1.01)	5.59 (1.44)	6.79 (.38)**	5.87 (1.02)
Age	21.91 (4.40)**	30.06 (11.04)	24.96 (5.67)**	36.44 (12.23)	26.17 (5.89)**	40.16 (15.68)	33.82 (7.49)*	37.85 (10.19)
M/F	16/7	10/8	25/3**	9/9	34/4**	18/7	28/0**	39/7
Home game	5.10 (4.66)	8.18 (5.65)	6.41 (3.99)	15.00 (4.32)	9.58 (4.54)	15.57 (4.76)	8.44 (4.08)	15.24 (4.69)
Attendance %	42.5	45.4	53.4	83.3	79.8	86.5	70.3	84.7

Note. SI= Sport Interest; ACH= Vicarious Achievement; SOC= Socialization; ESC= Escape; DRA= Drama; KNO= Knowledge; CITY= Support the City; FAM= Family Bonding; IP= Interest in Player; TA= Team Attachment. M/F= the ration of male and female.

**P< .01

Chapter 5 Discussion and Implication

5-1 Development of the scale

The first purpose of the study was to develop a scale to evaluate the motives of sport spectators in China. Sufficient studies have dealt with the scales for evaluating the motives of sport spectators (e.g., Funk et al., 2001; Kahle et al., 1996; Trail & James, 2001; Wann, 1995), however, those scales were developed in English speaking countries, and then, translated into Japanese (Mahony et al., 2002; James et al., 2009), Romanian (Izzo et al., 2011), and Korean (Won & Kitamura, 2007). In this study, the first Chinese version of the Motives of Sport Spectator Scale was developed and used to evaluate the motives of CSL spectators. Based on the focus group, and the results of the internal consistency analysis and two CFA analyses, a 9-motive, 24-item model was developed and confirmed. Data from group2 adequately fit the 9-motive model demonstrating that the model was psychometrically sound.

Compared to the previous scale such as SFMS, MSSC, SII, and SPEED (Wann, 1995; Trail & James, 2001; Funk et al., 2001; Funk et al., 2009), this scale is relatively short and contains more motives. Therefore, it could be used as a tool for sport marketers who aimed at Chinese spectating sport to conduct a marketing surveys to further explore Chinese spectators' needs. Chinese football clubs may choose to use this scale, along with the collection of demographic information, questions about attendance experience,

and intention of future attendance, to conduct surveys during games. Based on those surveys, they could easily establish a database regarding their spectators. This database, in turn, could be a good indicator to inform marketing strategies and further the club's strategic objectives.

5-2 The representative of Shanghai Shenhua for CSL

Previous studies have shown that most of the football spectators are under 30 years old and are mostly male (nearly 80%). Students were one of the most important marketing segmentations; most had a bachelor's degree or had graduated from junior college (Zhang, & Yang, 2006; Liu, Wang, & Liu; 2005; Chen, 2010). There were slightly more female basketball spectators than female football spectators, but the other demographic information was almost the same as for football spectators (Yang, Zhang, & He, 2001; Guo, 2007). In this study, 80.7% of the spectators were male and most were aged from 21 to 30. More than 70% had attended higher education (junior college or bachelor's degree). "Student" was still one of the most important marketing segmentations.

Since football and basketball are two of the most popular spectating sports in China, to some extent, the sample in this study could be considered representative of Chinese sport spectators.

As mentioned previously, "student" was a special segmentation. Although the standard of living for Chinese people has remarkably improved, most students have a

limited income. If there were a special discount or coupon for students, they could afford more games and more willingly to attend additional games. This is important, given that repeat purchasing is one component of brand loyalty, and brand loyalty is positively related to profitability (Bowen, & Chen, 2001; Jacoby, & Kyner, 1973; Baldinger, & Rubinson, 1996). When junior spectators grow up and begin to work, they could become loyal fans and devote more money to attending games or even to purchasing licensed merchandise of their favorite team.

5-3 Examining motives of Chinese sport spectators

5-3-1 Most and least important motives

The second purpose of this study was to use the scale to examine the motives of sport spectators in China. Confirmatory Factor Analysis and Cronbach's internal consistency analysis for Shenhua1 and Shenhua2 reconfirmed the reliability and validity of the scale.

The descriptive statistical analysis showed that sport interest, vicarious achievement, and socialization were the most important motives for Chinese spectators. Robinson and Trail (2005) reported that drama, physical skills, and escape were the most important motives for spectators who attended NCAA football games; McDonald et al. (2002) noted that skill mastery, vicarious achievement, competition, and stress release (escape) were the most important motives for college and professional football spectators; Funk et

al. (2001) reported that aesthetics, excitement, sport interest, and drama were the most important motives for spectators who attended the 1999 FIFA Women's World Cup; and Funk et al. (2002) noted that role model, excitement, drama, and the wholesome environment were the most important motives for spectators who attended the 1999 U.S. Cup. To some extent, Americans attended the football games mostly because they are attracted to the game itself. They enjoy watching fierce competitions between skillful players and close games excite them. They feel they have to focus on these games with their heart and soul, and therefore, are temporarily able to forget about the little problems of daily life. In contrast, Chinese football spectators are attracted to the stadium mainly because of personal reasons. Self-interest is crucial for Chinese spectators. Since they love football, they like to devote time, money, and energy to it. In addition, the opportunity to spend time with friends and bask in reflected glory motivates Chinese spectators to attend games. Though the focus group survey in the present study did not find any new motives for Chinese sport spectators and no empirical study was conducted to compare American and Chinese sport spectators, the spectators of these two countries are attracted to the stadium for different reasons, or for the same reasons but with different rankings in terms of importance.

For Chinese sport spectators, interest in player, family bonding, and support the city were the least important motives. This was slightly inconsistent with the hypothesis that in a socialist country, national interests, collective interests, and the family concept play a very important role in people's daily lives. To some extent, the demographic

characteristics of Chinese sport spectators and some special policies in China, to some extent, could explain the discrepancy. The average age of Chinese sport spectators was 25.78 and most of them were born after 1978, when China launched its reform and opening-up policy. Along with the policy, China has moved from a closed, centrally planned system to a more market-oriented one. In addition, the tendency toward globalization has promoted the process of integration of Western and Eastern cultures, and the development of the Internet has made it easy for people to communicate with others who live far away. Therefore, the young generation in China is highly influenced by Western cultures. Furthermore, the late marriage and late childbirth policy, and one child policy have influenced the lifestyles of the new generation. Most of the sport spectators in this study who were aged under 25 (57.7%) might have been unmarried and might not have fully understood the importance of family. Due to the aforementioned reasons, the influence of Confucianism in daily life may have become weaker among the new generation. Support the city and engaging in family bonding were not that important to Chinese spectators.

The mean score for interest in player was the only one that was less than the median. Chinese sport spectators were more interested in the whole team rather than individual players. However, for some CSL clubs, importing foreign football stars is one of their most important marketing strategies. According to the rules of CSL, each team can import at most five foreign players each season. During the 2012 season, most clubs had five foreign players. However, the average attendance for each club varied. The

championship team Guangzhou Evergrande Football Club attracted the most spectators with an average of 37,003 per game; while He'nan Jianye Football Club only attracted 17,932 spectators on average. Considering the results of this study and the fact that football clubs are enthusiastic to import foreign football stars, further studies should be conducted to explore whether star players could attract more spectators.

Another recommendation ensuing from this study was that managers/marketers should employ an energetic cheering squad to elevate the atmosphere surrounding games. In addition, advertisements should highlight the fabulous performance of the team, winning moments, and friends watching the game together.

5-3-2 Differences between Shenhua1 and Shenhua2

The results of the MANOVA indicated significant motivational differences between Shenhua1 and Shenhua2. Spectators of Shenhua2 were significantly more highly motivated by seven of the nine motives. Since the two sets of data were collected from the same stadium, the motives of the two groups were supposed to be the same. Considering the fact that 15.2% of the spectators from Shenhua1 were not fans, while only 2.2% of Shenhua2 were not fans, the MANOVA was conducted again, only for fans of Shenhua1 and Shenhua2. The new results indicated that fans of Shenhua2 were significantly more highly motivated only in terms of vicarious achievement. As mentioned in Chapter 3, data for Shenhua1 were collected on October 20, 2012, during the 27th round of games for CSL, and Shenhua was ninth in score ranking; In contrast,

data for Shenhua2 were collected on August 31, 2013, the 22nd round of games for CSL, and Shenhua was fifth in score ranking. The higher score ranking in 2013 indicated more victories for the team. These victories satisfied the spectators' need for vicarious achievement, and in turn, spectators anticipated more vicarious achievement from the team. Thus, more spectators who wanted to satisfy their needs for vicarious achievement attended these games. Therefore, the average score for vicarious achievement of Shenhua2 was higher than Shenhua1

5-3-3 Team attachment, intention of future behavior, past attendance, and attendance rate

The significant correlations among the variables of TA, intention of future attendance, past attendance, and attendance rate indicated that TA and past attendance experience were positively correlated with intention of future behavior. The more one attached to the team or the more games one had attended in the past, the more likely one would be to follow the team in the future.

According to the descriptive statistical results, more than 90% of the spectators had a moderate or high level of attachment to Shanghai Shenhua. Marketing implications for this segmentation are to focus on the satisfaction of their attendance experience. Since highly attached spectators are already willing to attend the games, sport marketers should work to keep them satisfied and maintain good relationships with them. Further, when there is a price increase, satisfaction could weaken the negative reaction a customer might

have (Homburg, Hoyer, & Koschate, 2005). If sport clubs have enough highly attached spectators and an optimal attendance rate, keeping their spectators satisfied and raising prices might be a choice for generating more revenue from ticket sales.

5-3-4 Gender differences

Many of the previous studies investigated gender differences (James, & Ridinger, 2002; Ridinger & Funk, 2006; Wann, 1995; Wann et al; 1999). In the present study, there were more male than female spectators. Since women are the primary decision-makers regarding household purchases, sport managers or marketing professionals could use the motive scale from this study to further explore the motives of female sport spectators. Consistent with previous studies, female spectators and fans scored higher on family bonding and interest in player, though the result was not significant (Wann, 1995; Ridinger and Funk, 2006). To attract more female spectators, a discount for family tickets could be offered. The stadium family sections offered by the famous team, Liverpool FC, are one example of how to sell tickets to families. Only adults with children under 16 could buy tickets within the family sections, and a discount for juniors and seniors was provided. The ratio of adults to juniors was expected to be within 2:1, which was especially suitable for Chinese families. Due to the one child policy, it is very common to have a father, mother, and child in a family. Therefore, the adult/junior combined tickets made watching football a family activity that was attractive in terms of both mother and child attending games.

The results of this study also demonstrated that male spectators and fans were significantly more interested in football than were female spectators and fans, and they were more likely to follow the team. Further, the multiple liner regression analyses conducted on Shenhua2 for spectators and sport fans showed that sport interest might be a good predictor of intention of future attendance. Based on these findings, sport club marketers are advised to develop new marketing strategies to arouse sport interest among females, such as family activities, female fan clubs, and special gifts for females.

5-4 Influence factors of intention of future behaviour

The third purpose of this study was to discuss the relationship between each of motives, demographic information, and experience, with intention of future behavior.

5-4-1 Motives and intention of future behavior

The multiple liner regressions conducted using data from Shenhua1 and Shenhua2 verified that vicarious achievement and drama were consistent predictors of intention of future behavior. More than 20% of the variance in intention of future behavior could be explained by the two variables. In addition, sport interest, family bonding, and socialization were predictors of intention of future behavior for spectators and fans from Shenhua2. Previous studies have confirmed the predictive ability of vicarious achievement on game attendance intention for the next season (Zhang et al., 2001). However, in this study, for Chinese spectators, drama was another important predictors of

intention of future behavior. As mentioned in the introduction section, Chinese professional sports are still in their beginning stages; the history and quality of the games cannot be compared to American professional sports. In China, due to the different levels of investment from the sponsors, performance levels among teams have become disparate, and the drama aspects of the games have decreased; therefore, more close games could attract more spectators. Moreover, sport interest, which is the top motive for Chinese sport spectators, might be a predictor of intention of future attendance; due to the love of sport, individuals want to spend money and time on this past time. Further, though the influence of Confucianism in daily life has become weaker among the new generation, family bonding and socialization were still predictors of intention of future attendance. For most sport clubs in China, no special marketing strategies have been developed for families. Therefore, spectators might have desired family bonding through spectating sports, but the atmosphere surrounding the stadium was not family friendly. Implications for sport marketers are to develop family packets to attract more spectators, discount tickets for the whole family, playgrounds for small children, nursing room for mothers, and so forth.

5-4-2 Demographic information/past attendance and future behavior

Demographic information has always been used as an effective indicator for marketing segmentations (Hawkins & Mothersbaugh, 2010). In this study, the relationship between demographic information, past attendance experience and intention

of future behavior was discussed. Number of home game attendance was a positive predictor of intention of future behavior. The more games one attended, the more likely one was to follow the team in the future. In addition, years as a fan had a positive influence on intention of future attendance; “old fans” were more likely to attend games in the future. However, age was a negative predictor; as age increased, the intention to attend games decreased. The negative relationship between gender and intention of future behavior indicated that males were more likely to attend games in the future than females.

To some extent, the relationship between demographic information, past attendance experience and intention of future behavior could be better interpreted through the demographic characteristics of Chinese sport spectators. Since male spectators had a stronger willingness to attend games, there might have been more male spectators in the stadium. Accordingly, nearly 80% of the spectators were male. Moreover, with increasing age, the intention to attend the games decreased.

Though demographic information and past attendance experience could be predictors of intention of future behavior, they explain less than 20% of the variance of this variable. Implications for sport marketers are to use demographic information and past attendance experience as indicators for marketing segmentations. Further, the scale developed in this study may be used to explore different motives among different segments and develop special marketing strategies for these groups.

5-5 The representative of JEF United CHIBA for J-League

According to the “2012 J-League Fan Survey Report,” the ratio of male to female spectators for J-League was 62.8/37.2 and the average age was 39.0. In this study, the ratio of male to female spectators for JEF United CHIBA was 59.2/40.8 and the average age was 37.8. According to the one-sample t-test, there were no significant differences in age and gender between J-League spectators and CHIBA spectators. In addition, CHIBA is a team with a long history. Before 2010, CHIBA played games in J1. Then, due to poor performance, it began to play in J2. Therefore, to some extent, spectators of CHIBA might be good representatives for both J1 and J2, and the J-League.

5-6 Confirm the scale with Japanese data

The fourth purpose of this study was to confirm the scale with Japanese data. The results of CFA and Cronbach's internal consistency analyses showed that data from J-League spectators fit the model adequately. All of the AVE values, model fit indices, Cronbach's alpha coefficients, and correlations between factors met the benchmarks for exploratory research. Therefore, the scale developed among Chinese spectators could be used for Japanese football spectators.

According to the descriptive statistics, sport interest, vicarious achievement, and socialization were the top three motives for Japanese spectators; support the city, family bonding, and interest in players were the least important motives for these spectators. These results were also consistent with those of previous studies (Funk, Nakazawa,

Mahony, & Thrasher, 2006; Mahony et al., 2002) showing that vicarious achievement was the top motive for J-League spectators while interest in player was the least important motive for them.

Furthermore, male Japanese spectators had significantly higher scores for support the city, while, female Japanese spectators were more motivated by socialization, escape, drama, family bonding, and interest in player. Lifestyles, to some extent, could explain the aforementioned results. The typical lifestyles of the Japanese females involve full-time working, being a homemaker, or part-time jobs (Matsui & Ohsawa, 1995). In recent years, increasing numbers of females are starting to remain in their full-time jobs even after getting married or having children. However, gender inequality still exists. According to the OECD Better Life Index, in 2012, 60.7% of females had jobs and 65.5% of them were employed full-time; while 80.3% of males had jobs and 89.7% of them were employed full-time. Therefore, males are more socialized than females meaning that they tend to have stronger connections to the social environment and are more attached to the city in which they live. In contrast, females spend most of their daily time with their family. Attending games could be a good opportunity for them to escape from housework, to socialize with their friends, to cheer for their favorite player, and enjoy games. Meanwhile, they can still spend time with their families.

5-7 Comparison between Chinese and Japanese Spectators

The fifth purpose of this study was to compare the Chinese and Japanese spectators.

Six different kinds of comparisons were conducted between the two countries.

5-7-1 Demographic differences between the two countries

The ratio of males to females was 2.79 times higher in China than Japan. Japanese females were more likely to attend games. As mentioned previously, few of the Japanese females (39.75%) were employed full-time. Family was the main component of the Japanese female's daily life, and they may have been easily influenced to attend games by family members. According to the "J-League Fan Survey Report," 63.7% of female spectators went to the stadium with family members, while only 5.7% of them went to the stadium alone. In contrast, in China, the number of working females in 2008 accounted for 45.4 percent of the total working population, as cited in the book *China's Human Resources* (2010). Both work and family are main components of Chinese females' daily life, and thus, they tend to be influenced by both family and colleagues. It is expected that Chinese females work during the day, and do housework or spend time socializing with colleagues after work. Therefore, they might have less leisure time to participate in family outings such as going to the stadium.

Furthermore, the average age for J-League spectators was significantly higher than for Chinese spectators. Nine percent of Japanese spectators were aged 55 or older, whereas only one older Chinese spectator (aged 60) responded to the questionnaire in this study, accounting for 0.4% of the total responders. There are two possible explanations for the differences between the two countries. Firstly, CSL was established in 2001 while

J-League was established in 1993. With a longer history, J-League might have attracted more spectators from a larger age span. Second, lifestyle could be a very crucial influential factor. In China, it is very common for grandparents to look after their grandchildren. Given that they devoted their heart and soul to their grandchildren without any time for personal hobbies, they may not have enough leisure time to attend games. It is for almost the same reasons that CSL attracts more young spectators. Since young Chinese parents have reliable childcare in the form of grandparents, they have more leisure time to enjoy watching games. Furthermore, students made up nearly one-third of the Chinese spectators. This makes sense, given that compared to the full-time employees, students have more flexible schedules and are more enthusiastic toward their hobbies.

5-7-2 Experience differences between the two countries

Although more than 96.0% of spectators considered themselves fans of the home team in both China and Japan, there were significant differences between their home game attendances. Chinese spectators only attended 59.4% of home games while Japanese spectators attended nearly 80.0% of home games. The reasons for this significant difference are complicated; however, ticket sales might be a greatly influential factor. In China, most of clubs distribute large numbers of tickets to sponsors as rewards, and many individuals who are associated with sponsors receive free tickets (Yu, 2007; Zhou et al., 2008). Consequently, real fans, who are highly attached to the team, and even members of fan clubs, may have difficulties in purchasing tickets or might only be able to

buy tickets from others at high prices. Due to the aforementioned reasons, some fans choose to watch games on TV instead of attending in person. Furthermore, the disposable income per capita in Japan is nearly 6 times higher than in China. Thus, the relatively lower economic foundation of the Chinese might have a negative influence on their leisure consumption.

5-7-3 Similarities and differences in motives between the two countries

In the present study, Chinese spectators had higher scores for each motive than Japanese spectators. Except for interest in player, the differences between the two groups were statistically significant. As cited in Mooij (2004), Japanese tend to express emotions less intensely, which leads to lower intensity ratings when they judge expressions. If this discrepancy between expressing and judging were taken into account, Japanese spectators might have had higher scores on the motives scale, and some of the statistically significant differences between the two countries might have been neutralized.

In addition, there was a high correlation between motives' rankings of the two countries. Spectators in both countries considered vicarious achievement, sport interest and socialization to be the top three motives in terms of importance. Thus, there were high similarities between the two countries. As mentioned in Chapter 1, both China and Japan have group-oriented cultures that have been gradually influenced by western culture through the globalization process. The Chinese and Japanese come from the same cultural background, and therefore, may share the same values and do the same things for

the same reasons.

Sport marketers and managers aimed at a global market must understand that consumers from different countries cannot simply be classified into different segments. Culture was one of the most important and useful indices for marketing segmentations. Dividing countries into four categories based on cultural background and economic ideology (Ralston et al., 1997), and then conducting different kinds of market surveys in these different categories could help marketing professionals to construct effective promotional strategies.

5-7-4 Gender group --- differences in motives between the two countries

Interestingly, Japanese female spectators reported higher sport interest than did Chinese female spectators. Japanese female spectators considered sport interest to be the second most important motive for them to attend games, while Chinese female spectators considered it the sixth most important one. However, Chinese female spectators valued knowledge as the fourth most important motive, while Japanese females only valued it as the eighth most important. One possible explanation for these results might be that Japanese females already understood the rules, tactics or technical aspects of football games, and they knew about the sport and had an interest in it. Though Chinese female spectators attended 60.8% of the home games, most of them had been fans for less than 3 years, and learning about football was still very important in terms of them to attending games. According to the Psychological Continuum Model (Funk, & James, 2001), the

development of an individual's psychological connection to sport follows a pattern: first, awareness of the sport; second, attraction to the sport; third, attachment to the sport; and finally, allegiance to the sport. Although some of the Chinese female spectators considered themselves as fans of the home team, their psychological connection to the team might still have been at the primary stage. That is, they were only aware of football.

Sport marketers or managers should design marketing programs to help female spectators learn about football quickly and stimulate their love of the game. For example, advertisements should focus on not only the moment of winning, but also the moment when someone fouls and an explanation as to why it is a foul.

5-7-5 Age group --- differences in motives between the two countries

Except for the age group of 13-20 (in which Japanese spectators showed higher interest in player than did Chinese spectators), Chinese sport spectators had higher scores on each motive than Japanese spectators from the same age group. In addition, no significant motivational differences were found between Chinese and Japanese spectators for the age group from 13-20. These results reconfirmed the sport spectators' motivational similarities and differences between the two countries. Among the youngest age group, most of the spectators might have been students, for whom education and family are the most influential factors in decision-making (Moogan & Baron, 2003). Under the same national cultural background, teenagers might have had similarities in values.

For the age groups from 21-25 and 26-30, except for drama and interest in player, Chinese spectators scored significantly higher on the other seven motives than Japanese spectators. Compared to European football leagues, such as Barclays Premier League, Bundesliga, and La Liga, CSL and J-League have been less popular. For the 2011-2012 season, on average, Bundesliga attracted about 44.3 thousand spectators for each game, while 34.6 thousand and 26.1 thousand attended for Barclays Premier League and La Liga respectively. However, for CSL and J-League, the numbers were only 18.7 thousand and 17.6 thousand. Further, European football leagues have had a relatively longer history than Asian football leagues. They have had several talented football players such as David Beckham, Lionel Messi, and Miroslav Klose. In addition, some Asian football players have transferred to European clubs in search of a better career. Those talented and skillful players made the games more interesting and dramatic, and the interesting and dramatic games, to some extent, attracted more spectators and satisfied their needs for drama. In turn, the European leagues became more popular and more talented players transferred to the leagues. Consequently, few talented and skillful players remained in the Asian leagues and the games were less dramatic. However, for Chinese and Japanese spectators, drama was not an important motive and they were less likely to be attracted by individual player.

When considering the age group from 31-35, the significant differences in sport interest and socialization faded away. For the age group from 36-40, there were no significant differences in sport interest, drama, support the city, and bonding with family.

In summary, as age increased, the differences between the two countries' spectators' motives decreased.

Thus, age group was an important indicator for marketing segmentations in the two Asian countries. The spectators aged from 21 to 30 were significantly different in the two countries. Chinese spectators had strong desires for sport interest, vicarious achievement, socialization, escape, knowledge, support the city, and family bonding. When marketing to Chinese spectators, more impressive advertisements or activities should be conducted. The organizers of CSL and each club should unite to improve the quality of games and promote the brand equity of CSL. Though it would be difficult for CSL to attract as many talented and skillful players as in the European leagues in a short time, it is possible for them to emphasize teamwork and players' persistent efforts. For J-League marketers, managers, and organizers, it is important to continue the present marketing plan to satisfy the basic needs of their spectators. Further, exploring more players that are talented and promoting dramatic aspects of the games are also crucial for tasks.

Given that spectators under age 20 were nearly the same in the two countries, similar marketing strategies could be used for this segmentation. Focusing on the winning moment of the team, creating a friendly atmosphere for communication, and making games more interesting could be potential strategies.

For sport marketers and managers, it is also important to note the similarities and differences between the Chinese and Japanese for the age groups from 31-35 and 36-40. Individuals aged 31-40 are likely to have children. If appropriate marketing strategies are

used to persuade them to bring their children to the stadium, the children will become fans of the team in the future. In addition, both of Chinese and Japanese spectators aged 31-40 valued the opportunity to support their city by attending games. Therefore, attaching the team to the city or calling for citizens to support their cities, might be good potential strategies. Moreover, trying to make individuals feel that it is everyone's great honor to attend games, support the team, and support the city, may be another good strategy. The latter strategy may be especially useful in countries with group-oriented cultures, such as China and Japan.

5-7-6 Years as a fan group -- differences in motives between the two countries

Nakazawa, Mahony, Funk, and Hirakawa (1999) noted that length of time as a fan is a useful independent variable for marketing segmentations. In this study, motives, age, gender and game attendance rate between the two countries were compared based on the groups of 1-year fans, 5-year fans, 10-year fans, and 20-year fans. Both similarities and differences were found. For each group, both the Chinese and Japanese reported sport interest, vicarious achievement, and socialization as their most important motives. The most prominent difference was that for the 10-year Chinese fans, support the city was especially important. As noted in the introduction, CSL was established in 2004 and Shanghai Shenhua was official established in 1993. The current survey was conducted in 2013 when the 10th season of the games was played. In China, 10-year fans represent individuals who became fans of Shanghai Shenhua at the time of the establishment of

CSL. To some extent, the image of CSL may have had a great influence on the behavior of these 10-year fans. As the highest tier of professional football in China, clubs have been highly connected to the cities. Though different teams have had different sponsors, the city's name has been an unchanging component of the name of the team, such as Shanghai (city) Shenhua, Guangzhou (city) Evergrande, and Shangdong (city) Luneng. Due to the popularity of CSL, winning games could have promoted the status of the city, and citizens who loved their city may have begun to support the team. Thus combining the team and the city may be a potential strategy for sport marketers and managers; have the team stand for the city and compete for the city. Then, the honor of the team, to some extent, belongs to the city.

5-8 Limitation and future research

5-8-1 The development and confirmation of the scale

In this study, a 9-motive 24-item scale was developed for Chinese sport spectators and confirmed with the Japanese data. This scale might be useful for sport marketers and managers who aimed at oriental markets. However, there were some limitations in the development of the scale.

First, focus group was only conducted among Chinese individuals in Japan. In order to have a comprehensive understanding of sport spectators' motives in the two countries, focus group should be conducted in both China and Japan. Individuals from ages 10 to 70

should be included.

Second, given that the questionnaires for Chinese spectators were administered outside the stadium, and both games kicked off in the evening around seven o'clock, older spectators were less likely to participate in the survey, thus, possibly skewing the results.

Third, the removal of the data from the free ticket holders might have resulted in missing some of the motives of Chinese spectators, making it difficult to generalize the results to some of the clubs that give a large portion of their tickets to sponsors as recompense.

Fourth, though Shanghai Shenhua and JEF United CHIBA were good representatives of their leagues. To some extent, the spectators could also be the representatives of all sport spectators in their countries. Future research should be done to generalize the scale to various kinds of sports and other Asian countries.

Fifth, the AVE values, model fit indices, Cronbach's alpha coefficients, and correlations between factors only met the benchmarks for exploratory research; further empirical research should be conducted to confirm the reliability and validity of the scale. Necessary modifications should be done to improve the scale.

Finally, ceiling effects were detected among both Chinese and Japanese data. To some extent, this might be a general limitation of questionnaire surveys on sport spectators. Since motives are the reasons for behavior, individuals who are highly motivated are more likely to go to the stadium. In addition, team attachment has a

positive influence on game attendance (Wann & Branscombe, 1990). In contrast, spectators in the stadium tend to score higher on motives and team attachment.

5-8-2 The motives and characteristics of Chinese and Japanese spectators

This study achieved a number of firsts. It was not only the first use of a sport spectator motives scale to evaluate Chinese spectators but also the first time that the motives of Chinese sports spectators had been evaluated. Characteristics and motives of Chinese sport spectators were also elucidated. The relationships between motives and intention of future attendance, and demographic information/experience and intention of future attendance were discussed based on the statistical analysis, and implications for sport managers or marketing professionals were offered. Furthermore, this was also the first comparison of sport spectators' motives between an Eastern-Capitalism country (E-C), and Eastern-Socialism country (E-S). Similarities and differences were found in terms of the motives of sport spectators in the two countries. Gender, age, and years as a fan were considered good indicators for marketing segmentations. In addition, culture proved to be an important indicator for marketing segmentations. However, there were still some limitations of this study.

First, data from Shenhua1 were collected for the purpose of the development of the scale. Then, it was used again for exploring the motives of Chinese sport spectators. The reuse of the data might have led to unstable results. More research should be conducted with Chinese spectators to explore their motives further and to confirm the results of this

study.

Second, only gender, age, years as a fan, and number of home game attendance were examined for Japanese spectators. In order to make a comprehensive comparison between the two countries, future research should examine educational background, occupational status, monthly income, and playing experience for Japanese spectators. Further, as mentioned in Chapter 5, marital status and having children might be important influential factors for attending games. In addition, multiple liner regressions were only conducted on Chinese spectators to explore the relationship between motives and intention of future behavior, and demographic information/experience and intention of future behavior. Future research could also be done to explore further the indicators for intention of future behavior for Japanese spectators and to examine if there are differences between China and Japan.

Third, only 43 Chinese female spectators responded to the questionnaire, while, 141 Japanese females responded. These different sample sizes might explain the significant statistical differences between the two groups. When comparing differences for the age group and years as a fan, the same limitation might exist. Therefore, future research should focus on special groups mentioned in this study, such as female spectators, adolescent spectators, and older spectators.

Fourth, though, Shanghai is a diversified city with immigrants from all over the country, which made it a good representative of Chinese. Due to the highly developed economic status in Shanghai, no significant differences between the two countries were

found in terms of economic ideologies. Future research should be conducted in other cities and to further explore the possible differences between capitalist countries and socialist countries.

Finally, the discrepancy between expressing and judging for the Japanese might have had a negative effect on responding to the questionnaire. More research should be done to confirm further how likely the Japanese are to express their emotions less and then compare the motives between the Chinese and Japanese once more.

5-8-3 Further future research

Motives are important for learning about consumers. More research is needed to explore motives, satisfaction levels, loyalties, and identities of sports spectators throughout the world. Additionally, further research is needed regarding brand equity, sponsorship, and advertisements.

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Appendix A Chinese version of the questionnaire (Original Scale)

体育赛场观众观赛动机调查

各位现场的观众，您们好。非常感谢您愿意腾出宝贵的时间填写本调查问卷。本调查问卷为本人博士课程毕业论文所设计，旨在全面了解中国体育赛场观众的观赛动机，以期为体育市场营销提供借鉴，进而为中国职业联赛的发展提供借鉴。问卷采取不记名方式，所有信息仅供科研使用，原始问卷将由本人研究室妥善保管，任何单位和个人不得借阅。真诚的感谢您的参与。

第一部分：基本信息。请根据您的实际情况提供如下信息：

1. 您目前住在哪里？_____市_____区
2. 性别： A. 男 B. 女
3. 年龄：_____
4. 您已取得的最高学历是：
 - A. 初中及以下 B. 高中 / 中专 C. 大学 / 大专 D. 本科 E. 硕士 F. 博士 G. 其他
5. 您每月的收入是：_____元
 - A. 0~1250 B. 1250~1800 C. 1800~2300 D. 2300~3000 E. 3000~5200 F. 5200-
6. 您的职业是：
 - A. 国家机关、党群组织、企业事业单位负责人 B. 专业技术人员（包括一般学生）
 - C. 办事人员和有关人员（包括警校学生） D. 商业、服务业人员
 - E. 农、林、牧、渔、水利业生产人员 F. 军人（包括军校学生）
 - G. 生产、运输设备操作人员及有关人员 H. 其他从业人员

第二部分：观赛信息。请根据您的实际情况提供如下信息：

7. 您是否是上海申花的球迷？
 - A. 是的，我作为申花球迷已经有_____年的历史了
 - B. 不，我是_____（球队名称）的球迷
 - C. 不，我不是球迷
8. 您是否加入了球迷俱乐部？
 - A. 是的，我加入了_____俱乐部 B. 否，我没有加入球迷俱乐部
9. 您本人是否有踢足球的经历？
 - A. 我现在经常踢球 B. 我以前经常踢球 C. 我偶尔会踢球 D. 我从来不踢球
10. 本赛季中，您去现场观看了多少场申花的主场比赛？_____

11. 本赛季中, 您去现场观看了多少场申花的客场比赛? _____
12. 您通常情况下持有什么种类的门票?
A. 免费票 B. 最便宜的票 C. 中等价位的票 D. 季票 E. VIP 票 F. 其他_____
13. 从您家到体育场需要多长时间? _____

第三部分: 观赛动机

以下各项描述了您对今晚的中超比赛可能持有的感觉、看法, 请根据您的实际感受在适当的位置划圈 (7=非常同意; 1=完全不同意)。答案没有对错, 即使不确定, 也请回答所有的问题。您自然而真实的回答对我们来说是最为重要的。

	非常同意			完全不同意			
14. 我欣赏足球比赛的内在美·····	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
15. 当申花表现好时我会感到骄傲·····	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
16. 中超是个与人交流的好机会·····	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
17. 我喜欢中超比赛结果的不可预知性所带来的刺激感·····	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
18. 能与家人一起观赛是我喜欢现场观看中超的原因·····	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
19. 我认为自己是个足球迷·····	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
20. 中超对我来说是一项负担得起的娱乐活动·····	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
21. 现场观看中超比赛使我增长了足球知识·····	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
22. 现场观看中超比赛能帮我逃离日常生活·····	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
23. 我更倾向于关注个别球员而不是整个球队·····	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
24. 不论输赢, 我都是申花的忠实球迷·····	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
25. 我为了享受球迷文化来现场观看比赛·····	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
26. 我为了支持上海市来现场观看比赛·····	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
27. 我喜欢足球比赛的优雅·····	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
28. 当申花获胜时, 我觉得自己也胜利了·····	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
29. 现场观赛时, 与其他球迷的交流对我来说非常重要·····	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
30. 我喜欢中超比赛可能带来的戏剧性转折·····	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
31. 与家人共度美好时光是我喜欢现场观看中超的原因·····	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
32. 我喜欢关注足球比赛·····	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
33. 我现场观看中超, 因为作为一项娱乐活动价格合理·····	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
34. 我喜欢了解申花·····	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
35. 现场观看中超是对我日常生活步调的一次改变·····	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
36. 我是个别球员的粉丝而不是申花的粉丝·····	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
37. 对我来说, 感受到与申花的良好关系很重要·····	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
38. 享受比赛氛围是我现场观看中超的主要原因·····	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
39. 当上海的球队胜利时, 作为上海市市民, 我很骄傲·····	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
40. 我喜欢足球比赛的自然美·····	7	6	5	4	3	2	1

41. 当申花表现好的时候, 我会有个人成就感·····	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
42. 与朋友共享观看比赛的经历是现场观赛重要的一环·····	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
43. 我喜欢中超比赛输赢不定的悬疑性·····	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
44. 我喜欢现场观看中超因为它是一项很好的家庭活动·····	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
45. 总体来说, 我是个超级足球迷·····	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
46. 从价格来说, 中超是一项很好的娱乐活动·····	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
47. 现场观看中超比赛, 可以增长足球战术方面的知识·····	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
48. 现场观看中超比赛可以让我暂时忘记生活琐事·····	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
49. 为最喜爱的球员加油是我现场观看中超的主要原因·····	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
50. 现场观看比赛让我感觉自己是申花的一份子·····	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
51. 这间场馆的氛围是我在观看球赛时想要的·····	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
52. 我之所以支持申花是因为它提升了上海的地位·····	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
53. 现场观看中超提供了我和朋友相处的机会·····	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
54. 现场观看中超比赛可以增长足球技术方面的知识·····	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
55. 我很在乎别人对申花的看法·····	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
56. 他人称赞申花时, 我觉得自己也受到了称赞·····	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
57. 媒体批评申花时, 我觉得很难过·····	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
58. 他人批评申花时, 感觉自己受到了侮辱·····	7	6	5	4	3	2	1

第四部分：行为结果

以下各项描述您过去及未来有关申花球队的行为趋势, 请根据您的实际行为及您对未来的预期, 在适当的位置画圈。

		经常			从不		
59. 赛季期间现场观看申花主场比赛的频率·····	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
60. 赛季期间现场观看申花客场比赛的频率·····	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
61. 赛季期间在电视上看申花比赛的频率·····	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
62. 赛季期间在网上阅读关于申花的新闻的频率·····	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
63. 请问你购买申花特许商品的频率·····	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
64. 请问你穿有申花球队标志衣服的频率·····	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
		非常可能			完全不可能		
65. 请问未来你到现场观看申花主场比赛的可能性·····	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
66. 请问未来你到现场观看申花客场比赛的可能性·····	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
67. 请问未来你在电视上看申花比赛的可能性·····	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
68. 请问未来你在网上阅读关于申花的新闻的可能性·····	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
69. 请问未来你购买申花特许商品的可能性·····	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
70. 请问未来你支持其他球队的可能性·····	7	6	5	4	3	2	1

Appendix B Japanese version of the scale (9-motive-24-item)

Q6. ジェフの試合を観戦する理由として、それぞれあてはまる番号に○をつけてください。

	非常に あてはまる ←		どちらとも いえない		→		まったく あてはまらない
	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
好きなチームが良いプレーをしたときに誇りに思えるから -----	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
Jリーグ観戦を通して、友人と同じ体験を共有することができるから -----	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
Jリーグの試合の、最後まで結果がわからない興奮が好きだから -----	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
Jリーグ観戦は家族と共に過ごすことができるから -----	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
自分のことを何よりもサッカーファンだと思うから -----	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
Jリーグの試合を観ると、サッカーに関する知識が増えるから -----	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
Jリーグの試合を観ることで、毎日の生活に良い変化を与えてくれるから -----	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
Jリーグの試合ではチームよりも特定の選手を応援するから -----	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
勝敗にかかわらず、応援しているチームに一途なファンだから -----	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
Jリーグを観戦すると自分の街を支えることができるから -----	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
好きなチームが勝った時に自分の勝利のように感じるから -----	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
Jリーグ観戦を通して、友人と共に過ごすことができるから -----	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
ドラマティックな試合展開を見ることができるから -----	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
Jリーグ観戦は、家族と過ごす時間を与えてくれるから -----	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
サッカーの試合が好きだから -----	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
Jリーグの試合を観ると、サッカーの戦術への理解が深まるから -----	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
スタジアムにいるときは、日々の悩みをすべて忘れられるから -----	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
Jリーグのチームよりも特定の選手のファンだから -----	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
好きなチームとつながっていることは私にとって重要であるから -----	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
ホームタウンのチームが勝つと、その街の住民として誇りに思うから -----	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
好きなチームがよい試合をしたときに達成感を得られるから -----	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
試合中にリードしたりされたりする緊張感が好きだから -----	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
Jリーグ観戦は、家族行事として良い機会だから -----	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
いつでもサッカーの大ファンであるから -----	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
Jリーグの試合を観ると、サッカーのテクニックを学ぶことができるから -----	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
試合を観に行くと好きなチームの一員であると感じられるから -----	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
チームの存在は街のステータスを高めるから -----	7	6	5	4	3	2	1