Editor’s Note

The Tokyo 2020 Olympic and Paralympic Games are approaching. It is the world’s leading mega sporting event following the PyeongChang 2018 Winter Games and leading to the Beijing 2022. The past and following years are very important for the development of the sport industry in Asia. Expectations are high not only for the success of management personnel in the sports industry but also for the achievement of research in the academic world. I would greatly appreciate it if all our friends from various nations and regions would consider submitting for the Asian Sport Management Review (ASMR), the official journal of the Asian Association for Sport Management (AASM).

The volume 14 is made up of seven unique articles. The topics consist of issues regarding governance of International sport federations, sense of community in local sport teams in Japan, team brand associations of a professional football league, Olympic organizing committees in Korea and Japan, consumer behavior in sport team merchandise, sports engineering of the Iran Taekwondo federation, and sports magazine covers in the United States and Japan.

Many of editorial works have been completed by the deputy chief editor, Dr. Daichi Oshimi. I would like to express my appreciation for his great contribution and many collaborative reviewers’ hard work. I hope you enjoy reading each paper.

Sincerely yours,

Hirota Matsuoka, Ph. D.
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Governance Reform of International Sport Federations and its Implications for National Sport Associations: A case study of the International Association of Athletics Federations (IAAF) and the Chinese Taipei Athletics Association (CTAA)

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Governance in sport organizations has become a much-researched topic in recent time. However, we have identified a lack of studies on the organizational structures of national federations, in particular against the background of local/national histories. We aim to fill this research gap by centralizing the governance structures of the Chinese Taipei Athletics Association (CTAA) in light of recent governance structure reforms in international athletics. Our approach is twofold. First, we use previously unexamined sources from the International Association of Athletics Federations (IAAF) Archives in Monaco to explore the CTAA’s reintegration into the IAAF in the late 1970s. This historical context provides essential background for the specific sport political circumstances in which the CTAA is situated. Second, we focus on seven key areas of the IAAF’s recent reform and explore how they are applicable to the CTAA. These areas are: 1) Presidential Power, 2) Area Representative Voice, 3) Greater Voice for Athletes, 4) Gender Balance, 5) Independent Anti-Doping Regulations, 6) Integrity and External Control Mechanisms, and 7) Readjustment of Finance Management/Control. Our findings indicate that there are discrepancies between the CTAA’s organizational structures and internationally recognized governance concepts. However, we argue that there is a need for an individual governance concept as the CTAA cannot completely follow the IAAF’s blueprint. In order to do so, the CTAA must be open for reform and thereby take its significant historical background into consideration.

\textbf{Key Words:} Athletics, CTAA, IAAF, sport governance, Taiwan sport history

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\section*{Introduction}

In recent years, the international academic community has increasingly focused on the aspect of governance in sport. A majority of the studies built on the many corruption scandals and the lack of integrity in the world’s biggest international sport organizations such as the International Olympic Committee (IOC) and the Fédération Internationale de Football Association (FIFA) (Mason, Thibault & Misener, 2006; Pielke, 2013; Boudreaux, Karahan & Coats, 2016; Sugden & Tomlinson, 2017; Tomlinson, 2017). Thereby, research has not only produced theoretical constructs for the understanding of governance but also made suggestions for the practical implementation of good governance principles (Geereart, 2016). Nevertheless, governance issues remain a key problem in many governing bodies of sport, including the Olympic and non-Olympic International Sport Federations (IFs) (Lee & Hardin, 2016).

A major IF that has recently addressed its organizational structures to allow for the installation of governance principles is the International Association of Athletics Federations (IAAF)\textsuperscript{a}. This was a necessary process because international media reports and independent commissions have exposed the involvement of IAAF officials in wide-ranging corruptive practices to protect an alleged doping system in Russia (Pound, McLaren & Younger, 2016). A thorough review of the IAAF’s reform document reveals that the IAAF governance structure reform contains seven key areas: 1) reduction of presidential power; 2) expansion of area representation; 3) increased involvement of (former) athletes; 4) gender balance; 5) independent anti-doping regulation; 6) integrity and control functions; 7) readjustment of finance management. The reform is aimed at the sport’s international governing body itself. However, it potentially also effects its national member federations. Whilst the IAAF does not propose an immediate adoption of the governance reforms, the IAAF Reform Package reads:

\begin{quote}
"In the future, it is envisaged there will need to be alignment across the sport but Member Federations and Area Associations should be actively involved in that reform process before any alignment is required” (IAAF, 2016, p. 23).
\end{quote}

\textsuperscript{a}After the 2019 World Athletics Championships, the IAAF changed its official name into World Athletics. In this research we will refer to the organization as IAAF because our research has been conducted prior to the name change
Hence, the entire organizational athletic community faces a process of institutional change in light of the IAAF’s reform. Against the background of international reform and its potential effects on national athletics federations, this paper centralizes the organizational development of governing athletics in Taiwan. Research on national sport federations is scarce but it is necessary to understand the specific frameworks of national sport organizations to contextualize the consequences of reforms. The case of the Chinese Taipei Athletics Association (CTAA) is particularly effective in this regard as Taiwan’s sport history is complex and its specific history must be considered when approaching an internationally-driven change. Hence, before outlining the introduction of governance processes and the commercialization of athletics through the IAAF, it may be useful to clarify the historical circumstances in which the CTAA was founded under its current name. The contextualization will, in short, help readers to understand the complexity of the sport political tensions within the international athletics network regarding the “China question”.

To accomplish this task, this study draws on previously unexamined historical sources from the IAAF Archives in Monaco. In a second step, we look at the structural development of the CTAA since its re-integration into the IAAF by focusing on each of the seven key reform areas mentioned above. For this part, we utilize CTAA publications from the CTAA annual manual, the CTAA quarterly, and other resources available online.

Understanding the Historical Context: The CTAA’s Struggle to Remain in the IAAF

Following the end of the Second World War, the Kuomintang (KMT, Chinese Nationalist Party) governed the Republic of China (ROC) including the Chinese mainland and the island of Taiwan. The Chinese Civil War changed the existing orders dramatically with the Communists taking control over Mainland China and the Nationalists fleeing to Taiwan (National Sport Cultural and History Workshops Committee and China Sport History Association, 1989). From there, the Nationalists claimed the continued existence of the ROC as the only legitimate Chinese government whilst the KMT by the fact only ruled over Taiwan and its surrounding islands (Hsu, 2005). Equally, the Communists declared the People’s Republic of China (PRC) the successor state of the ROC. Each side refused to maintain diplomatic relations with countries that officially recognized the other side (Hsu, 2005; Sport History Material Editing Group, 1996).

Such political struggles heavily influenced the recognition and membership of Chinese sport organizations in the international organization of athletics. Before the Chinese Civil War, the China National Amateur Athletic Federation (CNAAF) was an IAAF member. However, with the foundation of the PRC, this body was transformed into the All China Sports Federation with an own track and field section. This section was called All China Athletics Association (ACAA) and the ACAA informed the IAAF about its name change accordingly. Strongly supported by the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics (USSR), the IAAF accepted the ACAA in 1954. The IAAF Congress already noted that an application by Taiwan would be given consideration (IAAF, 1954), even though the IAAF rules stated that only one member for each country or territory would be affiliated (IAAF, 1978b). However, Taiwan considered itself politically independent from the PRC and had obtained recognition from the United Nations (UN) and on this basis the IOC Session in 1954 accepted the Taiwan Olympic Committee officially (IOC, 1954). Hence, shortly ahead of the 1956 Olympic Games in Melbourne, Australia, the IAAF Congress decided to accept the CNAAF as its member and be known and compete as “Taiwan” (IAAF, 1956). The IAAF reasoned that the ACAA could not organize athletics for participants in Taiwan. As a result of the IOC’s and IAAF’s decisions, the ROC withdrew its memberships from the Olympic Movement and all international federations. In letters to the IAAF Council, the PRC made clear that only an exclusion of Taiwan would allow for a return of the ACAA to IAAF membership (IAAF, 1962).

In 1969, when the IAAF granted all its member federations the right to choose the name under which it was registered, Taiwan opted to compete under the name of “Republic of China” and renamed its athletics body into Republic of China Track and Field Association (ROCTFA). However, the sport political processes took a turn in the 1970s that also affected the RPCTFA’s membership in the IAAF. In 1971, the UN began to recognize the PRC as sole legitimate representative of China and expelled the Republic of China. On the back of this decision, IAAF President David Burghley enforced talks with the PRC about a potential re-integration into the IAAF again (IAAF, 1973). He reported to the IAAF Congress that the talks with PRC representatives were friendly but the ACAA would only reapply for membership if the IAAF removed ROCTFA’s membership. Consequently, Burghley drastically stated that the IAAF “would not beg their Federation [the ACAA] to rejoin, it had been their own decision to leave the IAAF” (Ibid., p. 4). In order to allow for elite athletics to develop in Mainland China, the IAAF did allow for a special rule that enabled competitions between members and non-members under special conditions in 1974. This compromise aimed to control potential political agreements that led to numerous athletic meetings with the PRC in the early 1970s (IAAF, 1974). The IAAF Council and later the IAAF Honorary Secretary granted the permission for these meetings (IAAF, 1975).
Events took a dramatic turn ahead of the 1976 Olympic Games in Montreal when Canadian Prime Minister Pierre Trudeau did not allow for the ROC to compete under the name of Republic of China. Even though negotiations took place, the ROC eventually pulled out of the Olympic Games (Hong & Zhouxiang, 2008). In the IAAF, the discussions gained further momentum when IAAF President Adriaan Paulen was invited to visit the PRC in 1977 (IAAF, 1977). The IAAF Council debated intensively whether the China question was of political or sport political nature. It was agreed that Taiwan was a part of Mainland China politically but that in athletics the two countries had to be considered separately. Eventually, Paulen visited the PRC and met with representatives from the FIFA and the FINA to discuss their stance on the situation. The IAAF’s biggest concern was that very few Asian countries held diplomatic relations with Taiwan and therefore the current situation posed a threat to athletics competitions on the Asian continent (IAAF, 1978a). For the same reason, the Asian Amateur Athletics Association (AAAA) applied to the IAAF to hold international athletics competitions without inviting the ROCCTFA (IAAF, 1978a; IAAF, 1978b). On the basis of Paulen’s report on his visit to the PRC, the IAAF Council held indicative discussion in April 1978. Eventually, it unanimously decided to ask the PRC to be affiliated to the IAAF (IAAF, 1978b). Significantly, there was no agreement on the procedure regarding the ROCCTFA in case of a reinstatement of the PRC. For example, West-German IAAF Council Member Max Danz considered it “a death sentence for the ROCCTFA” if Taiwan’s IAAF membership was withdrawn once the PRC became affiliated (Ibid.). Hence, the IAAF Council only recommended to the IAAF Congress for reinstatement of the PRC but to leave open the question on the treatment of ROCCTFA.

Ahead of the IAAF Congress, the IAAF Council did proceed with the administrative steps to reinstate the PRC, however. On 22 July 1978, Athletics Association of the People’s Republic of China (AAPRC) officially applied for IAAF membership under the condition that it would be recognized by the IAAF as sole legitimate organization representing the whole of China, including Taiwan (Li, 1978). The AAPRC also guaranteed that Taiwanese athletes would be able to compete under its leadership. In contrast, the ROCCTFA clearly refused any proposal to change its official name to Taiwan and referred to the cases of the two Germanys and two Koreas (Wang, 1978). Significantly, the IAAF also met with a legal adviser in order to discuss the case. They were advised that the ROCCTFA had legally the right to keep “Republic of China” in the federation’s official name but the IAAF could call the federation in all official communication “Taiwan” (Li, 1978). Moreover, a suspension of the ROCCTFA was not possible because the federation did not infringe any rule (Ibid.). Despite such somewhat unclear situation, IAAF President Paulen pushed for a decision at the 1978 IAAF Congress because the IOC did not act on the issue but rather wanted to await the policies of the individual IFs (IAAF, 1978a). Unsurprisingly, the discussion in the IAAF Congress was highly politically motivated. The reference to the UN decision was criticized heavily because it meant an authority of a political body over a sport (Ibid.). Eventually, the IAAF Congress voted 200:153 votes for the PRCAA to be accepted as an IAAF member federation and “to have jurisdiction also over that territory where athletics was at present governed by the existing IAAF Member in Taiwan” (Ibid., p. 36). Whilst this decision was not an illegal expulsion the ROCCTFA it constituted the end of its membership, as it had no geographic area to govern athletics anymore.

In the following months the IAAF faced legal action from English courts regarding their decision when the ROCCTFA acquired English lawyers to revert the IAAF decision (IAAF, 1979a). Even though its lawyers made the IAAF Council aware again about its unlawful action (Paulen & Holder, 1979), it still advised them to defend the Congress decision. On 2 April, 1979, the English Court declared that depriving the ROCCTFA of its IAAF membership was invalid, that the ROCCTFA was still an IAAF member and that the ROCCTFA was entitled to all rights and privileges of such membership (Holt, 1979). The Court also highlighted that it assumed the IAAF Council would respect the decision on its next meeting. If the declaration was not acted upon, the ROCCTFA could return to the Court for an injunction (IAAF, 1979b). Hence, there were heated debates in the IAAF Council on whether the IAAF had to respect the decisions of a national court (Ibid.). The IAAF’s legal representatives advised the IAAF to refrain from appealing the decision as the English Court could block the IAAF bank accounts. However, rather than following this advice, the IAAF Council voted by nine votes to eight votes to defend the IAAF Congress decision and to appeal against the judgement of the English Court (Ibid.).

The developments within the broader Olympic Movement eventually triggered further process in the IAAF. In June 1979, the IOC Executive Board suggested to the IOC members the recognition of the PRC’s Olympic Committee under the name of Chinese Olympic Committee (COC) and to maintain the recognition of the Olympic Committee located in Taipei under the name of Chinese Taipei Olympic Committee (CTOC). The CTOC was also given the condition to adopt a different anthem and flag from the one previously used...
under the name of Republic of China (IAAF, 1979c). This regulation came into force under what is known as the “Nagoya Resolution” at the IOC Executive Board meeting in October 1979. Paulen reported to the IAAF Council about the developments in the IOC and urged the IAAF to come to the same proposals (Ibid.). Simultaneously to the processes in the IOC, the IAAF continued its legal fight with the ROCTFA. The IAAF’s appeal was still awaiting hearing in mid-1980 when on the IOC-level, the CTOC still had not accepted the Nagoya Resolution. Similarly, in the IAAF, the ROCTFA only accepted under protest the PRC membership and continued to use the old flag and anthem of China (IAAF, 1980). However, for the IAAF, the main aspect was the membership of the AAPRC. This is clearly stated by Paulen, who argued that

“[…] the People’s Republic of China was back in the IAAF and at all costs we had to maintain that Membership. Of Taiwan was not willing to accept the conditions that Council and Congress laid down for their Membership, then they must leave the IAAF.” (Ibid., p. 12)

Despite the IOC under new President Juan Antonio Samaranch becoming more proactive, the IAAF Council did not want to be policed by the IOC when another significant step towards a solution was made in March 1981 (IAAF, 1981b) and Taiwan accepting the IOC’s conditions for readmission (National Policy Foundation, 2007; Tang, 2008). A few days before, the IAAF Council decided to adopt the title Chinese-Taipei Track and Field Association (CTTFA) and to drop its appeal against the English Court decision (IAAF, 1981b). In order to allow for this decision, the IAAF had to change its Constitutional Rules to change from flags of “countries” to flags of “delegations/federations” such as the IOC had done. The IAAF 1981 Special Congress approved this proposal unanimously (IAAF, 1981a) and allowed an application of the procedure already for the emerging IAAF mega-events such as the IAAF World Championships. From this point onwards, the CTTFA remained an IAAF member.

The brief historical contextualization on the CTTFA’s re-integration into the IAAF highlights the political dimension of the debates in international athletics. It appears that the IAAF officials were solely concerned about the Federation’s sport political and political relationship with numerous nations from the Asian continent, especially Mainland China. This is not surprising as the IAAF considered the Asian market as a major platform to promote the sport of athletics from the end of the 1970s onwards (Krieger, 2016). Significantly, the IAAF did not consider decisive criteria such as organizational structures of the federation or transparent processes. Rather, the debate was reduced to the political discussion. This is an important result when investigating aspects of governance as attempted in the following.

**Internal History of the CTAA**

Against the historical background of Taiwan’s reintegration into the international athletics community, it is necessary to briefly outline the national context before exploring governance standards. Zooming into Taiwan, the development of sports associations depended – and still depends today – heavily on the politics of the central government. In particular the financial resources allocated by the government regulate the scope of action for the different sports. This accounts especially for the phase before the 1970s. Before the CTAA was officially formed as CTTFA in 1973 (it changed its name to Chinese Taipei Athletics Association in 2015 and we will use today’s abbreviation in the following), athletics was run by an Athletic Committee under the authority of the NOC and the China National Amateur Athletic Federation (renamed in Republic of China Sports Federation in 1966) (Lei, 2007). However, it is only with the foundation of the CTAA that administrative and technical processes related to athletics in Taiwan began to form and the professionalization of management structures was accelerated after the re-integration into the IAAF. Under the strong leadership of CTAA President Tiwu Wang (1973-1989), the CTAA adopted a unitary managed-system to operate its affairs. During his time in office, Wang cooperated closely with General Secretary Cheng Chi, bronze medallist in the 80m hurdles at the 1968 Mexico City Olympic Games. Their main aim was to establish a basic environment for the development of athletics in Taiwan. The CTAA made use of the knowledge provided through the IAAF. In 1963, the first athletics seminar took place in Taiwan with 88 national judges. In 1976, a national training center for outstanding athletes was established (Lei, 2007). Hence, a very centralized management system led by a few influential individuals resulted in an increase in the popularity of athletics during this early phase of the CTAA (Lei, 2007). At the same time, the detected dependence on few people points towards the lack of governance standards employed. Therefore, in the following, we aim to apply IAAF governance standards to examine CTAA governance model, and to understand its development until today.

**The Development of Governance Standards in the IAAF and the CTAA until today**

In the next step, we investigate the development of IAAF organizational structures and compare them with relevant processes in the CTTA. This is necessary in order to create the international framework
in which the CTAA is currently situated. The focus will be on the time period after the re-installation of the CTAA into the IAAF.

**Presidential Power**

From the establishment of the IAAF as the leading organization in the field of athletics in 1912 onwards, the role of the President had been essential in defining the Federation’s key policies (Krieger, 2018). Whilst the Federation developed within an increasingly professional international sport system, the role of the president had remained unchanged until the latest governance structure reform that led to a significant reduction of the president’s authority. The lack of attention to this issue resulted in the misuse of presidential power over various decades, reflected in the IAAF’s dealings with doping, amateurism and corruption.

In the CTAA most past Presidents were businesspersons. As entrepreneurs, they can grant individual financial contributions to the federation. These sums are largely used to support the development of athletics in Taiwan (CTAA, 2018). In fact, the investigated documents reveal that it is even expected from the CTAA President to support the Federation financially. This is a significant finding as it appears to make the national federation somewhat dependent on the President. As a result, conflict of interests may occur that obstruct the implementation of transparent and democratic decision-making processes.

Figure 1 demonstrates the governmental structure of CTAA, in which the President is serving under general assembly and board members. There seems to be a degree of influence from the CTAA President on board members (CTAA Constitution, Article 18). This can be illustrated at the latest presidential election process. During the campaign, former President Thomas Tsai showed great support towards candidate Chen-Yen Yeh to become the next CTAA President (Wu, 2018). Hence, while there is no information available on the misuse of presidential power in the CTAA, the detected processes do not point toward good-governance conform structures. Nevertheless, the IAAF governance reform that reduces the sole responsibility for the IAAF President, did not make an immediate impact on the CTAA’s statutes.

**Figure 1 CTAA Governance Structure**

Adapted from CTAA governance structure (CTAA, 2018)

**Area Representative Voice**

Whilst the different areas in the IAAF played a crucial role in the discussions surrounding Taiwan’s re-integration into the Federation, the increasing number of member federations still felt the need for more voting power in the 1980s. Previously, the IAAF had grouped its member federations and awarded different voting rights. In 1987, the IAAF Congress voted for the re-introduction of the “one country one vote system” to allow for greater influence for all member federations (IAAF, 1987). The Area Representatives remained permanent members of the IAAF Council and this was not changed through the latest reform process. Rather, it appears that the modifications see the further strengthening of the areas and therewith the majority of its members. Therewith the IAAF strongly considers its universal reach.
The membership of the CTAA can be classified to two categories: individual members, who are registered personally, and group members, who act on behalf of their respective regional federation (CTAA Constitution, 2017). Whilst there has not been a direct response to the IAAF reform, a significant change took place in 2017 when the central government demanded from sport organizations to open the membership to people from the public. As a result, the CTAA organized its first general assembly with new members registered from the public in March 2018. This makes the background of the CTAA members much more diverse than previously.

The election processes in the CTAA are secret ballots. With the latest election in March 2018, a total of 35 directors (consisting of seven athletes, eleven individual members, and 17 group members) and 11 supervisors (consisting of CTAA members) were elected from a list of registered candidates at the CTAA General Assembly. The directors and supervisors hold office for a term of four years and are eligible for re-election. The CTAA President, who is elected from the board of the 35 directors, and the re-election of the CTAA President is limited to one time. With the exception of the secretary general, who is appointed by the president, the board of directors recruits and approves CTAA staffs. Once employed, all details of staffs must be reported to the Ministry of Interior and Ministry of Education, which is the political body dealing with sport in Taiwan (CTAA 2017; CTAA 2018; Ministry of Education, 2017).

**Greater Voice for Athletes**

The integration of athletes into decision-making processes in sport organizations has become an important element of sport governance in recent years. Like in most sport organizations, athletes were not integrated into the IAAF’s sport political processes for the majority of the 20th century. Even though the IAAF Council debated the option to establish an Athletes’ Commission to avoid confrontation from the athletes in the mid-1980s, the IAAF did not install such body until 1989. In the following years, the body occupied an advisory role without any decision-making power. Only under the presidency of Sebastian Coe did the Federation finally include athletes as key stakeholders. Since 2016, the Chair of the IAAF Athletes’ Commission has been given an ex-officio seat on the IAAF Council. At the invitation of Coe, the Commission’s Chairperson now attends and fully participates in all IAAF Council meetings.

In its early development, the CTAA recruited several former athletes to contribute to the sport political processes. Therewith it was in line with international policies that did not foresee any inclusion of athletes, who are still active. Consequently, it is not surprising that of the current CTAA Directors who are on the Executive Board, 80% are former athletes (CTAA, 2018). Sporting background is a vital advantage in order to become an influential sport administrators in Taiwan. In 2018, the athlete directors, who together serve in a similar function as that of an athletes’ commission, were introduced in 2018 (CTAA, 2018). Significantly, rather than following the IAAF strategy, the initiative was triggered from a requirement of the central government. Therewith it fulfills a significant aspect of general good governance principles (Geeraert, 2016). The inclusion of athletes does not mean that no challenging issues arise. Rather, the athletes themselves ask, for example, for more transparency in the selection of athletes for the national squads. A significant topic that has been raised by the athletes and requires immediate attention is that of career transition. The athletes argue that the focus in national athletics is solely on performance but transition into a professional career following athletic retirement is a major challenge. Criticism target on central government body in Taiwan as the athletes demand more strategic planning to cultivate athletes and to safeguard welfare for retiring athletes as acknowledging their contributions to athletics development in the future (RUNiROUND, 2017; Tseng, 2016).

Consequently, the national athletes are represented in the CTAA but doubts remain whether they are actually involved in decision-making processes. It appears that they are still marginalized as the key decisions are still made without the inclusion of athletes. This confirms previous research findings that argued that few governing bodies of sport went beyond the installation of athletes’ commissions/committees with little influence in policy-making (Houlihan, 2004; Jackson & Ritchie, 2007).

**Gender Balance**

The IAAF’s history in the inclusion of women on the sporting field and on the sport political level is controversial (Pieper, 2016; Carpentier & Lefevre, 2006). As a result, it took until the 1990s when a development towards more inclusion of women into the top executive level began. In 1995, two women, Nawal El Moutawakel (Morocco) and Abby Hoffman (Canada), were voted onto the IAAF Council for the first time (Matthews, 2012). With its new constitution in 2000, the IAAF regulated that at least two members of the IAAF Council had to be women (IAAF, 2000). This number has continued to increase up until the newest governance reform. From 2019, there will be two vice-presidents of each gender and from 2023, there must be 13 members from both sexes on the IAAF Council (IAAF, 2016c).
In the CTAA, there are no specific regulations for including women into top position. However, it is notable that, Cheng Chi had a leadership position in the CTAA ever since the national federation was formed in 1973. Chi had been a successful Olympic athlete, winning the bronze medal in the 80 meters hurdle event at the 1968 Mexico City Olympic Games. In 1989, Chi became the first female CTAA President and served in this position until 1993. Chi was also included in the IAAF Athletes Commission in 1991. Hence, she also had a say on the development of athletics on the international level. The case of Chi is extraordinary and must be attributed to her sporting success. In fact, therewith CTAA adopted a similar policy than the IAAF, in which former athletes – even though they were mostly male – occupied leadership positions. Whilst Chi’s case serves as a positive example of female inclusion in the CTAA, it is important not to generalize. There is no gender balance in the current CTAA Board of Directors. More than 70% of the board members are male as no strategies and policies are in place to enhance female board membership. Additionally, when reviewing the name list of CTAA’s Board Members, the willingness for women to join the election of CTAA’s Board Members is consistently low (Lei, 2007; CTAA, 2018). In contrast to the NOC, the CTAA does not have a Women’s Committee (Chinese Taipei Olympic Committee, 2018).

The IAAF with its newest reforms tries to address the gender inequality on the organizational level. Considering the ambiguous history, the reform is in this regard a big step through which the IAAF will also hope to set an example for other sport organizations. With the exception of former President Chi, the CTAA still has considerable work to do to meet gender equality in its decision-making process. Therewith, the CTAA is not alone. Recent research has shown that women’s participation in sports governance is a serious challenge around the globe (Adriaanse, 2016).

**Independent Anti-Doping Regulations**

The IAAF has always been at the forefront of the international anti-doping fight. In 1928, the IAAF was the first Federation to define doping and forbid the usage of performance-enhancing substances (Vietenniemi, 2007). In the 1970s and 1980s, the IAAF Medical Committee was influential in setting up a network of anti-doping laboratories under its Chairman Arne Ljungqvist (Sweden) (Krieger, 2014). Nevertheless, doping scandals occurred during the entire history of athletics, most importantly the Ben Johnson scandal from 1988 and the GDR’s doping system. Since the installation of the World Anti-Doping Agency (WADA), the IAAF has worked together with WADA but the latest doping scandal in and around Russia highlights the deficits in the Federation’s anti-doping attempts. Hence, the latest governance reform process must also be seen as a reaction to the lack of anti-doping initiatives. The new Athletics Integrity Unit oversees the entire anti-doping mechanisms in athletics.

As member of the IAAF, the CTAA must follow the IAAF requirements to enforce anti-doping mechanisms. In the CTAA, the section of International Affairs deals with the communication of requests from the IAAF or other anti-doping authorities such as the NOC or WADA. Taiwan’s National Sports Act also regulates the doping control activities to which the CTAA must refer. According to Article 24, the sport organizations are not only responsible for testing but also deal with control education, advocacy, counseling, and prevention. This points towards a more holistic anti-doping approach as demanded by the international authorities. It is difficult to find any transparent records of doping offenses in Taiwanese athletics – it appears on first view that there are very few positive doping cases. These cases did not get a lot of public attention. The most discussed doping incident was that of female marathon runner Yu-fang Hsu, who was selected for the CTAA’s Olympic team of the 2016 Rio Olympic Games. (CTAA, 2016). Hsu, Taiwan's national record holder in the marathon, was tested positive for a diuretic. This was already Hsu’s second positive doping test, having already been banned for two years in 2011 (CTAA, 2018).

**Integrity and External Control Mechanisms**

As in many sport organizations, the legal autonomy of the IAAF facilitated the possibility to deal with aspects of integrity internally. Hence, no external control mechanisms were put into place in the IAAF’s early structures. On the sport political level, no measures against potential corruption were undertaken until the 2000s. This is despite the fact that there were issues of integrity amongst individual IAAF members and refusal of external influence (Krieger, 2017). It was the IOC 2000 Reform following the Salt Lake City scandal that led to increased institutionalization and harmonization of governance policies and control mechanisms in international sport that also impacted the IAAF (Dichter & Kidd, 2014). The IAAF followed the IOC’s lead when it introduced its first Code of Ethics in 2014. The Code of Ethics pertained for the first time in the IAAF’s history rules concerning conflicts of interest for IAAF officials (Ibid., p. 99). The IAAF Ethics Commission, also installed in 2014, was the body selected to oversee all aspects of the Code of Ethics. Following the governance structure reform, the Athletics Integrity Unit oversees a newly established Integrity Code.
In 2016, the Sports Administration of Taiwan’s Ministration of Education implemented evaluation projects to audit sport organizations (Ministry of Education Sport Administration, 2017). The initiative aimed to active external control mechanisms in attempt to supervise and investigate the performances of each sport organizations in Taiwan. Significantly, the Ministry cooperated with an external company, the Taiwan Assessment and Evaluation Association (TWAEA), which is a non-profit organization specialized in evaluation services (TWAEA, n.d.), the CTAA was subject to external control if rather with regards to performance than aspects of integrity. Moreover, the National Sports Act, Article 36, deals with the rules of conduct in national sport organizations in Taiwan. In contrast to the regulations on the international level, therein only athletes and coaches and their behavior are regulated, however. Sport officials do not appear to be part of any integrity rules (Ministration, 2017). An explanation for this omission could be that no corruption cases in Taiwanese sport organizations are reported to date and there is little concern about such a threat in the CTAA. In addition, the inclusion of former athletes in CTAA top-positions may explain the lack of rules as corruption is usually not attributed to former athletes. The case – on the international level – of former IAAF Athletes Commission Chair Frankie Fredericks, Olympic medalist in the sprint, draws a different picture, however (Athletics Integrity Unit, 2017).

Readjustment of Finance Management/Control

The commercialization of athletics that occurred in the 1980s, following the CTAA’s reintegration, proved highly successful for the IAAF financially. However, the responsibility for the expanding budget remained in the hands of a few individuals. It was only at the beginning of the 1990s that the substantially increased financial dimension of modern athletics led to an expansion of the IAAF administration from the end of the 1980s until today. However, little dispersion of responsibility at the top-level of the IAAF occurred throughout this period. With the new reform, the IAAF Executive Board now appoints a finance subcommittee that together with professional staff will manage the finance function of the Federation. The IAAF also introduced external financial audits of finance that are to be reported to the IAAF Congress on an annual basis from 2019 onwards (IAAF, 2016c).

The CTAA does not depend heavily on payments through the IAAF. The two main financial resources that support the national athletics development are grants from CTAA president and the financial flow from the Sport Administration of the Ministry of Education. It is also possible to split those resources into different tasks. The CTAA president’s grant is mainly used for the CTAA’s administration whereas the state-provided financial benefits are going into the sporting activities such as the competitions and the training facilities (Budget). In addition to the two main resources, CTAA receives little financial support from the NOC. However, athletes can apply centrally to the IOC for Olympic Solidary. Finally, there are commercial sponsors with Nike being the CTAA’s top sponsor since 2018 (SET News, 2017). The usage of the financial resources is checked by the CTAA’s members (in the general meeting) and the government. According to the National Sports Act, the sport organizations are further required to implement an internal financial monitoring system and to make transparent the annual budget, final accounts and government agencies to subsidize the funds (Article 34). The CTAA budget was a total of around $2.1 million (2017) and $1.6 million (2018) respectively.

Conclusion & Suggestions

This study aimed to contextualize the CTAA’s situation in the IAAF historically and to examine CTAA’s governance model against the background of the latest IAAF governance reform. The tendencies detected within the international bodies’ management correspond with the CTAA to some degree. Nevertheless, one should refrain from comparing the two sport organizations. The IAAF obviously acts in different financial and organizational dimensions than the CTAA and it was not our intention to compare the two federations. The IAAF as the capacity to separate its governance structure into different functional areas, and each functional area still can have substantial resources to maintain its activities. On the contrary, if this kind of governance structure is applied on the national level in a country with considerably less resources, it might prove challenging to govern various divisions efficiently. Hence, the CTAA must adjust to the national circumstances that have grown historically. That said, it is possible for the CTAA to follow the “governance standards” but the recommendations are provided less by the IAAF but rather through the government and the NOC.

We started out this article by highlighting through a historical review the challenging process of re-integrating the CTAA into the global athletics movement. We did so to demonstrate on the basis of empirical findings that each national federation’s context is different: cultural, political, economic and geographical differences apply. This is important to understand the difficulties that the IAAF is facing when attempting to draft universal regulations for organizational structures. The IAAF has shown awareness for this fact
already as the newest governance structure reform is not compulsory for the member federations as outlined in the introduction.

Our study also supports various theoretical approaches and previous findings by researchers when considering the individual categories analyzed. In particular, the CTAA’s challenges to address good governance principles are comparable to those of other governing bodies of sport (Geeraert, 2016). In this regard it is necessary to highlight that the CTAA’s development continued in recent months. In 2018, the CTAA published new information about its reforms. Five goals for the national level and four goals for its international activities can be identified:

Table 1 CTAA Latest Strategic Goals (CTAA, 2018)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>5 Goals for National Level</th>
<th>4 Goals for International Level</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>(1) Forming marketing and planning sections to develop CTAA’s sustainable strategies.</td>
<td>(1) Cultivating more international level athletes to make better Athletics performance.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(2) Boosting Marathon Industry to generate more revenue.</td>
<td>(2) Hosting larger scale of international competition such as Asian championship to gain more international attention.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(3) Establishing Athletics educational committee to cultivate grass roots level for Athletics development.</td>
<td>(3) Educating more human resources to support international sport affairs.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(4) Improving management system for membership towards coaches, judges, and athletes to balance the resources allocation for each role.</td>
<td>(4) Inviting international Athletics coaches or athletes to make further cooperation.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(5) Enhancing Athletics performance for future Olympic Games to win more medals.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Those strategic goals are indicating the future direction of the CTAA’s governance. Significantly, measurement tools remain missing, as these could not be detected within the framework of this research. In particular, Key Performances Indicators (KPIs) and the CTAA’s documentation are unclear. For example, before 2018, it is difficult to obtain the CTAA reports and there is little information on the CTAA board members’ background and the election process available. Furthermore, the related public documents were mostly about regulations for competition rules. This is a major limitation to our study. We also encourage researchers to examine other national athletics associations to compare the applicability of the IAAF’s new governance principles.

Finally, we would like to provide suggestions for future strategies for the CTAA’s organizational structures. Whilst our findings demonstrate the need for an applicable and individual governance concept, general guidelines can provide guidance to the CTAA. In particular, the core elements of good governance that are used to construct indicators for measurement of good governance of sport organizations should be carefully considered by the CTAA (Geeraert, 2016). Therewith it might not follow completely the IAAF’s blueprint but at the very least the applicability of the elements can be tested. Of course, such application requires openness to reform from the side of the CTAA. We believe that such openness can develop into major benefit for the federation and strengthen its place within the international Athletics community.

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Influence of Team Identification on Sense of Community in Local Sport Teams: Focusing on a High School Gymnastics Team in a Gymnastics-City

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The purpose of this research is to examine the influence of Team Identification on Sense of Community in local residents and the moderating effects of the relationship. Regarding the setting of this research, the respondents were residents of Sabae city and the target team was the Sabae prefectural high school gymnastics team. The research method consisted of two steps. First, interviews were conducted with the local government sports department staff in order to adapt a Team Identification scale to a high school level. Second, questionnaires were distributed to 500 local residents in public facilities. Data was analyzed using descriptive statistics, confirmatory factor analysis, and regression analysis to examine the relationship between Team Identification, the independent variable and Sense of Community, the dependent variable. Furthermore, two-factor analysis of variance was conducted to examine the moderating effect of demographics on the relationship between Team Identification and Sense of Community. The results showed that Team Identification had an impact on Sense of Community and demographics moderate the relationship. The impact of Team Identification on Sense of Community was stronger for older residents than for younger residents. These findings have implications for local governments concerned with revitalizing communities through the promotion of sport.

Key Words: sport promotion, sport team, community, regional development

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Introduction

Japan is a developed country with an aging population and a low birth rate. It has been suggested that many Japan’s municipalities are in decline. This has prompted the Government to formulate a comprehensive community development strategy. Many local governments in Japan have chosen to restore and implement community building through sport. The Future Investment Strategy 2017 was set up to change the sports industry into a growth industry. Specifically, the government’s growth strategy indicates a goal of increasing the Gross Domestic Sports Product (GDSP) from $50 billion to $150 billion. Also, the Japan Sports Agency enacted the 2nd Basic Act on Sport in 2017. One of its core policies is to use sport to create a thriving society with people connected through powerful bonds. Thus, to address the unfolding challenges, local governments regard sports resources as a key element of community. This will contribute to the revitalization of local and regional economies and create a united and thriving society.

The impact of sports promotion was previously divided into two, economic, and social. Yamaguchi (2004) clarified the impact of sports promotion into three types, economic, social, and personal. Suda (1994) examined social integration effects and collective representation effects and found that social attributes of sports are a foundation of identification among residents. The national survey (MEXT, 2013) showed that the impact of regional sports promotion on residents was most expected for “the thriving and developing of the regional community (40.6%)”. These show that sports promotion is an important aspect of regional revitalization. In fact, municipalities are trying to revitalize their towns by promoting sport. 8% of local governments have declared themselves a Sport-City (Sasakawa Sports Foundation, 2014). Sport cities typically have professional or high school teams that have achieved excellent results.

Sport teams generate positive impacts on a community. Sport teams could develop a sense of community among followers (Fujimoto et al., 2012; Clopton, 2008). Sport followers’ identification with a team positively impacted attachment to their hometown (Chang et al., 2016; Kan et al., 2018). Their attachment to a specific team contributed to regional attachment. Though most research targeted professional or top sport teams, only bigger municipalities have them. We need to focus on the possibility that other levels of sports teams (i.e., community, high school) impacts on communities, as well, in order to revitalize middle or small cities through sport teams. This study clarifies the role of sport team in a community and should contribute to local government policies concerned with revitalizing a community through sport promotion.
Literature Review

Team Identification

Sport teams play important roles in the revitalization of regional and local areas. Sport teams serve to not only unify a region but also bring significant psychological benefits. The relationship between sport teams and individuals is explained by team identification. Team identification has been described as a measure of an individual’s psychological attachment to a sport team and provides an individual with a sense of belonging and attachment to a larger social structure (Wann and Branscombe, 1993).

Team identification is based on a social identity theory. Social identification refers to “that part of the individuals' self-concept, which derives from their knowledge of their membership of a social group(s) together with the value and emotional significance of that membership” (Tajfel, 1981, p. 255). Social identification is divided into personal identity and social identity. Social identity derived from organizational identification could have a significant impact on the attitude and behavior of the individual (Hogg and Abrams, 1988). Sports management scholars adapted this concept to the relationship between a fan and a sport team, and has become known as Team Identification. Funk and James (2001) developed the Psychological Continuum Model (PCM), which indicated that individuals experience a psychological connection with sports or a sport team. Specifically, the individual’s psychological connection to a team moves from awareness to attraction, attachment, and allegiance.

Team Identification occurs on a number of different levels. For example, the most frequently given example of Team Identification is that of college sport teams (Heere and James, 2007b; Collins et al., 2016; Clifton and Finch, 2010; Heere et al., 2011). Other research has been almost exclusively targeted on Olympic national teams (Woong et al., 2015), NFL teams (Collins et al., 2016), and MLB teams (James et al., 2002). In Japan, most studies targeted professional or top sport teams like J. League (Matsuoka et al., 2003; Fujimoto et al., 2012). Studies of Team Identification have been limited to these research subjects, although there are other levels of sport, which provide people with Team Identification. Very little has been written on different types of teams other than professional or top sport teams.

In addition, target populations were mostly limited to college students, spectators and fan clubs. Few studies have targeted populations such as residents in a regional area, except for, Kan et al. (2018) and Fujimoto et al. (2014). We assumed that residents would be identified with a team symbolically representative of a regional area. Even if one doesn’t watch games, psychological attachment to the team can exist (James et al., 2002). Moreover, even if they know little about the team, people can appropriately evaluate the team (Heere and Katz, 2014) because the team is symbolically representative of the regional area. Even without the knowledge or experience of a team, symbolic representation allows people to develop Team Identification. This social aspect of Team Identification allowed us to adapt a questionnaire to a more general target population, the residents of a regional area.

Sense of Community

Much has been written about the concept of community. MacIver (1917) defined community as an area of common life; the area must be somehow distinguished from other areas and common life must have some distinguishing characteristics. Hillery (1955) analyzed ninety-four descriptions of community. He found that there was no accord as to the definition of community; however, he found three common concepts, area, common ties, and social interaction. Communities are not limited to specific geographical areas or living environments but more to the values and consciousness of participants. Therefore, community has basically two different types of communities other than professional or top sport teams.

In Japan, there are two concepts regarding attitude toward community; Community Consciousness and Sense of Community. Community Consciousness has so far only been investigated for regional communities (e.g. Ishimori, 2007). In studies about Sense of Community, not only regional community but also relational community has been looked at (e.g. Sarason, 1974; McMillan and Chavis, 1986). Sense of Community was defined by Sarason (1974) as “a perception of similarity to others, an acknowledged interdependence with others, and a willingness to maintain this interdependence” (p. 157). Later, McMillan defined Sense of Community as “a feeling that members have of belonging, a feeling that members matter to one another and to the group, and a shared faith that members’ needs will be met through their commitment to be together” (cited in McMillan and Chavis, 1986, p. 9). Furthermore, McMillan and Chavis (1986) developed a Sense of Community Index (SCI) of 4 factors with 3 indicators each, needs fulfillment, membership, influence, and emotional connection. The SCI was most influential in constructing the Sense of Community but some authors raised questions about the validity of the SCI.

Obst and White (2004) modified the original SCI into 4 factors but with 10 indicators. Peterson et al. (2008) also supported SCI’s, 4 factor structure. However, Chipuer and Pretty (1999) showed that indicators didn’t converge in McMillan and Chavis’s model and recommended regarding the SCI as one-factor. In Japan, Sugawara et al. (2009) used an SCI and adapted it with 11 indicators and 3 factors, attachment, shared
values, and relationships with neighbors. Prezza (2009) developed the Multidimensional Territorial Sense of Community Scale (MTSOCS), which consisted of membership, shared influences, social climate and bonds, help in case of need, and needs fulfillment. This scale was applicable to various sized of communities; towns, cities, and metropolitan areas. Thus, the Sense of Community scale was not a stable construct and was different depending on the context; country, community, or group. There was a need to develop a Sense of Community scale which ensured validity and reliability.

Some authors adapted the Sense of Community to the sports field. Previously, Swyers (2005) and Lyons and Dionigi (2007) enhanced the Sense of Community in sport with concepts such as shared spaces, camaraderie, and shared sport interest. Warner and Dixon (2013) have applied the concept of Sense of Community in the field of college sports. Their findings identified 5 factors: administrative consideration, leadership opportunities, equity in administrative decisions, competition, and social spaces. Darren and Dixon (2011) clarified that a football program fostered a Sense of Community on campus. Clopton (2008) found a relationship between Team Identification and Sense of Community on campus. Though sport teams could have social integration effects and collective representation effects among residents (Suda, 1994), almost all previous studies on Sense of Community in the sport field were limited to people who participated in sport teams or programs, or belonged to school, not regional community residents. Through this empirical study, we have expanded the concept of Sense of Community in the sport field.

Theoretical Framework and Research Questions

There are several studies about the relationship between Team Identification and its psychological benefits to a community. Sport teams with elements of the community were obvious from the use of city and state names in team names (Heere and James, 2007a). Wann (2006) suggested a theoretical framework, labeled the Team Identification-Social Psychological Health Model, where identification with a team had the potential to enhance social psychological benefits. Team identification facilitated social and psychological benefits by increasing social connections. Though social capital is a resources flow, not a psychological state like Sense of Community (Boyd and Nowell, 2013), Clopton and Finch (2010) demonstrated that Team Identification positively impacted social capital based on Wann’s theory. Fujimoto et al (2012) clarified that developing Team Identification with a J. League team had an impact on the Sense of Community in hometowns. Clopton (2008) also discovered Team Identification had an impact on Sense of Community. While Fujimoto et al. (2012) targeted the population of spectators, Clopton (2008) selected the campus community as the target population, not the fan community. Thus, they examined whether there was an impact of psychological benefit on the campus community, outside the sport team network. We explored these same relationships, but at the high school level with regional residents as the target population. In the context of a sport city, we measured Team Identification with a high school team and the Sense of Community among the residents. In order to do this, we developed the following research question:

Research Question 1
Does Team Identification with a high school team impact Sense of Community?

While there were studies of relationships between Team Identification and psychological benefits in a community, there has been a lack of studies on the moderating effects of the relationship. As time passage is believed to influence Sense of Community (Chavis et al., 1986), previous research in Japan also clarified that years of residence (Sugawara, 2009) and age (Katagiri and Sugawara, 2010) had impacts on Sense of Community. In the context of the relationship between sport teams and community, Kan et al. (2018) found that as time passes, Team Identification more strongly influenced their attitude toward their community. They clarified that a moderating effect of time passage impacted the relationships. Therefore, we developed the following research questions:

Research Question 2-I
Does age moderate the relationship among residents’ Team Identification and Sense of Community?

Research Question 2-II
Does resident year moderate the relationship among residents’ Team Identification and Sense of Community?

Studies have indicated differences between males and females in terms of Sense of Community. Cicognani et al. (2008) demonstrated that males score higher on Sense of Community compared to females, and identified the reason males experienced a higher sense of belonging to their local community. Prezza and Costantini (1998), on the other hand, found that females obtained higher scores than males in a city
setting. Thus, there were different results in previous studies, depending on the social and cultural contexts. The impacts of Team Identification on Sense of Community can be differentiated based on gender. Chang et al. (2016) indicated that only males had a relationship between team identification and regional attachment. Therefore, we developed the following research question:

**Research Question 3**  
Does gender moderate relationship among residents’ Team Identification and Sense of Community?

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Figure 1. Theoretical framework and research question

Figure 1 shows the theoretical framework and research questions. The purpose of this research was to examine influence of Team Identification on Sense of Community, and the moderating variable effects on the relationship between Team Identification on Sense of Community in Sabae City, Japan.

**Methods**

**Context**  
Sabae City is located in Fukui Prefecture, a little northeast of Kyoto. This city is relatively small, with a population of 63,000 in an area of 84.59 km². Sabae promotes glass, lacquerware, and textiles craftsmanship, and has also put effort into the IT industry. Sabae also promotes itself as a gymnastic city in collaboration with the city government and sport organizations. When Fukui Prefecture held the National Sports Festival in 1968, Sabae Prefectural High School was selected to strengthen its gymnastics program. In 2018 the National Sports Festival was held once again in Fukui Prefecture and Sabae held the gymnastic events. This city also hosted the first Asian Artistic Gymnastics World Championships in 1995, the All Japan Gymnastic Championships, as well as other events. Sabae not only hosted the events but also provided gymnastic subsidies for city projects, such as gymnastic facilities, a coaching allowance, and athletes’ travel costs (Kubo and Yamaguchi, 2017). Sabae Prefectural high school has a gymnastics team and a preference system for gymnastic students. The Sabae Prefectural high school gymnastics team has achieved excellent results so far and is regarded as a representative of Sabae City. Do to this past, Sabae has declared itself a gymnastic city.

**Procedure**  
The research method consisted of two steps. First, interviews were conducted with government sports department staff and sport teams’ staff in order to adapt the Team Identification scale to suit a high school team. We referred to the Team Identification scale developed by Heere and James (2007b), which was later modified for the Japanese context by Fujimoto et al. (2012). Through the interviews, we clarified that the Sense of Interdependence was too strong to adopt for the relationship between regional high school teams and general residents, unlike the previous studies’ relationships between professional or top teams and spectators or fans. An interviewee said, “we are interested in team’s achievement but the results do not affect our life”. Even though residents have attachment to the team, the impact wasn’t strong enough to have an
influence on their lives. Because of this, we removed the ‘Sense of Interdependence’ dimension as in Lock et al. (2014) which deleted this dimension based on theoretical and statistical grounds. We also modified the wording to make it suitable for a high school team. As a result, the Team Identification Scale was comprised of 5 dimensions, all with 3 indicators. For the second step, questionnaires were distributed to the target population, Sabae city residents. To collect a wide range of samples, we asked the Sabae City government to distribute the questionnaires to local residents as well as in the surrounding areas and also collect the questionnaires from as many public facilities as possible.

**Results**

We distributed 500 questionnaires under the support of the local government and 272 (54.4%) residents responded. A total of 251 (50.2%) respondents were used after eliminating 21 respondents because they failed to correctly answer some questions. The 251 respondents consisted of 97 males and 154 females. The average age and number of years living in Sabae were 46.3 years and 34.4 years, respectively. Figure 2 shows the recognition of gymnastic promotion in Sabae. 12.0% of the participants had gymnastic experience. However, 70% of the respondents answered positively questions about gymnastics in Sabae: knowledge of a gymnastics facility, the 1995 world gymnastics championship, getting information about gymnastics in Sabae, and thinking of Sabae as the gymnastic city.

![Figure 2. The Recognition of Gymnastic Promotion in Sabae](image_url)

The Sense of Community and the Team Identification were tested as both having reliability and validity. Table 1 shows a summary of Sense of Community scale. Confirmatory Factor Analysis of Sense of Community (Chavis et al., 1981; Sugawara et al., 2009) demonstrated that two indicators didn’t satisfy the CFA loading factor (> .50). The first indicator, “I expect to live in this community for a long time (.49)” and the second indicator, “people in this community share the same values (.44).” After deleting these 2 factors, the CFA loading factor of all indicators was suitable, ranging from .63 to .85. AVE scores ranged from .54 to .61 meeting convergent validity (Fornell and Larcker, 1981). Regarding reliability, Cronbach’s alpha for the construct ranged from .79 to .81 and composite reliability (CR) met the reference criteria ranging from .76 to .86 (Bagozzi and Yi, 1988). The model data assigned to the Sense of Community scale was $x^2/df=2.98$, GFI=.940 CFI=.947, and RMSEA=.089 (Hair et al., 2010; Browne and Cudeck, 1993). For discriminant validity, all AVE scores exceeded the squared correlations (Table 3).
Table 1. Summary of Sense of Community Scale

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Items</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>β</th>
<th>AVE</th>
<th>CR</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Attachment</strong> ($\alpha=0.81$)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I think this community (C) is a good place for me to live.</td>
<td>4.05</td>
<td>0.85</td>
<td>0.84</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I feel at home in this C.</td>
<td>3.70</td>
<td>0.87</td>
<td>0.85</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>It is very important to me to live in this C.</td>
<td>3.72</td>
<td>0.87</td>
<td>0.63</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I expect to live in this C for a long time. (delete)</td>
<td>4.07</td>
<td>1.00</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Shared Values</strong> ($\alpha=0.79$)</td>
<td>0.56</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>0.87</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>My neighbors and I want the same thing from this C.</td>
<td>2.67</td>
<td>0.86</td>
<td>0.78</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>If there is a problem in this C, people who live here get it solved.</td>
<td>2.80</td>
<td>0.85</td>
<td>0.82</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>People in this C generally get along with one another.</td>
<td>3.56</td>
<td>0.76</td>
<td>0.65</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>People in this C share the same values. (delete)</td>
<td>3.15</td>
<td>0.89</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Relationship with Neighbors</strong> ($\alpha=0.79$)</td>
<td>0.54</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>0.68</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I can recognize most of the people who live in my C.</td>
<td>3.05</td>
<td>1.16</td>
<td>0.77</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Most of my neighbors know me.</td>
<td>2.31</td>
<td>1.09</td>
<td>0.79</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I have influence over what this C is like.</td>
<td>1.90</td>
<td>1.00</td>
<td>0.68</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Also, Table 2 shows that CFA of Team Identification (Heere and James, 2007b; Fujimoto et al., 2012) demonstrated all indicators had factor loading and AVE scores were acceptable. AVE scores exceeded the squared correlations among constructs (Table 3). Regarding the reliability, Cronbach’s alpha and CR were greater than the minimum .60 (Bagozzi and Yi, 1988). The model data assigned to the Team Identification scale of was $x^2/df=3.29$, GFI=.907 CFI=.953, and RMSEA=.096 (Hair et al., 2010; Browne and Cudeck, 1993).

Table 2. Summary of Team Identification Scale

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Items</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>β</th>
<th>AVE</th>
<th>CR</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Cognitive Awareness</strong> ($\alpha=0.88$)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I know the team’s activity in the region.</td>
<td>2.64</td>
<td>1.30</td>
<td>0.82</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I am aware of the tradition and history of the team.</td>
<td>2.90</td>
<td>1.34</td>
<td>0.83</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I have knowledge of the successes and failures of the team.</td>
<td>2.49</td>
<td>1.23</td>
<td>0.88</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Public Evaluation</strong> ($\alpha=0.89$)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Overall, the team is viewed positively by others.</td>
<td>3.70</td>
<td>0.86</td>
<td>0.82</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>In general, others respect the team I am a fan of.</td>
<td>3.46</td>
<td>0.97</td>
<td>0.85</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Overall, people hold a favourable opinion about the team.</td>
<td>3.61</td>
<td>0.88</td>
<td>0.91</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Private Evaluation</strong> ($\alpha=0.89$)</td>
<td>0.76</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>0.93</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I feel good about the team.</td>
<td>4.17</td>
<td>0.79</td>
<td>0.73</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>In general, I’m glad to cheer the team.</td>
<td>3.85</td>
<td>0.94</td>
<td>0.95</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I am proud to think of myself as a fan of the team.</td>
<td>3.68</td>
<td>1.01</td>
<td>0.92</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Interconnection of Self</strong> ($\alpha=0.88$)</td>
<td>0.71</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>0.85</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I have a strong sense of belonging to the team.</td>
<td>3.06</td>
<td>1.04</td>
<td>0.83</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>When someone praise the team, it feels like a personal praise.</td>
<td>3.26</td>
<td>1.20</td>
<td>0.84</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The team’s successes are my successes.</td>
<td>3.17</td>
<td>1.19</td>
<td>0.86</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Behavioral Involvement</strong> ($\alpha=0.88$)</td>
<td>0.70</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>0.84</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I participate in activities supporting the team.</td>
<td>2.69</td>
<td>1.18</td>
<td>0.79</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I try to get the information about competition result of the team.</td>
<td>2.90</td>
<td>1.18</td>
<td>0.91</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I talk about the team with others.</td>
<td>2.32</td>
<td>1.14</td>
<td>0.81</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The first set of research questions was then analyzed using regression to examine to what extent Team Identification affected Sense of Community. The research question determined that Team Identification ($\beta=0.466$, $p<.001$) (RQ1) affecting Sense of Community ($R^2=0.217$) was supported. This finding agreed with past literature, which suggested Team Identification fostered Sense of Community (Clopton, 2008).

Figure 3. Moderating effects of age, resident year and gender on the relationships between Team Identification and Sense of Community

To test the moderating effects of age and resident year through Two-factor analysis of variance (Figure 3), the sample was divided into two groups each by median split following previous studies (the median age was 45 and the median resident year was 36) (Yoshida and Gorden, 2012). While no main effects were found by age ($F_{age} (3,247) =2.57, n.s.$) and resident year ($F_{resident\ year} (3,247) =3.63, n.s.$), interaction was detected between Team Identification and age ($F_{TI, gender} (3,247) =4.97, p<.05$). Furthermore, after the subjects were divided into male and female, we examined the moderating effect of gender. Gender’s ($F_{TI, gender} (3,247), F=10.52, p<.001$) main effect was on Sense of Community, while interaction effect was not found ($F_{TI, gender} (3,247) =0.00, p=n.s.$).

**Discussion**

We proposed and empirically tested the relationship between Team Identification and Sense of Community and found that demographics moderate this relationship. No previous research has explored the
relationship between the two in a high school team context. The aim of this research was to provide an understanding of the construction of Team Identification with a high school team and Sense of Community among the residents of a gymnastic city and to explore the relationship between both concepts. The results supported our research question that Team Identification positively influenced Sense of Community (RQ1). Though age and resident year have no main effect on Sense of Community, interaction between age and Team Identification has a significant impact on the relationship (RQ2). Gender didn’t moderate the relationships between Team Identification and Sense of Community (RQ3).

There was a causal relationship between Team Identification and Sense of Community. We demonstrated that Team Identification with the Sabae Prefectural High School gymnastics team positively impacted Sense of Community among Sabae’s residents. Wann (2006) indicated in his Team Identification-Social Psychological Health model, that Team Identification enhanced social psychological benefits by increasing social connections. In a previous study, Team Identification was also shown to impact social, psychological benefits in a campus community, not a fan community (Clopton, 2008). The current study extends the scope of examination of the relationship to residents in a regional community. As sport teams or sports become symbols of a community (Suda, 1994), the teams would promote shared values and psychological connections. As more than 70% of Sabae residents think of their city as a gymnastic city, we assumed that connection to the Sabae gymnastic team would create values in common. Moreover, connections to a team generated interactions between residents. In fact, having a sport team as a regional topic enhances the opportunity for residents to talk with their friends and neighbors and some even participate in gymnastic events as volunteers. Therefore, they have more opportunities to make relationships through gymnastics. Thus, in the context of a sport city, we discovered a relationship between Team Identification with a high school team and a Sense of Community among residents.

We found that age and resident year weren’t significant main effects, but the interaction effect between age and Team Identification was a significant difference. The impact of Team Identification on Sense of Community was stronger for older residents than for younger residents. While Kan et al. (2018) stated that time passage made Team Identification more strongly influence their attitude toward their community, this study revealed no moderating effect of resident year but only a moderating effect of age on the relationship between Team Identification and Sense of Community. We assume the effect of Team Identification on Sense of Community is attributed to events they had perceived and experienced, not simply a passage of time. Sabae has built its foundation as a gymnastic city starting with the National Sports Festival in 1968 and it now has a history of 50 years (Kubo and Yamaguchi, 2017). Because of age, older residents experienced more events and have had more opportunities to perceive than younger residents. As the result, older residents showed a stronger impact on Sense of Community through Team Identification than younger residents.

We found that gender didn’t moderate the relationship between Team Identification and Sense of Community. This was different from Chang et al. (2016) who found a moderating impact of gender in the relationship between Team Identification and attitude toward their community. Chang et al sampled professional sport spectators through an online survey, whereas this study sampled residents. The gymnastic team in this study was part of the community and the residents could relate to it. Chang et al’s study and this study sampled different populations and different target teams. That there was no moderating effect of gender differences on the relationship in this study is therefore understandable.

Implications and Limitation

This research helps to expand the concept of Team Identification by applying it to a high school team and local residents in a sport city. This sport city emerged after sponsoring a National Sports Festival and the continued support of the local high school gymnastics team. We adapted the Team Identification scale for a high school level as Heere and James (2007b) pointed out that their developed scale could be used for different groups. In fact, this scale has been used in previous studies with other different groups (Heere et al., 2013; Heere and James, 2011). This study’s Team Identification scale is similar to Lock et al’s construct validity. In future research, we will endeavor to improve the validity and reliability of this scale. In addition, we demonstrated the relationship between Team Identification and Sense of Community, and expanded Wann’s theory to the high school level in a sport city. The existing representative team in a regional community has had positive impacts on their community. Furthermore, this study demonstrated moderation effects on the relationship between Team Identification and Sense of Community. The moderating effect of age had a significant impact on the relationship, while the moderating effects of gender and resident year did not.

The findings have implications for local governments hoping to revitalize their community through sport teams. Team Identification influenced attachment to the community and enhanced the residents’ relationships and networks. The managerial implication is that high school teams as sports resources, create
avenues of connection for psychological and physical associations among residents. Residents with attachment to their city through sport would be less likely to move to another city, as this study supports the relationship between Team Identification and Sense of Community. Thus, governments that engage their residents in sport enhance the relationship between residents and their attachment to their city.

We submit that the method of sample collection could be better. Since we used a non-probability sampling technique to cover Sabae residents, the results weren’t representative of the total population. The sample size of the number of males was small (n=97) and much less than females’ (n=154). Because of the small number of male respondents, compared to female, we couldn’t use multiple group structural equation modeling (Hoyle, 1995). The fact that we conducted a one-shot survey in this study, only allowed one data collecting point. Since this data was restricted, we were unable to fully understand the relationship process of Team Identification and Sense of Community. We need to remedy this by collecting more qualitative data (i.e. interviews).

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Reference


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The Influence of Team Brand Associations on Intention to Watch Future Games: The case of a Japan Professional Football League (J.League) Team

Bang An, Munehiko Harada
Waseda University

In the past twenty years, team brand association has been a popular topic in sport management literature. Nevertheless, the previous studies mainly focused on the development of measurement scales, the empirical applications were limited, especially the data from Asia. This paper examined how team brand associations influence the intention to watch future games among different level of behavioral involvement groups. Data were collected from fans who follow a Japanese professional soccer club’s official social media accounts. Three groups were divided according to respondents’ behavioral involvement. The results indicated that pride in place was particularly important for highly involved fans’ intention to watch games while identification and rivalry can uniquely impact moderately involved fans. Identification also influenced lowly involved fans who follow social media accounts but have not watched games. Detailed theoretical and managerial implications are discussed.

Keywords: behavioral involvement, spectators, performance

Introduction

Branding plays an important role for companies that provide intangible experience value to customers (Barry, 2000). Strong brands enable customers to better visualize and understand intangible products, which can reduce customers’ perceived risk in the purchase decision-making process (Erdem, Swait, & Valenzuela, 2006). Since sport organizations deliver unique products whose core elements are often associated with perceived risk such as inconsistency and unpredictability (Mullin, Hardy, & Sutton, 2014), managers should consider strengthening brand equity a key marketing strategy.

Brand equity is developed based on two important components — brand awareness and brand associations (Keller, 1993). Once businesses successfully increase brand awareness, consumers start to develop various brand associations. Consumers develop brand associations based on thoughts and ideas in memory that are linked to target brands (Aaker, 1996; Keller, 1993). Brand associations are then evaluated and contribute to consumers’ brand preferences. Brand associations, therefore, play an essential role in effectively managing brands and attracting consumers (Kapferer, 1997; Ross, James, & Vargas, 2006).

In the field of sport management, scholars have actively investigated the effects of brand associations (the term brand association and brand image are usually used interchangeably in this field) on consumer behaviors by focusing on various research contexts such as sport teams (Bauer, Stockburger-Sauer, & Exler, 2008; Gladden & Funk, 2002; Ross, James, & Vargas, 2006), leagues (Bouzdine-Chameeva, Ferrand, Valette-Florence, & Chanavat, 2015; Kunkel, Funk, & King, 2014), individual athletes (Arai, Ko, & Kaplanidou, 2013; Arai, Ko, & Ross, 2014; Walsh & Williams, 2017). Nevertheless, most studies focused on the development of concept and measurement scales, the empirical applications especially from Asian regions have been scarce.

Furthermore, market segmentation is a particularly important task for the business success (Dickson & Ginter, 1987). It can inform managers as to how they effectively execute marketing activities, and behavioral involvement is practical indicator for market segmentation. As the technology development nowadays, sport teams could easily identify customers’ behavioral involvement via digital channels like websites, smartphone applications and so forth, which can help marketers locate the target group with ease.

Hence, drawing on the previous literature on team brand associations, the current study investigated the relationships between brand associations and fans’ behavioral intention in Japanese professional soccer team, and furthermore examined if each brand association factor can uniquely impact fans depending on the level of behavioral involvement. The current study shed lights on brand associations of Japanese soccer fans to contribute to the growing body of team brand association literature.

Literature Review

Team brand associations

Brand associations contain the meaning of the brand for consumers (Keller, 1993). They can be classified into attributes and benefits in sport management literature (Gladden & Funk, 2002). Scholars started to use brand equity concept to explain team brand from the end of 1990’s (Gladden, Milne, & Sutton,
Several studies have developed the measurement scales for team brand associations. The initial effort made by Gladden and Funk (2002), developed the Team Association Model (TAM) by collecting data from subscribers to an American weekly national sports magazine. TAM focuses on 13 factors to understand team brand associations (e.g., success, star player, head coach, management). Ross and colleagues (2006) later developed the Team Brand Association Scale (TBAS) by considering team brand associations from customers’ perspective. TBAS consists of 11 dimensions of brands associations (e.g., rivalry, concessions, social interaction, team history, commitment). Bauer, et al. (2008) discussed the drawbacks of TAM and TBAS, as TAM is too complex that lack of practicability and TBAS could not differentiate attributes and benefits, and then used a refined measurement scale which consists of 16 constructs (e.g., identification, peer-group acceptance, escape, socializing, emotions, nostalgia).

Scholars in the field of sport management employed the above scales to further understand brand associations in various research contexts (Funk & James, 2006; Kunkel, Doyle, Funk, Du, & McDonald, 2016; Kunkel, Funk, & Lock, 2017; Ross, 2007). For example, incorporating the brand association scales introduced above, Funk and James (2006) examined the relationship between brand associations and team allegiance, and identified the role of attachment as a mediator. Biscaia and colleagues (2013) examined the impact of team brand associations on behavioral intentions of Portuguese soccer fans and confirmed the significant impact of brand associations on consumer satisfaction and behavioral intentions. Kunkel and colleagues (2016) investigated how brand associations of a new team can influence fans’ loyalty over time. Utilizing a longitudinal research design in Australian soccer as a context, it was found that initially developed brand associations demonstrated the largest impact on fans’ brand loyalty than updated brand associations in a later time (consumers update brand association based on added experiences with a focal team). Another study in Australian soccer context, also conducted by Kunkel and colleagues (2017), demonstrated that the relationship between team brand associations and fans’ behavioral intentions (i.e., game attendance and TV consumption) are mediated by superordinate brand (i.e., league). These empirical studies contributed to the knowledge base in the sport management field by incorporating the brand extension scales.

However, the uses of brand association scales have been inconsistent depending on research contexts. Aaker and colleagues (2001), in fact, argue that consumers’ brand perceptions are sensitively influenced by the research context. Based on this argument, scholars’ inconsistent uses of various brand association scales. Nevertheless, previously developed brand association scales actually consist of the same, if not notably similar, factors such as manangement, logo, and history (Bauer et al., 2008; Biscaia et al., 2013; Gladden and Funk, 2002). To simplify the conceptual similarities and avoid redundancies, the current study carefully incorporated 11 factors from previous literature – performance, management, team, logo, history, rivalry, sponsor, fan, socializing, identification, and pride in place (see Table 1).

Previous studies proposed several performance-related factors such as success, team play, and product delivery (Bauer et al., 2008; Gladden & Funk, 2002; Ross et al., 2006). These factors can be redundant as no matter the team’s success in competition or their play style, they are the team’s performance on the field. Therefore, these factors could be merged to focus on performance. It is considered as the core product that the team provides (Yoshida & James, 2010). According to Berry (2000), service companies with strong brand equity provide a service that customers truly value and perform it better than competitors. And service performers are a powerful medium for building brand meaning and equity. Based on this description, if performance is the product (service), then team is considered as service performer. It refers to not only individual players, but also team members as a whole. Management is considered an important team attribute (Gladden & Funk, 2002). If performance is the performance on the field, management is the performance off the field. Logo and history are also important attributes of sport teams, the two factors are consistent in previous studies (Bauer et al., 2008; Gladden & Funk, 2002; Ross et al., 2006). Rivalry was not included in the scales developed by Gladden and Funk (2002), but it was considered crucial in customer-based brand association (Ross et al., 2006). In fact, the effects of rivalry on fans behaviors have been confirmed elsewhere (Havard, 2014; Mills, Tainsky, Green, & Leopky, 2018). Bauer et al. (2008) defined sponsor or owner as a non-product related attribute. The factor was dropped in their study, as it could not be retained in a factor analysis procedure. Nevertheless, sponsor or owner has strong presence in professional sport industry in Asia. In Japan and China, most professional teams have their owner companies’ names in their teams’ names. Such as Guangzhou Evergrande (a Chinese football club, Evergrande is an owner company name), and Yomiuri Giants (a Japanese baseball team, Yomiuri is an owner company name). Although J.Leauge, our research context, does not allow companies’ name appear in teams’ names, but the biggest sponsor of the club actually owns clubs in reality. This could be a uniqueness of Asian sport teams compared to European and American professional sports. Therefore, sponsor could be a very important component of team brand association in Asian sport contexts. Fan was identified as an important brand association in Bauer et al. (2008)’s study. In fact, Keller (1993) also defined user imagery as an important non-product related attribute of the brand. The fans of the team are what types of people, could also influence
other people’s perceptions of the team. Factors related to socialization, identification, and pride in place has also been utilized in previous researches (Bauer et al., 2008; Gladden & Funk, 2002; Ross et al., 2006). Socialization, identification, and pride in place are related to benefits associations, which means what consumers think the product or service can do for them (Keller, 1993). Previous studies (Bauer et al., 2008; Gladden & Funk, 2002; Mahony, Nakazawa, Funk, James, & Gladden, 2002; Ross et al., 2006; Trail & James, 2001) in sport management literature have identified that team could provide fans opportunities to spend time with their families and friends; and fans’ experience with the team could let them feel strong affiliations and connections to their team and their city.

Behavioral intentions

According to the theory of planned behavior (Ajzen, 1991), intention is the best and the only factor that directly predict the actual behavior. Thus, behavioral intention, as consequence, is widely used in professional sport studies (Biscaia, Correia, Rosado, Maroco, & Ross, 2012; Biscaia, et al., 2013; Kunkel, et al., 2017; Matusoska, Chelladurai, & Harada, 2003; Sumino & Harada, 2004; Yoshida & James, 2010). For example, Biscaia, et al. (2012) found out that spectators’ emotions had significant impact on behavioral intentions. Moreover, Matusoska, Chelladurai, and Harada (2003) reported that team identification had significant effects on intention to attend future games, and team identification was a more critical factor affecting intention to attend future games than satisfaction with the game. Furthermore, Yoshida and James (2010) found out that except the game satisfaction, the satisfaction toward the service quality could also have an impact on behavioral intentions. Finally, in team association studies, as mentioned above, Biscaia, et al. (2013) found out that the team brand associations had positive influence on behavioral intentions. Kunkel, et al. (2017) later reported similar result. Nevertheless, Biscaia, et al. (2013) and Kunkel, et al. (2017) both examined the impact of team brand associations as an aggregated construct. However, for the theoretical development and practical efficiency, it is important to examine the details, which is the relative importance of each brand association dimension when they influence the behavioral intention.

Research Question 1: What dimensions of the team brand association have more directly impact on behavioral intention.

Behavioral involvement

Numerous studies in the field of sport management utilized involvement as a market segmentation base (Jang, Ko, & Stepchankova, 2014; Sato, Gipson, Todd, & Harada, 2018). Involvement is understood from both psychological (Funk & James, 2001) and behavioral aspects (Houston & Rothschild, 1978). Psychological involvement has been operationalized multidimensional constructs that often consist of hedonic and symbolic values as well as centrality (Beaton, Funk, Ridinger, & Jordan, 2011), whereas behavioral involvement has been operationalized as past consumption experiences and/or the frequency of consumption (Mullin et al., 2014; Sato, Ko, Park, & Tao, 2015).

Although research about psychological involvement is relatively more active than behavioral involvement in sport, behavioral involvement can be a better market segmentation base in a certain situation. Sato and colleagues (2018) mentioned that unlike psychological involvement that can be obtained via a rigorous research, behavioral involvement data are often available in organizations’ customer databases due to its simplicity. As such, comparing to the psychological indicators, it is much easier to identify customers’ behavioral involvement from team’s database. Thus, behavioral involvement is a more practical indicator for marketers.

Research Question 2: What are the effects of behavioral involvement on the relationship between team brand association and behavioral intention.

In sum, focusing on the Japanese professional soccer as a research context, the current study explored the relative importance of brand associations on consumers’ behavioral intention. The authors used behavioral involvement to test the relationship to further provide managerial implications

Research Methodology

Sampling

The sampling methods in previous studies had some drawbacks, for example, Bauer et al. (2008) mentioned their sample is biased toward more committed fans. Ross et al. (2006) collected data from university students, and it is doubted that if the respondents have enough brand knowledge and experience toward the teams. Gladden and Funk (2002)’s study failed to report the respondents’ behavior or the extent of commitment towards the teams. Therefore, in order to overcome these drawbacks, and collect a sample that contains a big range of behavioral involvement. We used social media collect the data, and selected a team that has one of the most social media followers in J.Leauge.
Preliminary survey for instrument generation/modifications

Due to the contextual differences between the current study and previous studies, a preliminary survey was conducted for the item modifications and wording purpose. An online survey was conducted, and participants were invited to participate in the preliminary survey via the official Facebook page of the soccer club. Four hundred eighty-nine participants were recruited to participate in the survey. They answered an open-ended question, asking to write down everything that came to their minds when the team was mentioned. Demographic information (e.g., age, gender) was also obtained. After removing incomplete cases, we obtained 480 (98.2%) usable responses. The age of the participants ranged from 18 - 70 ($M_{age} = 39.5$; Female = 27.5%), and the data seemed to cover various fan segments.

Based on the qualitative responses and scales used in the previous literature, the authors discussed with experts for modifying existing scale items or generating new items if potential brand associations that Japanese soccer fans had were not covered in the previous literature. In this process, we formed a three-member expert team, consisting of two experts who have Ph.D. degrees for sport management and a team staff member. As a result, several factors (e.g., performance, management, team, logo, history, rivalry, socializing, identification, and pride in place.) from existing team brand association scales in the previous literature (Gladden & Funk, 2002; Ross, James, & Vargas, 2006; Ross, Russell, & Bang, 2008) were adopted with slight modifications to be suited for the Japanese soccer team context. In addition, the expert team generated scale items for brand associations that previous studies did not capture (e.g., sponsor; fan). In sum, we used 33 items to measure the following 11 factors: performance, management, team, logo, history, rivalry, sponsor, fan, socializing, identification, and pride in place. All the items were carefully back-translated.

With regards to dependent variables, the intention to watch future games was measured by one single item [I want to watch the remaining games of the team (team name) in this season (including stadium, TV, internet)]. We also used one single item to measure behavioral involvement, which is later utilized as a segmentation variable. Participants were asked the number of the home games watched (including stadium, TV, internet) until the 35th round (totally 17 games) in the current season. The purpose that we include stadium, TV, and Internet to measure game watching related questions is to avoid high psychological commitment, low behavioral case (Mahony, Madrigal, & Howard, 2000).

Main survey and data analysis

The method of main survey was similar to the preliminary survey. A link to the self-administered web-based questionnaires was posted on the team’s official Facebook, Twitter, and LINE (i.e., the most used online instant message communication app) pages. We included a description, asking participants not to participate in the survey multiple times. A total of 3367 fans participated in the survey, and 2555 responses (75.9%) were included for the final data analysis after removing incomplete cases and those were younger than 18 years old. The age of the participants ranged from 18 - 77 ($M_{age} = 35.9$; Female = 35.9%). The average number of game consumption at the time of data collection was 10.6. It is worth noting that 174 participants had not watched any games although they followed the soccer club’s official social media account(s).

Regarding the data analysis, confirmatory factor analysis was conducted to test the 11-factor team brand association model to ensure the validity of the measurements. Behavioral involvement was median-split to categorize participants into three groups. Multiple regression analysis was used for each behavioral involvement group to examine the influence of brand associations on intention to watch future games. IBM SPSS Statistics 24 and Amos 24 were used to analyze the data.

Results

Confirmatory factor analysis

All the previous brand association scales (Bauer et al., 2008; Gladden & Funk, 2002; Ross et al., 2006) consist over 40 items. The redundant scales are hardly used by researchers and practitioners. Thus, a relatively practical and simplified scale is needed. Based on this consideration we strictly dropped the items which factor loadings were less than the threshold .7 (Hair, Black, Babin, and Anderson, 2014). The final result, factor loadings range from .72 - .96, and the model fit indices, which are $\chi^2 = 1798.92$, $df = 220$, $\chi^2/df = 8.18$, GFI = .94, CFI= .96, NFI=.96, RMSEA=.053, indicated that the model is good (Hair et al., 2014). $\chi^2$ was high may because of the big size of the sample (Hair et al., 2014).
Moreover, we examined the internal consistency, convergent validity, and discriminant validity. The Cronbach alpha coefficients were computed to assess internal consistency. The coefficients for each construct, which are ranged from .78 to .95, showed the internal consistency (Hair et al., 2014).

Then, AVE (average variance extracted) for each construct was computed to assess the convergent validity. AVE values, which are ranged from .59 to .91, provided the evidence of convergent validity (Hair et al., 2014). The result of confirmatory factor analysis, the Cronbach alpha coefficients, and AVE values are shown in Table 2.

At last, squared correlations between constructs were lower than AVE values; therefore discriminant validity was also confirmed (Hair et al., 2014). The results of correlation coefficients, mean, and standard deviations for each construct are shown in Table 3.

### Table 1. Team Brand Association Factors

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Category</th>
<th>Previous Studies</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Performance</strong></td>
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<tr>
<td>Success</td>
<td>Bauer et al. (2008); Gladden and Funk (2002); Ross et al., (2006)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Management</strong></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Player</td>
<td>Gladden and Funk (2002)</td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>Team</strong></td>
<td>Bauer et al. (2008)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Logo</strong></td>
<td>Bauer et al. (2008); Gladden and Funk (2002)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Ross et al. (2006)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>History</strong></td>
<td>Bauer et al. (2008); Gladden and Funk (2002)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Ross et al. (2006)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Rivalry</strong></td>
<td>Ross et al. (2006) &quot;Rivalry”</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Sponsor</strong></td>
<td>Bauer et al. (2008)(deleted after factor analysis)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Fan</strong></td>
<td>Bauer et al. (2008)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Socializing</strong></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>Identification</strong></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Bauer et al. (2008); Gladden and Funk (2002)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Ross et al. (2006)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Pride in Place</strong></td>
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<td></td>
<td>Gladden and Funk (2002)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* modified or added factors

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**Internal consistency, convergent validity and discriminant validity**

Moreover, we examined the internal consistency, convergent validity, and discriminant validity. The Cronbach alpha coefficients were computed to assess internal consistency. The coefficients for each construct, which are ranged from .78 to .95, showed the internal consistency (Hair et al., 2014).

Then, AVE (average variance extracted) for each construct was computed to assess the convergent validity. AVE values, which are ranged from .59 to .91, provided the evidence of convergent validity (Hair et al., 2014). The result of confirmatory factor analysis, the Cronbach alpha coefficients, and AVE values are shown in Table 2.

At last, squared correlations between constructs were lower than AVE values; therefore discriminant validity was also confirmed (Hair et al., 2014). The results of correlation coefficients, mean, and standard deviations for each construct are shown in Table 3.

### Table 3 correlation coefficient, mean and standard deviation

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>PA</th>
<th>MA</th>
<th>TE</th>
<th>LO</th>
<th>HI</th>
<th>RI</th>
<th>SP</th>
<th>FA</th>
<th>SO</th>
<th>ID</th>
<th>PIP</th>
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<td>.24***</td>
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<td>.33***</td>
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<td>.12***</td>
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<td>.36***</td>
<td>.31***</td>
<td>.26***</td>
<td>.27***</td>
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<td>.28***</td>
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<td></td>
<td>5.91</td>
<td>1.36</td>
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<td>.46***</td>
<td>.45***</td>
<td>.40***</td>
<td>.35***</td>
<td>.36***</td>
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<td>.48***</td>
<td>.63***</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>5.91</td>
<td>1.29</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note: PA=Performance, MA=Management, TE=Team, LO=Logo, HI=History, RI=Rivalry, SP=Sponsor, FA=Fan, SO=Socializing, ID=Identification, PIP=Pride in Place

***p<.001
Multiple regression analysis

Three groups were divided according to respondents’ behavioral involvement before multiple regression analysis. We made the respondents who had not watched any game a single group (Group 1 = 0 game) because its uniqueness. They are following the team’s social media, but not watching the games. Rest of the samples was divided into another two groups by the median of game watching numbers (Group 2 < 14 games; Group 3 ≥ 14 games). To examine the differences that how team brand associations influence the intention to watch future games, three multiple regression analyses were conducted separately toward the three different groups. The results were shown in table 4. For Group 1, team and identification had significant influence on the intention to watch future games; team brand associations explained 42% (adjusted $R^2 = .42$, $p < .001$) of variance of intention to watch future games. For Group 2, performance, team, rival, sponsor, and identification had significant influence on the intention to watch future games; team brand associations explained 33% (adjusted $R^2 = .33$, $p < .001$) of variance of intention to watch future games. For Group 3, performance, team, sponsor, and pride in place had significant influence on the intention to watch future games.

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**Table 2. Factor loadings, Cronbach alpha coefficients and AVE values for the model**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Factors and Items</th>
<th>Factor Loading</th>
<th>$\alpha$</th>
<th>AVE</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Performance</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I think (team name) is a strong team</td>
<td>.72</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I think (team name) plays attractive soccer</td>
<td>.89</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I like the play style of (team name)</td>
<td>.76</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Management</strong></td>
<td>.88</td>
<td>.79</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I think (team name) does wise decisions on player transfer and the appointment of head coach</td>
<td>.90</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I think (team name)’s front staff do a good job</td>
<td>.88</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Team</strong></td>
<td>.81</td>
<td>.59</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I like the current (team name) players</td>
<td>.75</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I like the team personalities of (team name)</td>
<td>.81</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I like the team atmosphere of (team name)</td>
<td>.74</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Logo</strong></td>
<td>.78</td>
<td>.65</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I like the symbol of (team name)</td>
<td>.78</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I like the team color of (team name)</td>
<td>.83</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>History</strong></td>
<td>.89</td>
<td>.73</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I think (team name) has a history of winning</td>
<td>.78</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I think (team name) has a rich history</td>
<td>.88</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I think (team name) has good team tradition</td>
<td>.91</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Rivalry</strong></td>
<td>.95</td>
<td>.91</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I always feel excited about every (the city name) derby</td>
<td>.96</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I am looking forward (the city name) derby</td>
<td>.94</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Sponsor</strong></td>
<td>.88</td>
<td>.79</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I think the sponsors of (team name) does contributes to the team</td>
<td>.86</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I have good image to the sponsors of (team name)</td>
<td>.92</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Fan</strong></td>
<td>.90</td>
<td>.82</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I think (team name) supporters are cool</td>
<td>.95</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I like (team name) supporters</td>
<td>.86</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Socializing</strong></td>
<td>.78</td>
<td>.64</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(Team name) offers me opportunities to spend time with my families and friends</td>
<td>.86</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Thinking of (team name) reminds me all kinds of fond memories with my families and friends.</td>
<td>.74</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Identification</strong></td>
<td>.83</td>
<td>.70</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I feel like I win when (team name) wins</td>
<td>.85</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(Team name) is my team</td>
<td>.83</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Pride in Place</strong></td>
<td>.86</td>
<td>.75</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(Team name) is important to the region</td>
<td>.87</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(Team name) is the pride of the region</td>
<td>.86</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note: $\chi^2 = 1798.92$; $df = 220$ ($\chi^2/df = 8.18$); GFI = .94; CFI = .96; NFI = .96; RMSEA = .053
games; team brand associations explained 18% (adjusted $R^2 = .18$, $p < .001$) of variance of intention to watch future games.

### Discussion

Before discussing the results, we defined the term “fans” by using the psychological continuum model (Funk & James, 2001). Funk & James proposed the psychological continuum model to explain the connection that individuals experience with sport teams. These connections are described as awareness stage, attraction stage, attachment stage and allegiance stage. We discussed the results within defining “fans” as the people who located at the attraction and higher stage in the psychological continuum model (Funk & James, 2001). Since all the respondents in this study are following at least one social media platform of the team (which indicates they are interested in the team), they are at least at attraction stage. Therefore all the respondents are the fans of the team.

The results of the study indicated that the higher behavioral involvement that fans had, the less variance of intention to watch future games that team brand associations could explain. This result answered research question 2. There are two explanations for this result. First, as fans watching more and more games, this game watching behavior might become a routine. For the group 3, watching game might already a routine for them, therefore team brand associations could explain little variance of intention to watch future games. Second, for the fans who are watching or attending the games, behavioral intention could be explained by more variables, such as satisfaction toward game, service (Yoshida & James, 2010) and emotions (Biscaia et al., 2012). These direct experiences might be more important predictors for the fans who are watching games (Berry, 2000). However, these variables could not affect the fans who rarely watch games.

The study also identified the relative importance of each brand association dimension when affect the intention to watch future games. It’s the answer to the research question 1. In addition, the relative importance is different among different behavioral involvement groups, this result related to the research question 2. It is reasonable that performance had influence on intention to watch future games for Group 2 and 3, but not 1. Because that the respondents in Group 1 were not watching games, so that performance of the team could not influence them.

Team was the only factor that had significant influence on all the groups. Although the beta weight went lower as the behavioral involvement went higher, favorable association towards the team or players could influence the behavioral intention for all groups. The result is similar to Mahony, Nakazawa, Funk, James, and Gladden (2002)’s study. The study found out that player attachment and team attachment were motives

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### Table 4: the influence of brand associations on intention to watch future games

| Independent variables | Group 1 = 0 game (n=174) | | Group 2 < 14 games (n=1178) | | Group 3 ≥ 14 games (n=1203) |
|-----------------------|--------------------------|--------------------------|--------------------------|--------------------------|
|                       | B  | SE  | β  | B  | SE  | β  | B  | SE  | β  |
| Performance           | .07 | .13 | .06 | .14 | .04 | .13** | .08 | .03 | .10** |
| Management            | .12 | .10 | .10 | -.02 | .04 | -.02 | .001 | .03 | .001 |
| Team                  | .34 | .14 | .26* | .34 | .05 | .25*** | .17 | .03 | .18*** |
| Logo                  | -.02 | .11 | -.01 | -.04 | .05 | -.03 | -.05 | .04 | -.04 |
| History               | -.09 | .11 | -.08 | .03 | .03 | .03 | -.04 | .02 | -.06 |
| Rivalry               | .09 | .08 | .07 | .11 | .03 | .10*** | .02 | .02 | .03 |
| Sponsor               | -.04 | .11 | -.03 | .11 | .03 | .09** | .12 | .02 | .16*** |
| Fan                   | .07 | .11 | .06 | .02 | .03 | .02 | .03 | .02 | .04 |
| Socializing           | .08 | .09 | .07 | .02 | .03 | .02 | .01 | .02 | .01 |
| Identification        | .35 | .11 | .31** | .19 | .04 | .16*** | .02 | .03 | .02 |
| Pride in Place         | .06 | .12 | .05 | .09 | .05 | .07 | .13 | .03 | .15*** |
| Adj. $R^2$            | .42*** | | | .33*** | | | .18*** | |

Dependent variable : intention to watch future games

*p < .05, **p < .01, ***p < .001
for J.League spectators; furthermore, team attachment was the strongest predictor of frequency of attendance. Mahony et al. (2002)’s study also showed that vicarious achievement and community pride are the reason why spectators attend the game too. In addition, Matsuoka et al. (2003) also collected data from J.League spectators, identified that “team identification” were significantly correlated intention to attend future games. Nevertheless, in the current study, identification and pride in place had different effect in different group. Pride in place only has impact on Group3. There is one possible explanation. According the J.League’s regulation, J.League club must unite and commit to the local community, and contribute to the society (J.League, 2018). Highly involved fans might feel and perceive stronger connection between team and place. The similar explanation could be applied on sponsor too.

Furthermore, the Group 1 is a very special group. They are the fans who are following the social media, but not watching the games. The data from this segment is usually difficult to collect. This might be the reason why many of the sport consumer behavior studies focused on merely spectators. However, non-spectators are potential consumers for a team, especially the people who are somehow interested in the team but not watching the games. According to the psychological continuum model (PCM) (Funk & James, 2001), this segment is supposed to locate between attraction and attachment stage, which means an individual is somehow interested in the team by various social-psychological and demographic-based motives, but little psychological connections with the team (Funk & James, 2001). For this segment, although they are interested in the team, the team is not important enough for them to invest money or time to watch their games. Nevertheless, for the further development of a team, it is a critical task for the marketers to identify and target this segment, and lift them to the next stage. The results of this study indicated that brand associations played important role on influence their consume behavior.

Implications

There are several implications for team marketer. First, team brand association have better effect for lower involved fans. And the relative importance of brand association dimensions is different according to fans’ behavioral involvement. Marketer therefore should conduct different marketing strategy based on fans’ behavioral involvement. The beta weights in the result are the clues to make the marketing activities more effectively and efficiently.

Berry (2000) suggested three channels, which are presented brand, external brand communications, and customer experience with company, to create and enhance brand associations. Presented brand is the company’s controlled communication, such advertising or social media post. External brand communications are the information uncontrolled by the company, such as word of mouth. The last is customer’s actual experience (e.g. attending the game) with the company. It is supposed to be the primary influence on brand associations.

For the fans from Group 1, although they do not have direct experience to the team, marketer can still create brand associations through marketing activities (Berry, 2000; Kunkel et al., 2016) or word of mouth communications (Berry, 2000), further influence their behaviors. Pargasas et al. (2015) analyzed the use of Twitter by Liverpool F.C. and the study showed that Twitter is capable of communicating a variety of brand associations. Marketers, therefore, can use social media to create and enhance brand associations in their followers’ minds. In contrast, for Group 2, and Group 3 it supposed to be more effective to create and enhance team brand associations through direct experience.

Limitation and Future Studies

There are several limitations in this study. First, we tried to collect a sample that can cover a big range of the market segments. However because of this, the brand knowledge of the respondents supposed to be various, it might cause the problems that some respondents could not answer several questions due to the lack of knowledge. Although stadium was an important factor in previous studies we could not use it, due to the people who never been to the stadium can not answer the questions. This problem supposed to be a dilemma in quantitative brand association studies. Second, due to only one team was studied in this paper, the results needs to be tested on other sport teams in the future. Third, we divided respondents into three groups by the behavioral involvement in the current season. We defined Group 1 as the fans who had not watched any games in the current season. However, we don’t know if they have ever watched a game before. The Group 2 and 3 included watching games at the stadium and through TV or Internet. Nevertheless, brand associations perceived by the fans who watch games at the stadiums and the fans who watch on TV or internet supposed to be different. The future studies are needed to classify group more clearly.

In the past twenty years, scholars tried to develop a general brand association measurement scales for professional sports teams, however, the consensus has not been reached. Comparing to other products or services, the brand associations of a professional sport team cannot be evaluated objectively because of the emotional connection between fans and teams. How to measure team brand associations; are they
comparable among teams, these questions need to be answered in the future. Furthermore, North America, South America, Europe and Asia have different culture, the sports culture supposed different too. Therefore, the sports teams in different areas might have different characters. For example, in Europe, football teams usually have long history and commit to communities; in North America, franchises may move from city to city; in China and Japan, most of the professional sports teams owned by enterprises, and have enterprises’ names in team’s names. If these differences from different area could influence the team brand associations, need to be discussed in the future.

References


Experiences and Meanings to Work for Mega Sport Event: A Comparative Study on Olympic Organizing Committees in Korea and Japan

Chungmi Lee

University of Tsukuba

This study seeks to shed light on what are the challenges, obligations and meaning to work for the Olympic Games Organizing Committee (abbreviated, OCOG). It focuses on employees of Olympic and Paralympic Games Organizing Committee of PyeongChang 2018 in Korea and Tokyo 2020 in Japan, which have different historical, economic, and political backgrounds. The purpose of this study is to analyze and compare how the unique characteristics impact on their job performance, and to prepare a plan to improve the administration of OCOG into an administration organization proper to Olympic environment. Working for mega sport events such as the Olympic Games and the World Cup is shaped by the unique characteristics of the event organizing committee and those characteristics affect the implementation. In order to fulfill the aims, a sampling frame based on OCOG which are located in PyeongChang, Korea and Tokyo, Japan was established by and thereby two organizing bodies were selected, and the participants are five of each OCOG low tier contract employees. The interview data was analyzed by conceptual coding that transforms raw data into patterns and constructs, and key phrases and paragraphs were extracted, labeled, and categorized. This study found nine factors in two constructs that employee job performance and behavior. Each of the two OCOG has similar and different factors with contributing concepts, and there are several sub conceptions within each factor. In conclusion, this study finds: organizational factors provide challenges; socio-cultural characteristics affect each OCOG; time-dependent characteristics affect work behavior, and negative factors and the commitment of the employees is variable.

Key word: Mega sport event, Olympic Games, Organizing committee, Organizational behavior

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Introduction

Over the past few decades, countries throughout the world have seen the planning of such celebrations proliferate and become transformed into an industry of very sizeable proportions especially sporting events, such as the Olympic Games, the FIFA World Cup, Asian Games, and World Championships. Countries throughout the world recognize that the hosting of major sporting events is an important element in contra marketing and tourism stimulation (Gratton & Henry, 2001). The Olympic Games represents the most influential event in the world because it receives the attention and interest of people throughout the world. According to the International Olympic Committee (IOC) Marketing Fact File (2018), 220 nations received television coverage of Rio 2016, and around 3.2 billion viewers had the opportunity to experience the Olympic Games. Moreover, it indicated that 7.2 billion people used Social Media Platforms to watch Olympic content. In recent decades, many countries bid for the right to host the Olympic Games, and recognize that winning the bid for hosting the games is not a means to an end. They have to constitute an effective and professional organizing committee, therefore management is a critical aspect for these countries as the implemented managerial methods have an impact on the success of the Olympic Games.

The term ‘event management’ can also be used for Olympic Games management, and it involves designing, planning, marketing and staging events, managing the logistics, legal compliance and risk issues, and evaluating and reporting after the event (Quinn, 2013). Quinn suggests event management researchers and educators have long been cognizant of the wider economic environment within which events operate, recognizing the interplay between the discrete event and the wider economy through the study of economic impact. More recently, a growing concern with how events ‘fit’ holistically into their wider environments has seen greater attention being paid to such matters as stakeholders including sponsors and human resources. Event organizers must do what they can to manage the images and meanings that key stakeholders focus on because these become pivotal bases for judgments about the event’s level of success.

Human Resources Management (HRM) is most productive in environments that focus on human capital, which is the primary resource of the sport industry, and after all the production and consumption of human performance and effective management of that resource is paramount in achieving positive outcomes for organizations. According to Doherty (1998), human resource planning and strategic HRM, is critically important for an organization’s effectiveness and must be effectively managed. She stressed that HRM relies
on the ability to explain and predict organizational behavior, which is the attitudes and behaviors of individuals and groups in the organization; their satisfaction, commitment, performance, and so on. Organizational behavior research is directed toward identifying the determinant of these attitudes and behaviors, and future outcomes including organizational effectiveness. A manager or organizer should use strategic HRM to overcome significant issues and to form well-planned strategies so that the organization, moreover the event may succeed.

Two mega sport events, the 2018 Winter Olympic Games and the 2020 Summer Olympic Games will be held in neighboring countries, Korea and Japan with an interval of two years. In 2022 the Winter Olympic Games will be held in China, and it is believed this sequences will impact the social, cultural, and economic development for not only the individual countries, but also across East Asia. There is a movement to tie up these three countries as a strong cultural cluster in the world, and related ministries of three countries have already had a meeting this. Although Korea and Japan attempted to establish one bidding committee for the 2030 World Cup, up to the present limited research has been done on how to create one bidding committee with staff from different cultural back grounds. The first step in establishing an effective organization is to understand people’s behaviors including motivation and satisfaction. Based on this research, the organizer of future events can find effective ways to organize one unified organization, and the recommendations of this study could benefit both organizations, if they synthesize the kind of information needed to facilitate the process of transformation and change presented by the two Olympic Games Organizing Committees (abbreviated, OCOG).

Xing and Chalip (2009) indicated that working for mega sport events is shaped by the unique challenging characteristics of the event organizing committee as it is temporary, grows rapidly, often bureaucratic and provides rich symbolism. The workers in those mega sport events must be hired, trained, and then terminated within a relatively short period of time, rarely more than a few years and sometimes for only several months. Further, mega event organizations tend to grow rapidly and may need to restructure several times during their lifecycle. The challenges of rapid growth combined with a comparatively short lifespan are exacerbated by the symbolic richness of a mega event, which magnifies the concerns and the potential impact of the event on many stakeholders (Parent & Foreman, 2007). Those characteristics can affect its personnel in both positive and negative ways. McDonald (1991) demonstrated that it is distinctly challenging to create and manage the large and multifaceted organization that is necessary to host an Olympic Games. Indeed, Olympic and Paralympic Organizing committees must do what they can to manage the images and meanings that key stakeholders derive because those become pivotal bases for their judgments about the event’s level of success (Parent & Foreman, 2007).

Images and meanings are created and communicated by event staff, which depends in no small measure on the capacity of the organizing committee to rapidly build an organizational culture that is aware of the challenge and that has a strong sense of commitment to creating history through the event (McDonalds, 1991; Parent & Foreman, 2007). There will be more difficulties in organizing from one to two or three different ethnic groups that has different culture, languages, and economic situation; however, understanding the similarities and differences between the groups are significant factors for achieving success.

This study examines the ways that employees of two OCOG perceive, explain, and cope with the experience of preparing the Olympic Games, and seeks to highlight the challenges, obligations and meaning behind working for the Olympic Games. It focuses on employees of 2018 PyeongChang Winter Olympic and Paralympic Games (abbreviated, POCOG) in Korea and 2020 Tokyo Summer Olympic and Paralympic Games (abbreviated, TOCOG) in Japan, which have different historical, economic, cultural, and political backgrounds. The purpose of this study is to analyze OCOG employees’ thoughts on working for the Olympic Games, identify which unique characteristics of mega sport event organization influences their behavior, and compare what are the differences and similarities between POCOG and TOCOG. This will facilitate the preparation of a plan to improve the administration of cooperated OCOG into an administrative organization suitable for the Olympic environment.

The significance of this study is related to the development of management strategy and highlights responses that enhance our understanding of organizational behavior of mega sport event employees. The Organizing Committee for mega sport events must be created from scratch, must continually recruit new staff as the event approaches, and must cope with the reality that employees know that they will not be needed after the event (Hanlon & Jago, 2004; McDonald, 1991). Examining the effects of sport events on event employees can facilitate more than increasing efficiency and effectiveness of event management. Suggestions will be found for co-hosting Organizing Committee in the future.

**Literature Review**

*Meaning and the Growth of Olympic Games*
The unique feature of the modern Olympic Games is that it has been held in many different cities and nations worldwide. It is considered unacceptable that the Olympic Games are held continuously in certain continents and countries, and this is one of the institutional constraints. Since de Coubertin established the IOC and the revival of the modern Olympic Games the number of cities hoping to host Olympic Games has increased - this restriction has been raised as a main issue (Müller, 1994). Since this rule that the Game cannot be held in the same continent consecutively, the sharing of the Games across continents is a key reason why the Games have become highly popular (Preuss, 2007). Therefore, the Olympic Games are an ambulatory mega sport event, continually moving from one location and cultural context to another (Roche, 2000).

The past fifty years have witnessed an increase in the number of sports contested at the Games, and consequently the number of participating athletes. The organizers of the Rio 2016 Olympic Games provided facilities and services for 11,238 athletes from 207 countries and over 5,000 team officials compared with 8,397 athletes from 159 countries in Seoul 1988 (IOC, 2018). Another feature of the growth of the Olympic Games is media coverage. The fundamental IOC media policy is described in the Olympic Charter as ‘the IOC takes all necessary steps in order to ensure the fullest coverage by the different media and the widest possible audience in the world for the Olympic Games’ (Olympic Charter, Rule 48), and to ensure maximum presentation of the Olympic Games to the world.

**Impact of Hosting the Olympic Games**

Kasimati (2003) summarized the potential long-term benefits to a city of hosting the Summer Olympics: newly constructed event facilities and infrastructure, urban revival, enhanced international reputation, increase in tourism, improved public welfare, additional employment, and increased inward investment. He analyzed all impact studies of the Summer Olympics from 1984 to 2004 and found that the economic impacts where likely to be inflated since the studies did not take into account supply-side constraints such as investments crowding out, price increases due to resource scarcity, and the displacement of tourist s who would have been in the host city had the Olympics not been held there. Preuss (2004) produced a comprehensive analysis of the economics of the summer Olympics for every summer Olympics from Munich 1972 using secondary data, and employing a novel data transformation methodology that allows comparisons across the different Olympics.

Estimating the true economic impact of a summer Olympic Games properly therefore requires a large research budget in addition to the other costs associated with the Games. Research needs to start several years before the Olympics and continue several years after they have finished. So far nobody has been willing to fund such research. There is increasing research output, however, relating to other major sporting events.

**Temporary Organization**

Considerable research has been undertaken on the temporary organization in not only sport events but also many ephemeral organizations such as film projects and construction projects. This research indicated that the temporary organizations are typically dependent on their parent organization, and that uncertainty, role negotiation, and sense making (Kramer, 2009; Turner et al., 2008) along with standardization, coordination, and socialization are part of the work environment for members of temporary organizations. Temporary organization also has the characteristic of trying to capitalize on the specialized skills of their members, while keeping costs of coordination to a minimum (Bechky, 2006), and bring together a group of people who are unfamiliar with one another’s skills, but must work interdependently on complex tasks (Goodman & Goodman, 1976). According to Meyerson et al. (1996), “the temporary organizations are characterized as flexible, discontinuous, and ephemeral” (p.3), and Jones et al. (1997) noted the “temporary organizations contrast with traditional hierarchical organizations as they are governed through networks of relationships rather than by lines of authority” (p.3).

In terms of sport events, there are clear timelines around which all functional and operational initiatives are strategically organized (Parent & Maclntosh, 2013). Due to their uniqueness and project based short-term orientation temporary organizations associated with sport events face particular obstacles. However it is difficult to maintain a career in sport events especially mega sport events because it rarely held in the same county or region, and the event organizing team typically hires local workers who have scant event experience and whose future work prospects often lie outside the event industry. In addition, an OCOG is primarily staffed with local people, the majority of whom are from outside the sport industry, and have negligible experience organizing sport mega-events. The Olympic Games is a one-time event, and most employees will move on to other jobs, often outside the event industry which could affect employee’s attitudes, expectations, and morale (Xing & Chalip, 2009). They also stress that the social dynamics of their work environment will be particularly important to mega event employees, and that informal working
relationships will be more important than formal work structures, and temporary employees are uncomfortable about the temporary nature of their employment. Consequently, employees in these temporary organizations typical face a high level of uncertainty.

**Bureaucracy**

Much literature indicates that temporary organizations should avoid bureaucracy to enhance effectiveness (Beckh, 2006; Huemann et al., 2007), and that a flexible decision-making structure is necessary to ensure organizational efficiency when the organization grows rapidly (Hambrick & Crozier, 1985). On the other hand, there are positive indications about bureaucratic organizations. According to Weber (1947), bureaucracy and rationality are intimately linked. A rational bureaucracy features functional specialization, lines of hierarchical authority, expert training of managers, and decision-making based on elaborated rules and regulations. In an extension of this research Weber deems features are deemed advantageous, however bureaucracy can be associated with red tape, low efficiency, and tedious paper work, especially in East Asian countries that were affected by Confucianism. Management scholars in recent decades have increasingly criticized the lack of responsiveness and adaptability of bureaucratic organization in view of competitive pressures (Alvesson & Willmott, 2002).

In the context of project-based organizations, the need for bureaucratic structures but without bureaucratic inefficiencies has created on-going tension. Although an organization may tout empowerment, autonomy, and self-reliance in line with the post-bureaucratic ethos, its operation may nonetheless rely on formalized procedures and constant reporting (Clegg & Courpasson, 2004). Empirical work confirms that blending bureaucratic and post-bureaucratic systems in project based organizations can be difficult (Hodgson, 2004). He continued the project worker’s attitudes toward the imposition of bureaucratic control are ambivalent and occasionally accompanied by open resistance, and Styhre (2006) said managers believe that heavy emphasis on administrative duties stifles creativity and innovation. Xing and Chalip (2009) states Beijing Olympic Organizing Committee employees were adversely affected by the organization’s hierarchical structure and low efficiency.

**Rapid Growth**

Frawley and Adair (2013) stated that the Olympic Games can be considered as mega project, and successful project organization is highlighted by a number of management characteristics such as clarity of direction and leadership provided by project managers, the establishment of performance measurement and indicators, effective management that ensures the established measure are achieved, and that the coordination of the project achieves central indicators of timing, cost and quality. In relation to timing, projects often operate in an organizational life cycle that is shaped by their time-dependent characteristics. Most projects have a starting phase, a growing phase, a declining phase and a termination phase (Meredith & Mantel, 1989). The relationship between growth and employee work life is one of the significant determinants of new venture success (Gilbert et al., 2006), and repay growth does seem to affect the experiences that employees obtain. Although the growth can convey a sense of excitement and new possibilities, researchers have typically been concerned with its negatives. Organizations with rapid growth undergo constant change and their employees need to adjust again and again, thus, these employees experience a substantial amount of stress according to Kotter and Sathe (1978). It is expected that the changes triggered by the OCOG’s rapid growth affect workers’ lives, which might cause physical and emotional strain. To mitigate these stresses, previous research recommends that organizations put team-building practices in place to bring together employee across departments in order to maintain good working relationships (Hambrick & Crozier, 1985).

**Social and Cultural Conflict**

There are many cultural studies in organization and management studies, and this can be seen in studies of the cultural complexity of organizations (Alvesson, 2002), calls for analyses of cultural factors as both constraints and resources as well as new conceptualizations and methods developed for cross-cultural studies (Harzing, 2004; Kirkman et al., 2006). These studies also suggested that organizational and national cultural differences contribute to poor post-acquisition performance and have found supporting evidence for such effects (Vaara et al., 2012). However, others have argued that cultural differences may also be a source of value creation in both domestic and international acquisitions (Larsson & Risberg, 1998). Consequently, it is crucial to explore how and why cultural differences create positive and negative effect, and it is important to distinguish specific effect that national and organizational cultural differences have on these outcomes (Stahl & Voigt, 2008).

Since there are arguments that the organizational and national cultural differences may have different effect on social conflict and knowledge transfer, Sirmon and Lane (2004) suggested that national cultural differences may be more strongly associated with knowledge transfer than organizational cultural differences, and this is because significant organizational cultural differences can weaken the ability to
identify, transfer and implement potentially used knowledge. However, Vaara et al. (2012) indicated that the impact of national cultural differences was not stronger than that of organizational cultural differences. They said that the potential complementarily benefits coming from organizational cultural differences may be larger than usually assumed, moreover, it may be that national cultural differences undermine the absorptive capacity to a greater extent than organizational cultural differences.

**Symbolically Significant Environment**

Throughout recent decades, hosting any of the major sporting events, especially the Olympic Games and the FIFA World Cup, carries significant prestige. It is an honor that would help to shape the legacy of a country or city, and it could be a powerful moment of national symbolism and economic transformation. Chalip (2006) mentioned that the sport is pregnant with symbolic meanings which can be profitably utilized to benefit the event host and its stakeholders, and Tzanelli (2004) demonstrated through the study of the 2004 Athens Summer Olympic Games, that event organizers and stakeholders capitalize on sport symbolisms to pursue various agendas which illustrate the malleability of sport symbolism and its context dependence.

According to Kamoche (2000), the symbolic potency of a mega sport event provides employees with a basis for interpreting experiences, and the motivation to do so. It focuses attention on associate experiences and gives direction to their interpretation because they denote something greater than the self or the symbol, and they call for the association of certain ideas (Morgan, Frost, and Pondy, 1983). Moreover, symbolisms associated with an event can inject meanings to signify solutions to prevailing issues in a society or to evoke a sense of national pride (Xing & Chalip, 2012). In fact, stakeholders of an event sometimes make explicit efforts to manage and exploit event symbolisms.

**Method**

**Data Collection**

Multiple strategies can be used for gathering qualitative data. One of the most widely used strategies is the interview. The semi-structured interview used in this study were developed by the researcher utilizing a review of the relevant literature, and were intentionally general as they were designed to maximize participant’s descriptions and interpretations of their working lives at OCOG. To reduce interviewer bias, the interview questions were honed to follow a more general protocol, where the participants would be able to express their experiences.

The interviews were conducted in December 2017 in PyeongChang in Korean for POCOG in Korea and March 2018 in Tokyo in English and Japanese with an English translator. Probes and follow-up questions for clarification and elaboration were added to smooth the flow of the accounts whenever necessary. A total ten (five from each OCOG) interviews were conducted. To accommodate the participants work schedule and locations, different places were employed for OCOG workers.

The semi-structured interview used in this study were developed by the researcher utilizing a review of the relevant literature, and were intentionally general as they were designed to maximize participant’s descriptions and interpretations of their working lives at OCOG. To reduce interviewer bias, the interview questions were honed to follow a more general protocol, where the participants would be able to express their experiences. The interview questions for this study were developed based on the inquiry of, “Why do you want to work for this organization?” included the following questions:

- Why did you decide to work for OCOG?
- What is it like to work for OCOG?
- Can you tell me a few things that you enjoy most about your job?
- What are the things that you least enjoy in your job?
- What do you think it will be like for you once the games are over?
- If you have a chance to choose your job again, will you make the same choice and why?

**Sampling**

The sample for this study was a purposive convenience sample. In other words, the sample was selected both purposively and theoretically (Devers, 1994). Among various OCOG employees such as government, sponsor, and contract employees, lower tier contract employees were selected for this study because they represent employees that do not have a permanent job. Further, since this study’s primary interest was the meaning of daily working life for the Olympic Games, the experiences of those who work at the coal face in OCOG were considered as the appropriate analytic units. High position staff was not selected because their work is more about policy making and supervision.
The participants in this study comprised ten current OCOG employees from seven different departments. The analysis of samples is presented in Table 1, and a detailed description of sample is presented in Table 2.

### Table 1. Analysis of Samples

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>POCOG</th>
<th>TOCOG</th>
<th>Both OCOG</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Average age</td>
<td>35.4 years (SD=3.5)</td>
<td>34 years (SD=6.2)</td>
<td>34.7 years (SD=5.2)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Average work year</td>
<td>47 months (SD= 6.7)</td>
<td>37.8 months (SD=2.4)</td>
<td>42.4 months (SD=6.9)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gender</td>
<td>4 male and 1 female</td>
<td>2 male and 3 female</td>
<td>6 male and 4 female</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Table 2. Description of the Samples

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Age</th>
<th>Gender</th>
<th>Month of Experience</th>
<th>Department</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>POCOG</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>M</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>PR</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>38</td>
<td>M</td>
<td>56</td>
<td>Athlete village</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>F</td>
<td>54</td>
<td>Sport</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>38</td>
<td>M</td>
<td>41</td>
<td>Venue Construction</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>38</td>
<td>M</td>
<td>47</td>
<td>Marketing Service</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TOCOG</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>F</td>
<td>39</td>
<td>Sport competition</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>36</td>
<td>M</td>
<td>36</td>
<td>Sport competition</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>F</td>
<td>36</td>
<td>Paralympic planning</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>F</td>
<td>42</td>
<td>Sport entry</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>36</td>
<td>M</td>
<td>45</td>
<td>Sport planning</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
**Data Analysis**

The qualitative data yielded by the interviews allowed for greater knowledge and understanding of the organizational structure and context, as well as the transition process that occurred during the last few years (Kondratovsky, 1995). The interviewee’s assessment of recent processes and events provided an in-depth understanding of the sport organizations under study. To maintain the original cultural flavor, the first round of data analysis for POCOG interviews was conducted in Korean by the researcher. The interview audio file was transcribed into a text file in English, and then an initial broad coding of information was carried out to identify emerging and recurring topics. These codes were analyzed and condensed into dominant themes using the NVivo 12 which assisted the researcher in integrating indexing, and coding the large amount of qualitative data. The first round of TOCOG data analysis was conducted in English and Japanese, and Japanese responses were translated by another TOCOG staff who can speak English at the same time as the interview. These interview audio files were transferred into a text file in English, and also entered into NVivo 12.

The second round of analysis in English, the emerging thematic outline was developed. The researcher rated key phrases and paragraphs independently for their meaning and relevancy to particular themes. The consequent thematic structure was then brought back to the interview text, and continued until the meanings in the interview texts were adequately captured by the extracted themes and quotes. Throughout this process, interview transcripts were content analyzed and segments of interview transcripts were classified according to eight factors of each OCOG were clustered into two constructs by NVivo 12. Once the data analysis was completed, the researcher proceeded with the qualitative assessment of POCOG and TOCOG according to the nine factors total. In this study, a simple juxtaposition of the data obtained from POCOG and TOCOG was done. Data regarding the same factors were compared between the two OCOG, and distinctive factors of each OCOG were determined.

**Results**

**Data Analysis of POCOG**

A major consideration of an event organizer is to determine what motivates people and how they work. In this part, an improved understanding of the behavior of employees has been put forth. The data represents the perceived behaviors that employees gain from working in OCOG, and the relationships between the elements. The analysis allowed the classification of behaviors to be integrated into constructs. The two constructs that emerged were ‘Personal Motivation’ and ‘Demand on Organization’. The Personal Motivation constructs included five factors: Self development, Interpersonal enjoyment, Uncertainty, Symbolically significant environment, and Achievement. The Demand on Organization constructs included three factors: Bureaucracy, Un-organization and no expertise, and Dissatisfaction but commitment.

This study’s data was presented through a conceptualization in which selected portions of data are analyzed, using the participants’ words and categorizations. These words and categorizations were more abstract and represent a synthesis of conceptualization codes, which were then collapsed into categories or higher-level concepts. Although many studies and theories attempt to explain employees’ behavior, this study defined forty-eight conceptions that influence behavior during the first round of coding, through its use of the participants’ words as much as possible. Classifying forty-eight conceptions by similar meanings and generalizing them resulted in eight categories. These eight factor categories were then subsumed into two constructs by NVivo 12’s cluster analysis. The result of this analysis yielded two constructs, eight factors and forty-eight concepts (Table 2).

**Data Analysis of TOCOG**

The analysis of TOCOG data has been done in the same way as the POCOG data analysis process. The two constructs that emerged were ‘Personal Motivation’ and ‘Demand on Organization’. The Personal Motivation constructs included four factors: self development, interpersonal enjoyment, uncertainty, and symbolically significant, and the Demand on Organization constructs included four factors: bureaucracy, unorganization and no expertise, dissatisfaction but commitment, and Overabound people. The result of this analysis yielded two constructs, eight factors and fifty-one concepts (Table 3).
Table 3. Categorization of Concepts, Factors, and Constructs

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Conceptions</th>
<th>Factors</th>
<th>Constructs</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Great personal experience</td>
<td>Self development</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Creating good relationship with IOC or IFs</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>To be the background that can be a great force</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Steppingstones to be a sport expert</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Advantage to find another job</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Help my career</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Able to collaborate with a lot of people in various fields</td>
<td>Interpersonal enjoyment</td>
<td>Personal motivation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Taskwork is most important</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Work together for one goal</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Working with them was a unforgettable memory</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pleasure of meeting outstanding people in various fields</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Our team members were good</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Interpersonal skills should be excellent</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Want to participate in the Olympic Games</td>
<td></td>
<td>Motivation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Want to contribute to the Olympics</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Great deal of interest in international sporting events</td>
<td>Symbolically significant</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>New and unique experience</td>
<td>environment</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Great opportunity to be able to have an experience the Olympics</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Proud of the biggest international event, the Olympics</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Not sure about employment after the games</td>
<td>Uncertainty</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Very uncertain right now, but I cannot judge now</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Do not know what will happen</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Biggest problem of the recruitment</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Feel proud and glad</td>
<td>Achievement</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Feel sense of accomplishment</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Actual output</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Finish Olympic operation</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>My dreams come true</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lost valuable personal assets for personal reasons</td>
<td>Disorganization and lack of</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>System was not properly organized</td>
<td>expertise</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Difficult to make a voice</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tasks that are not done properly</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Quality of organizational structure should be upgraded</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Coordination is not easy</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Welfare was limited</td>
<td>Dissatisfaction and</td>
<td>Demand on</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>There were a lot of complaints</td>
<td>commitment</td>
<td>Organization</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Will continue to work</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No regret</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A lot of government officers - creates inefficiency</td>
<td>Bureaucracy</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Go through unnecessary steps</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Political decision making</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Decided only by government way of thoughts</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Korean organizational culture</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Conflict with government officer and experts contractors</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Directions are made based on benefit</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hierarchy</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Too much pressure from political quarters</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Government working culture</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Comparison and Findings

Organizational Status

POCOG was established in October 2011, six years and three months before the Games (Feb 2018), and TOCOG was established in January 2014, six years and four months before the Games (July 2020). Both OCOG presidents are former ministers, but POCOG’s president has been replaced three times since 2011. Table 4 shows the comparison of employment status between POCOG and TOCOG.
Table 4. Employment Status (Full time paid employees)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Types</th>
<th>POCOG No.</th>
<th>POCOG %</th>
<th>TOCOG No.</th>
<th>TOCOG %</th>
<th>Note</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Government Officer</td>
<td>576</td>
<td>47.8%</td>
<td>1,012</td>
<td>56.1%</td>
<td>Including national, host city, and local government</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Private Sector Secondee</td>
<td>124</td>
<td>10.3%</td>
<td>634</td>
<td>35.1%</td>
<td>Sponsor company etc.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Contractor</td>
<td>505</td>
<td>41.9%</td>
<td>132</td>
<td>7.3%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Outsourcing</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>1.5%</td>
<td>Lawyers etc.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>1,205</td>
<td>100%</td>
<td>1,805</td>
<td>100%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

POCOG’s HR department divided their workforce into six categories; permanent paid staff, temporary paid staff, personal service contractors, collaborators, dispatched contractors, and volunteers. All full time paid employees are affiliated to permanent paid staff including government officers and lawyers. TOCOG has five categories; government officer, contract employee, private sector, dispatched employee, and other contractors. Dispatched employees are composed of employees from companies contracted with TOCOG such as Manpower. Basically TOCOG employment is not divided by payment status because they do not have any other types of employees such as temporary staff and volunteers at this time.

As we can see from Table 4, more than half of the employees from both organizations originate from the government and obviously related with the bureaucracy factor. Conversely, there is a big difference between the two organizations when considering the private sector secondee category and contractor category. This can be seen as being related to the form of financing, which is the same source from government tax money and sponsorship grants. While POCOG’s sponsorship is decided by political decision and pressure, TOCOG sponsorship is decided by business concerns whereby sponsor companies want to be involved in OCOG management by dispatching their employees to TOCOG. They want to be part of the Olympic operation for promotional purposes and want to derive some benefits from having their position within the OCOG. As a result of this, POCOG probably had to hire more contractors with more sport expertise than TOCOG. Nevertheless, POCOG and TOCOG employees complained about the lack of expertise, and its relationship with the recruitment system, which both OCOG indicated was too bureaucratic and inefficient. OCOG has to undertake aggressive recruitment, which finds experts and headhunts people from their permanent job. However, the government style of recruitment system is utilized which is just posting the notice and selecting from ordinary applicants. There is no evidence as to which way is more effective, but it is obvious TOCOG’s way is more economical under the premise of maintaining expertise.

**Overall Analysis**

Bureaucracy was the main consideration for both OCOGs followed by Disorganization and lack of expertise in negative concepts of response, and the portion of these responses form a large part of their overall responses. As a result of this analysis, POCOG employees focused more on personal factors than organizational factors while TOCOG employees responded more about organizational factors. Also there was unique factor for each OCOG, which is related with the different constructs.

POCOG’s positive concepts of factors were Self development, Interpersonal enjoyment, Symbolically significant environment, Dissatisfaction and commitment, and Achievement, and negative concepts were Bureaucracy, Disorganization and lack of expertise, and Uncertainty. TOCOG’s positive concepts of factors were Self development, Interpersonal enjoyment, Symbolically significant environment, and Dissatisfaction and commitment, and negative concepts were Bureaucracy, Disorganization and lack of expertise, Uncertainty, and Overabound people. Symbolically significant environment factor of TOCOG represented the biggest portion among positive factors while other positive factors are low. Overall, there are more negative responses from TOCOG participants than from the POCOG participants. Figure 3 represents the data that emerged from the interviews and the subsequent analysis. The thick line indicates the strong feelings of each organizations’ participants (< 10% present coverage).
Implications of Personal Motivation

In general, POCOG’s responses to the personal concepts were greater than TOCOG’s. One of the main reasons for these results is dependent on when the interview was conducted. The timeframe for the POCOG interviews was almost the same as the opening of the games, but TOCOG’s time is around two years before the games. As POCOG employees thought the Organizing Committee would not be able to take care of their post game employment, they focused on their future as the Games time approaches. On the other hand, since there is more time for TOCOG employees and they have more realistic problems to be solved, they are not thinking about future employment yet. Self development is related with future job employment and so slightly related with Uncertainty which is another factor of the Personal Motivation construct.

The ration of this factor for POCOG employees was larger because of its relationship with self development as POCOG employees’ perspective of working together which named Interpersonal enjoyment in this study. They facilitated their development through co-working with diverse people from diverse backgrounds, and they believed they could learn from these people. The basic concepts of interpersonal enjoyment between POCOG and TOCOG were similar. However, the TOCOG employees’ percentage for this factor was lower than POCOG’s because it related with some negative factors: lack of expertise and Overabound People. Some participants said the interpersonal relationship was enjoyable but stressful at the same time.

Their thoughts about the Olympic values were very high for both POCOG and TOCOG. All participants responded that they wanted to work for the Olympics from the moment it was decided to host it in their country or even before. The workers were adamant about the value of the Olympics for both countries. This value underpins the Games as a set of universal principles, that could be applied to education and our lives, as well as to sport itself. They also felt that they were helping to create history, thus this awareness came to the fore when they were explaining their appreciation of their work. It was consequently a key reason that these employees were untroubled by the temporary nature of their jobs and this reason could be related with the dissatisfaction but commitment factor.

The percentage of POCOG’s participants was higher than TOCOG in terms of Uncertainty factor, and this related with the timing of the interviews, similar to the self development factor. POCOG employees felt more strong uncertainty for their future but paradoxically, they had clear plan now. Four out of five participants talked about their specific preparation for post Game employment. By comparison, no one mentioned this among the TOCOG participants. Also POCOG workers mentioned their sponsor company, Cally Service, which provided advice, job hunting opportunities, resume writing and other support. There is
implications of demand on organization

Bureaucracy was the biggest negative criticism of both OCOG. Bureaucracy is not necessarily negative in general, but the employees mentioned it in a very negative way as bureaucracy can sometimes poison organizations and prevent them from reaching collective worthy goals and objectives at the expense of selfish individual agendas. Although this problem is well known and is considered in research, the solution is still some way off. One solution is to find and hire good leaders. In Asian culture, strong leadership often creates a great and successful organization. Leaders may drive for results that suit their own personal agendas and make them or their organizations look better, without having much regard for how their methods may negatively affect subordinate behavior, morale, and performance. Consequently, for successful events especially these short term temporary organizations, strong and capable leadership is necessary. Likewise, as the overall analysis of this study indicated that more than half of the employees came from the government, and most were assigned to management and decision making levels. The employees felt uncomfortable with this, and they complained that it took a long time to make a decision within this layered hierarchy. There was only one positive comment from a TOCOG employee that it was secure to follow a stable system, and this was only the difference between POCOG and TOCOG.

Disorganization and lack of expertise factor, which a large ratio was also mentioned in a negative way by both OCOG. Because of the unique characteristics of the Olympic Games organization, expertise in sport and the Olympics were required. However, both OCOG employees felt that many fellow employees did not have sufficient expertise. There were several reasons; more than half of OCOG employees came from the government and lacked understanding about events and sport, and the recruitment system was not efficient in finding and hiring experts. Also TOCOG participant asked for strong leadership in the sport department, and it was very difficult to find someone who has leadership, sport expertise and management skills at the same time. One employees of POCOG indicated that losing coworkers was one difficult situation. This is a result of the lack of management within the HR department that did not have expertise in HR either. They did not know how to retain experts, and of even greater importance was they did not care about this according to participants.

In terms of salary satisfaction, three out of five employees in POCOG were satisfied compared none in TOCOG. For TOCOG employees, there was no negotiation for salary and they accepted whatever the management offered. Also one employee mentioned that if they knew someone who could fight for them, usually a high positioned person, negotiations is even more acceptable. However, they understand to be an aspect of Japanese culture. In POCOG, employees were generally satisfied with their salary, but were not satisfied with additional benefits, especially housing benefit. This is POCOG’s unique situation because most of employees were from Seoul or bigger cities in Gangwon province, so they have to pay another housing fee to stay in PyeonChang, where the headquarters of POCOG is located. This was a feature of the Winter Olympic Games only. Usually the Summer Olympic Games are held in big cities or the capital city of the country such as London, Beijing, and Seoul, but Winter Olympic Games are held in the country because of the alpine and snow requirement. Since most of employees were from larger cities, providing housing was another problem for OCOG. POCOG provided a housing benefit to prevent this problem, but it was not enough and one participant indicated the decision to allocate housing benefits was given too late. Nevertheless, all the participants of both OCOG said they were willing to continue to work despite the lack of changes. This was assumed to have important implications for workers’ performance and turnover. In fact, the commitment was a combination of various work environment factors such as coworkers which are indicated as interpersonal enjoyment in this study.

As the result of this study, TOCOG employees felt there were too many people in TOCOG especially at management level. It was not about competition between individuals or conflict, more the difficulty in collaboration and integration which was their biggest concern at this stage of organization. This factor was unique to TOCOG, because their employees are increasing rapidly approximately two years
before the game. It is related with the rapid growth characteristic of temporary organizations. In general, when working with others to reach a decision, people become overly confident in the accuracy of their collective thinking. However, it can cloud the judgments being made, as too many people are involved in the discussion, and it can lead to further stress.

**Findings**

**Organizational Factors are a Challenge**

The effect of Bureaucracy, Disorganization and lack of expertise were salient, and the privileges enjoyed by those with higher status were resented. This problem raised by the employees is easily seen in Asian Culture. Although a fully developed bureaucratic mechanism in organizations is a huge advantage in terms of precision, speed, unambiguity, knowledge of files, continuity, and so on and these are raised to the optimum point in a strictly bureaucratic administration and particularly in its monocratic form (Fischer & Sirianni, 1984), it seems not correlated with temporary and rapid growth organizations. These circumstances could create a chaotic environment in Korean and Japanese OCOG due to a very Asian working culture mixing with Western cultural organizations such as the IOC and IFs. Olympic and special mega events should go advance rapidly in terms of planning and decision making; however, a bureaucratic system takes a long time to make decision. There was a lot of conflict when hiring people in specific positions and the need to discuss these with IOC and IFs. The employees at TOCOG mentioned a similar situation. Disorganization and lack of expertise came from the same context of bureaucracy. In the case of OCOG, most of the decision makers came from the government and did not have knowledge about sport and event operation, so they just followed the known government system. The ineffectiveness of Olympic organization was a result of this decision. This study examined that the organizational factors usually present in a negative way especially in Asian countries and temporary organizations, and how it creates difficulties for the employees.

**Socio-cultural Characteristic Effect on OCOG**

This study found that some socio-cultural characteristics such as family individualism and collectivism affected the employees’ behavior, combined with organizational characteristics such as bureaucracy, temporary, rapid growth, and symbolically significant environment. According to Park (2008), while Korean’s organizational culture focuses on family individualism in accordance with Confucianism, Japan’s focuses on collectivism. Family individualism is a phenomenon emphasized by the moral worth of an individual with their family, and collectivism is a cultural value that is characterized by emphasis on cohesiveness among individuals and prioritization of the group over self. Basically, the differences in Personal Motivation constructs of this study came from the socio-cultural characteristics of organizational culture in each country. POCOG employees mentioned more about personal factors while TOCOG mentioned about organizational factors a lot. The ration for the Self development factor of POCOG (13.33%) was almost doubled that of TOCOG (6.85%) and in addition there is a unique factor has been founded for POCOG employees- achievement - very personal factor. There is no salary negotiation for TOCOG employees, and they understand this as Japanese culture which means collectivism affected them very much. They followed the organizational decisions and hesitated to make their voice heard. This study found the reason for this difference stems from the organizational culture of Korean and Japanese.

**Time-dependent Characteristics Effect Work’s Behavior**

This study found several differences between POCOG and TOCOG; POCOG employees concentrated on personal factors and TOCOG employees concentrated on organizational factors; POCOG workers had higher satisfaction in terms of salary and benefits but higher uncertainty; and TOCOG employees experienced difficulties with colleagues while POCOG employees enjoyed working together. The researcher found that most of these outcomes were related with the timing of OCOG. Since the timing of interviews for POCOG employees was two months before the Games started, they could be focus on their future as the specific dates drew near. However, this has not been realized yet for TOCOG employees with more than two years to go. Likewise, uncertainty factors were related with this timing matter. The same context is found in terms of interpersonal factors. POCOG’s HR structure was done prior to the moment of interview, creating an established set up, but for TOCOG it was done at the interview. Therefore, this would have created a confusing situation for TOCOG and the reason for the employees’ complaint. This study found the period of structure building could affect other factors and employees behaviors as well.

**Negative Factors and Commitment are Inconsistent**
Bureaucracy, Disorganization and lack of expertise, Uncertainty, and Overabound People were regarded as negative outcomes, with further implications for organization member attitudes, performance, and turnover, and ultimately organizational effectiveness. Although these negative responses occupied more than half percentage of all responses, but the employees said they would not leave OCOG. Although not satisfied with salary and benefits, they will continue to work and were willing to work even if they had the same employment choice over again. Symbolically significant environment can be an explanation factor for this phenomenon. It is the highest associated factor besides those negative factors, which means the employees are working at an OCOG because it is Olympic Games. Obviously, working for a mega sport event has special meaning for them. According to Doherty’s (1998) study about a review of organizational behavior research in sport, the first common topic of affective outcomes is job satisfaction, followed by stress and burnout, motivation, commitment, and group conflict and cohesion. Among these topics, job satisfaction, motivation and commitment are positive outcomes. Doherty considers that commitment has very important implications for member performance. To achieve this commitment, various work environment factors such as interpersonal enjoyment could be combined with other satisfaction factors. Many studies indicated the relationship between negative factors and job performance in organizations, which brought negative outcomes, however, this study found it could bring positive outcomes due to the interaction of special factors. The results of this study indicate that the special characteristics of a mega sport event, ‘Symbolically significant environment’ factor interacted and influenced factors other than the negative ones even though they comprised a large component. Consequently, this finding facilitates to understanding of what factors affected job performance, and moreover the organizational effectiveness in this special event, Olympic Games.

Conclusion

The results of this investigation indicate that POCOG workers concentrated on personal factors while TOCOG workers concentrate on organization factors. These differences came from their socio-cultural background: family individualism and collectivism. Since it can be a source of conflict among employees, the organizer should consider analysis of a potential employees social-cultural background when developing a management strategy. Future research on how this can be developed is needed. Research indicates that both OCOGs have their unique factors: Achievement for POCOG and Overabound people for TOCOG. Both OCOG felt bureaucracy and disorganization and lack of expertise make their organization very ineffective. Several findings were identified through this research: 1) Organizational factors are a challenge; 2) Socio-cultural characteristics effect on OCOG; 3) Time-dependent characteristics effect on work behavior; 4) Negative factors and commitment are inconsistent.

The effects of bureaucracy and disorganization were salient in a negative way, but these aspects can be very effective if the organizer avoid or reduce these aspects. They can be mitigated by positive climate of working groups, the apparent importance and direction of the work, and opportunities the job afforded to grow and learn. This finding is consistent with other study on organizational life (Hall & Mirvis, 1995; Kamoch, 2000), especially OCOG organizational behavior (Xing & Chalip, 2009). They suggested that team building tactics and job enrichment are potentially useful tools for event organizer and event management. Future studies of event organizations should consider the sources and challenges of perceived justice.

In the event organization, the employees found themselves examining and reimaging their social and cultural world, but it is very difficult to create harmony when two different aspects are combined. They have been leaving in the same social and cultural world throughout their whole life, and this can be a cause of conflict. However, social and cultural conflict can be functional. Ting-Toomey (1982) illustrated that when the conflict maintains the fundamental norms and values of the culture, regulates and appropriate degree of stability in the system, and takes place in a normative heterogeneous culture where individual opinions and viewpoints are respected. The event organizer and manager should consider this aspect in creating a unified organization, and future research about this is needed.

There were some differences between two OCOGs as a result of the timing of the interviews, related with the period of the organization’s structure. Several theories indicated that the working environment demonstrates that the perceived structure and operations of the event organization impinge on their experiences. There are studies about the relationships among structure, strategy, and operations (Mintzberge, 1994; Nutt & Backoff, 1992), while other work has noted a relationship between structure and employee attitudes (Hodson, 1996). At the time these interviews were conducted, the event was two years away for TOCOG employees; there was vague notion about the future. It is conceivable that these aspects could become more vexing as the event and its end become imminent. On the other side, POCOG employees were thinking critically about their future, thus several aspects of the factors were different from TOCOG. Future
research should examine the relationship among temporal factors in terms of the organization’s structure or operations, and the ways those affect work performance, especially as the organization grows and changes.

Although there were a lot of complaints and negative responses from both OCOGs, employees are willing to continue their engagement. The employees’ explicit descriptions of the significance of their work for the country or themselves were related to the event’s symbolic value and to the learning that they expected the country and individual to gain as a result of organizing the Games. This is one of the reasons that the salary, benefits, and temporary nature was not deemed to be a problem for OCOG employees. The significant opportunities that the work made possible were a key attraction from the outset, so each worker had come to terms with the temporary nature of the job before coming to work for the OCOG. At the time of interviews were conducted, there was palpable energy and purpose throughout the organization even POCOG employees, close to the event’s start. They saw their work as an opportunity to live an idealistic and passionate life. This has practical value for event organizers, as Ueberroth (1985) demonstrated at the LA Olympics. A key means for building an effective event organizing culture is to instill idealism and passion throughout the workforce, especially by emphasizing the importance of the event. There are clearly some differences between temporary Olympic organizations and temporary organizations in other industries such as film and project-based industries, however it is not clear whether these differences matter. One different aspect is that the career of the Olympic organization is not continued to other opportunities in terms of the same Olympic event which means most of employees have to move to other industries. For those people in particular jobs such as marketing or venue construction it is possible to move to similar industries, but with not necessarily the same conditions as the Olympic Games. It is reasonable to expect this difference to render different effects on the experience and interpretations of employees in those differing contexts, as the career relevance of the work is different. Future research should compare work in sport events to work in other temporary organizations to identify the effects of differing career expectations.

We know very little about the experiences and meanings that event work engenders, or the roles that varied institutional contexts play in those experience and meanings. This study demonstrates that event employees experience and meanings are substantial and significant, and based on this study, a future event organizer can learn a great deal about how they organize a successful organization.

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A Study of Message Valence on Perceived Value and Purchase Intention of Sport Team Merchandise: The Mediating Effect of Emotions

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The purposes of the current research were to investigate the effect of message valence on sport consumers’ emotions and attitude toward the message by means of experimental design; to examine the effects of emotions and attitude toward the message on perceived value and purchase intention of sport team merchandise; to explore the effect of team record on the relationship among the variables in the present research. Two studies were performed to examine the relationship among the variables of interest. The instrument in the present research was developed and modified from previous literature. Convenience sampling in the universities ranked first and eighth place in 2012 UBA Division I Men’s Basketball Tournament was utilized. A post test was conducted after the tournament ends. Statistical analyses included descriptive statistics, internal consistency coefficient, One-way Multivariate Analysis of Covariance (One-way MANOVA), Logistic Regression, Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA), and Structural Equation Modeling (SEM). Data analysis was performed using SPSS 15.0 and LISREL8.51 with the level of significance of .05. The results revealed that positive valence of message influenced sport consumers’ emotion and attitude. Additionally, emotion can predict sport consumers’ behavior of taking promoted items. Finally, team performance moderated the relationship between perceived value and purchase intention.

Keywords: sport industry, sport media, sport event, sport communication, sport consumption behavior

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Introduction

In the past literature, there was a discussion of the relationship between emotions and consumer behavior (Bagozzi et al., 1999; Lee et al., 2009; Perugini et al., 2001). Izard (2009) finds out that emotions can affect an individual’s thoughts, choices, and even behaviors. Given the uniqueness of sports competitions, including events, extensions, media and matches atmosphere creation, there are different research orientations (Funk, 2008), all of which may affect the mood of consumers (Knobloch-Westerwick, David, Eastin, Tamborini, & Greenwood, 2009). Through past researches we can find out that individual emotions play an extremely important role in the experience of watching or participating sports events (Caro & Garcia, 2007; Hirt, Zillmann, Erickson, & Kennedy, 1992; Knobloch-Westerwick et Al., 2009; Madrigal, 2008; Zuckerman, 2007). Researchers also discusses the relationship between sports sponsorship and emotions (Bal, Quester & Plewa, 2010). However, there is still a lack of discussion of the relationship between sports consumers and emotions, information processing, and team identity.

Research Purpose

This study intends to use information-processing perspective as a theoretical framework to explore whether sports consumers’ emotional awareness of the team’s related information is caused by message valence (positive and negative). More specifically, this study will explore whether sports consumers have an influence on their emotional status and attitude toward the message after accepting relevant information about the different message categories of the team in an experimental design. We will also explore whether it have an impact on perceived value of the purchase intention. In addition, changes in team performance on the relationship between the variables is included in this study.

Literature Review

Many researches have suggested that the emotional state of sports consumers is an important psychological factor in their consumption of viewing sports games. Holt (1995) pointed out that watching live sports games on-the-spot can induce a variety of emotional responses from consumers, such as positive emotions when the supported teams perform well, or negative reaction when teams are not good as expected. In addition, Raney (2006) found out that sports consumers can gain emotional reward from watching sports event. Outcome uncertainty, arousal, and suspense can lead to fluctuations in the emotional state of sports consumers (Deighton, 1992). Furthermore, the literature reveals that consumers’ emotional response to sports events is higher than other types of programs, such as cartoons and dramas (Gantz, Wang, Paul, & Potter, 2006).
Thalberg’s (1977) study shows that perception affects an individual’s attitudes and behaviors. Other literature also points out that the emotional response elicited by a sports consumer from a supported team may be positive or negative. Hirt et al. (1992) found that sports fans regard the victory or defeat of their favorite team as a personal honor, while the team they support won a match, sports fans have a positive emotional reaction; on the contrary, they feel desperate when the team lost. In addition, many studies have also explored the emotional response of sports fans to the outcome of sports events, including physiological arousal (Branscombe & Wann, 1992), mood (mood state, Hirt et al., 1992; Kerr, Wilson, Nakamura, & Sudo, 2005) and self-esteem (self-esteem, Hirt et al., 1992).

Relevant research indicates that consumers’ emotional state affects the formation of their decisions, including how to evaluate and choose products (Leone, Perugini, & Bagozzi, 2005). Consumers’ emotions will induce by a particular stimulus (Izard, 2009). In a study on the communication effects of health promotion, it pointed out that individual’s emotional status is diverse in the process of message processing and the formation of preferences and values. From the related literature (Chen & Bargh, 1999), it can be seen that the individual’s emotional state has the feature to affect them making decision and could become an influence factor of the message processing.

First of all, the individual will further develop the emotional feelings for the information by formulating its affective feelings for a certain decision or behavior (Damasio, 1994). When an individual has a negative feeling for a stimulus, the negative feeling will keep the individual away from it; when the individual has a positive feeling for a stimulus, the individual tends to Close to the stimulus, vice versa (Damasio, 1994). This view also applies to the situation in sports consumption, when consumers have a negative emotional response to a sports team, it may be possible to avoid being associated with the team (Kwak, Kim, & Hirt, 2011).

Secondly, the individual’s emotional state has the characteristics of providing the influence factor of individual message processing: related research indicates that the individual emotional state affects the process of message evaluation and judgment (Bagozzi, Gopinath, & Nyer, 1999). Chen and Bargh (1999) found that stimulating the positive emotions of individuals may lead to approach behavior and stimuli that induce negative emotions in individuals may cause individuals to bring avoidance behavior tendencies. In the ornamental sports event, the victory of the sports-supported team will be regarded as a stimulus that can induce positive emotions of the individual; on the contrary, the failure of the sports-supported team is considered stimulation of individual negative emotions (Kwak et al., 2011). A similar concept has been proposed in previous empirical studies of sports social psychology (Cialdini et al., 1976). That is, sports fans will express his or her association with the team by actual behavior (such as wearing the team’s jersey) when they won, immersed in the reflected glory (BIRG). In the other side, fans will cut off with the team when they lost (cutting off reflected failure, CORF). Kwak et al. believe that such behavior can be considered as an approach/avoidance of sports fans.

According to the comprehensive literature, the reaction of sports fans to a team’s BIRG or CORF is related to self-esteem and self-image (Hirt et al., 1992; Snyder, Lassegard, & Ford, 1986). In addition, the study indicated that individuals still have BIRG or CORF responses even without peers or others. (Boen, Vanbeselare, & Fey, 2002), suggesting that individual internal factors (e.g. emotions) may drive individuals establish or remove the relation between themselves and the sports team (Boen et al., 2002; Kwak et al., 2011). Andrade (2005) argues that individual tendency/avoidance behavior can be seen as a function of individual emotions. That is, the tendency/avoidance behavior of sports fans may change with their emotional state. Therefore, this study concludes that the description of the relevant information of the sports team (positive or negative message) may induce the positive emotions of the sports fans, and thus affect the follow-up behavioral responses of the sports fans.

The past literature has revealed that the emotional state of consumers is an important factor in humans message processing, and even can form their judgment and cognition status (Chen & Bargh, 1999; Moore & Homer, 2008; Pham, 1998). From the literatures on sports management, we found that the purchase intention of teams related products and the evaluation of the product depends mainly on the perceived value of the product (Chen Chengye, 2010; Kwak & Kang, 2009, Kwon et al., 2007). Therefore, the emotional state induced by the sports team’s relevant message patterns (positive or negative messages) may affect the level of purchase intention of the sports consumers for the sports team to authorize related products and the evaluation of the product.

To create persuasive messages (such as information dissemination and advertising campaigns), you must understand how the recipient of the information handles the information. Elaboration likelihood model (ELM) proposed by Petty and Cacioppo (1986) provides a theoretical explanation of how information affects information recipients. This model not only provides significant contribution to the field of communication marketing, but also opens up follow-up researches. ELM model assumes that there are two ways to persuade
the information receiver: the central route and the peripheral route. Central path means there is a high degree of correlation between the message and the recipients. When the correlation between the message and the individual is high, the individual will depend on cognitive efforts to process the message. So, central path method involves more attitude message processing. When individuals process messages through a central path, they are more likely to think and evaluate the content of message. The formation or change of attitudes produced through the central path is relatively long-lasting (Petty & Cacioppo, 1986). Conversely, message is less even no relevant to the recipient of the message. In this situation, the individual relies on other heuristic cues such as spokespersons or expert opinions, rather than the main discussion in the message to process the message. If attitudes formed from peripheral path are relatively short-term and less permanent. Under central path of the ELM model, individuals seem to have a better attitude toward the message which is consistent with their attitude (for example, receiving a message that is beneficial to the team they support). However, it is another interesting topic to explore how individuals respond when they receive counterattitudinal messages (Knowles & Linn, 2004).

In recent years, more and more researches in the communication and psychology field has found many individuals resist the mechanism of persuasive messages. Individuals do not always follow the persuasive message to change their attitudes. Sometimes individuals do not believe in the message. Even further, the individual makes a counterargument. Past literature pointed out the mechanisms by which individuals resist persuasive messages. For example, individuals maintain their attitudes by generating negative emotions (Zuwerink & Devine, 1996), opposing statements (Killeya & Johnson, 1998), and degrading sources of information. Resistance becomes more obvious when they have an solid attitude (Eagly & Chaiken, 1993; Petty & Krosnick, 1995; Zuwerink & Devine, 1996).

When individuals are dealing with counter-attitude messages, cognitive dissonance theory provides a theoretical framework for explaining how individuals deal with messages which are inconsistent with their cognition (including beliefs and attitudes) (Osgood & Tannenbaum, 1955). The theory is constructed on the concept that individuals seek to maximize their internal psychological consistency. Thus, individual cognitive dissonance will create an unpleasant feeling and will drive individuals to avoid this inconsistency (O’Keefe, 2002). In the context of ornamental sports, when fans receive a message (such as that are not conducive to their support), fans may not only change their attitude toward supporting the team. Conversely, fans may reinforce their previous attitude toward their support team. Therefore, this study concludes that when fans receive a message that are consistent with their attitudes, they would have biased information processing.

In the empirical research, it has been confirmed that different degrees of attitude will lead to individual errors in information processing. When an individual is interested in an object (for example, a team), his/her information processing will be biased towards the original attitude. Team identification has been discussed in many studies (Heere, Walder, Yoshida, Ko, Jordan & James, 2011; Kwon, Trail & James, 2007), team identification is a strongly connection between fans and teams. When sports fans receive positive messages with their original attitudes, they tend to be considered credible and reliable (Kwak et al., 2011; Tormala & Petty, 2004). Oue study infer that highly-recognized sports fans will have a more pleasant feeling of a consistent attitude than a low-identity sports fan.

Although there have been many studies on the emotional state of sports consumers in the past, most of them only focus on the discussion of resulting variables. This study will explore the impact factor of emotional state of sports consumers on consumer behavior. This study will focus on the message type. In addition, message type may also affect the reader's attitude towards the message, which may affect its subsequent consumption behavior. Moreover, many documents also point out that the team's victory and defeat is also a factor that may affect the behavior of sports consumers.

**Research method**

Based on the above literature, this study developed the following research hypothesis:

H1a: Sports consumers who receive positive messages from sports teams have more positive emotions than sports consumers who accept negative or neutral messages from sports teams.

H1b: Sports consumers who accept negative messages from sports teams have more negative emotions than sports consumers who accept positive or neutral messages from sports teams.

H2a: Sports consumers who receive positive messages from sports teams have a more positive attitude towards the messages they receive than those who accept negative or neutral messages from sports teams.

H2b: Sports consumers who accept negative messages from sports teams have a more negative attitude towards the messages they receive than those who receive positive or neutral messages from sports teams.
H3a: The emotions induced by the sports team's relevant message patterns will significantly affect the acceptance of sports consumers' promotional products by sports teams.
H3b: The attitude of sports consumers to the sports team's relevant message patterns will significantly affect the acceptance of sports consumers' promotional products.
H4a: The emotions induced by the sports team's relevant message patterns will significantly positively influence the perceived value of sports consumers for sports team merchandise.
H4b: The attitude of sports consumers to sports team related messages will significantly positively influence the perceived value of sports consumers for sports team merchandise.
H5a: Emotions induced by the sports team's relevant message patterns will significantly positively influence the purchasing intentions of sports consumers for sports team merchandise.
H5b: The attitude of sports consumers to sports team related information will significantly positively influence the purchasing intention of sports consumers for sports team merchandise.
H6: The perceived value of sports consumers for sports team merchandise will positively affect sports consumers for purchase intention of the team merchandise.
H7: Sports team performance will affect the variables in our study.

This study refers to the research design process of Kwak et al. (2011), and explores the effects of emotions induced by sports team-related message patterns on sports consumer behaviors in two studies. The main topics in Study1 include: effect of different message patterns on the emotional state of sports consumers; whether the attitude of sports consumers to sports team related messages is affected by different message patterns; whether the sentiment induced by the message type will significantly affect the acceptance of the sports team's promotional products by the sports team; and whether the attitude of the sports consumers to the relevant information patterns of the sports team will significantly affect the sports consumers' promotion of the sports team. Topics in Study2 include: whether the emotional state induced by the sports team's related information will affect the perceived value of sports consumers' perceptions and purchase intentions. The first study and the second study are described below.

i. In Study1, three experienced expertise in sports management and sports media or public relations will be hired to assist in writing positive messages, negative messages and neutral messages about the sports team. The purpose of this article is to attempts to induce a positive or negative emotional state of the sports consumer. Specifically, there is a medical report article which used as a control group (Kwak et al., 2011).

ii. In Study2, we will use the method in Study1 to manipulate the emotional state of the sports consumer. After completing the emotional scale questionnaire, we presented the sports team's T-shirt and the product was evaluated by the respondent for 30 seconds. After that, the respondent was asked to evaluate the perceived value and purchase intention of the product. It is important to note that the T-shirt presented in this research is designed by ourselves. The reason why this study designed the virtual sports team's surrounding products was to avoid the potential confusing effect. More specifically, the potential confusing effect includes the respondent's impression of the original sports team's shirt presented in this research is designed by ourselves. The reason why this study designed the virtual sports team's surrounding products was to avoid the potential confusing effect. More specifically, the potential confusing effect includes the respondent's impression of the original sports team's merchandise and the manufacturer's branding effect.

This study used college students from National Taiwan University of Arts and Mingdao University based on the 2011 academic year calendar. Both school teams played in division in Taiwan's University Basketball Association. We used convenient sampling to draw 200 respondents from the champion National Taiwan University of the Arts and 250 respondents were selected from eighth Mingdao University in Study1 and Study2. After the finals, we will conduct a post-tested to see if team performance changes the variables.

Tools had been used include: sentiment scales, sports team identification scales, attitudes toward articles, and behavioral measures. The Emotional Scale will use a total of 18 items from Mehrabian and Russell's (1974) PAD Sentiment Scale. Semantic differential measure is measured by a seven-point scoring method. The higher the score, the higher the degree of pleasure, arousal and domination; on the contrary, the lower the score, the lower the degree of pleasure, arousal and domination. In addition, the sports team identification scale contains three questions, by Likert-type scale problem (Robinson & Trail, 2005): "Being the university men's basketball team fans are important to me." "I am a loyal fan of the university men's basketball team" and "I think I am really a fan of the college men’s basketball team". Respondents' attitude towards the article is measured by four semantic difference scales: "unfavorable/favorable", "good/bad", "negative/positive and "dislike/like" (MacKenzie & Lutz, 1989). Finally, the behavioral measure of the sports consumer is whether the respondent asks for the team's schedule, 0 for no; 1 for yes. The research tools in Study 2 included: a measure of sentiment scale, perceived value, and purchase intent. The items of perceptual value are compiled according to the literature, including "I am benefiting from the price of such
The statistical analysis methods used in this study include: descriptive statistics, internal consistency, and One-way Multivariate Analysis of Covariance (One-way MANCOVA), Logistic Regression, Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA) and Structural Equation Modeling (SEM). Descriptive statistics are mainly used to describe the mean, standard deviation, Skewness and Kurtosis of each measurement item. The internal consistency reliability factor is used to examine whether the questionnaire for this study has acceptable reliability. The Nunnally (1978) standard will be used, and greater than .7 indicates that the scale has acceptable reliability. The confirmatory factor analysis is to examine whether the questionnaire of this study has construct validity. The part of the confirmatory factor analysis is based on the criteria proposed by Kline (1998), namely SB $\chi^2$/df (less than 5), SRMR (less than .10), RMSEA (less than .08), CFI (greater than .90), NNFI (greater than .90), and GFI (greater than .90). According to Hair et al. (2006), the measurement mode with construct validity should meet the following conditions: The standardized factor loadings must be at least higher than .5, indicating that the mode has convergent validity. The average variance extracted of the two factors must be greater than the square of the correlation coefficient, indicating that the pattern has discriminant validity.

Multivariate covariate analysis (MANCOVA) examines the effects of different message patterns on the emotional state of sports consumers (H1a and H1b) and their attitudes toward the article (H2a and H2b). Among them, the sports consumer emotional state (PAD) and the attitude of the article are dependent variables; the different message types are independent variables; the sports team identity is covariate. Team identity is highly positively correlated with the emotional state of the sports consumer and may affect the relationship between different message states and the emotional state to the sports consumer, so it is necessary to control the identity of the sports team and examine the relationship between different message states and the emotional state of sports consumers (Kwak et al., 2011).

Logistic regression examines whether the emotions induced by the sports team's relevant message patterns and the attitudes to the message type articles (H3a and H3b). Among the respondents in Study1, some respondents will ask for the team schedule, while others don't. The requester and the non-requester form a dichotomous dependent variable; and the sentiment induced by the sports team's relevant message patterns and the attitude toward the message type article are independent variable.

Structural equation model examines the relationship of research model, including: the effects of emotions induced by the relevant information patterns of the sports team and attitudes of the message type articles (H1a, H1b, H2a and H2b). Effect of the emotions and attitudes of sports consumers on the perceived value of the sports team's surrounding goods and the purchase intention (H4a, H4b, H5a and H5b) Effect of perceived value on the purchase intention (H6). Before implement the confirmatory factors, this study reviewed the data (data screening) to ensure the assumption is established. We use the skewness proposed by Kline (1998) (the absolute value of the skew coefficient must be Less than 3) and the kurtosis (the absolute value of the kurtosis coefficient must be less than 10). Structural equation model also used in examining whether team's record has a significant impact on the relationship between the variables of this study (H7).

Results and Discussions

Analysis of the results hypothesis 1 and 2

This study examined the effects of different message patterns on the emotional state of sports consumers (H1a and H1b) and the attitudes toward the article (H2a and H2b) by using multivariate covariate analysis (MANCOVA). Among all, the sports consumer emotional state (PAD) and the attitude toward the article are dependent variables; the different message types are independent variables; sports team identity is covariate. In the result of Mingdao University, model is significant (Wilk's Lambda=.660, p<.05, Partial Eta Square=.34), among which consumers who receive positive message patterns have better mood and positive attitudes. This result supports H1a, H1b, H2a and H2b. That is, sports consumers who receive positive messages from sports teams have more positive emotions than sports consumers who accept negative or neutral messages from sports teams. In addition, sports consumers who accept negative messages from sports teams have more negative emotions than sports consumers who receive positive or neutral messages from sports teams. As sports fans who experience a positive stadium experience, they’ll increase the exposure time of posting relative content on social media (Wakefield, 2018). In addition, the overall model of the National Taiwan University of the Arts is significant (Wilk’s Lambda=.733, p<.05, Partial Eta Square=.27). This result also supports the four hypotheses established in H1a, H1b, H2a and H2b in this study.
Table 1. Summary of Confirmatory Factor Analysis

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Dimension / Item</th>
<th>$\lambda$</th>
<th>$t$</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

**Team Identification** [$\alpha=.92(.93)$, $AVE=.81(.82)$]

- Being a fan of men’s basketball team is important to me. $\lambda=.76(.77)$, $t=--$
- I am a loyal fan to the team. $\lambda=.99(.99)$, $t=10.83*(16.87*)$
- I regard myself as a fan of the team. $\lambda=.93(.94)$, $t=10.56*(16.48*)$

**Emotions**

**Pleasure** [$\alpha=.92(.89)$, $AVE=.69(.60)$]

- Contented/Depressed $\lambda=.89(.82)$, $t=--$
- Happy/Unhappy $\lambda=.90(.95)$, $t=13.70*(18.83*)$
- Pleased/Unpleased $\lambda=.90(.92)$, $t=13.55*(17.70*)$
- Pleased/Annoyed $\lambda=.90(.78)$, $t=13.67*(13.86*)$
- Relaxed/Bored $\lambda=.78(.60)$, $t=10.13*(9.78*)$
- Important/Insignificant $\lambda=.53(.47)$, $t=5.76*(7.30*)$

**Arousal** [$\alpha=.90(.87)$, $AVE=.62(54)$]

- Free/Restricted $\lambda=.66(.63)$, $t=--$
- Hopeful/Despairing $\lambda=.84(.75)$, $t=7.39*(9.53*)$
- Stimulated/Relaxed $\lambda=.85(.77)$, $t=7.48*(9.67*)$
- Excited/Calm $\lambda=.87(.79)$, $t=7.64*(9.82*)$
- Jittery/Dull $\lambda=.65(.75)$, $t=5.94*(9.48*)$
- Aroused/Unaroused $\lambda=.84(.72)$, $t=7.38*(9.19*)$

**Dominance** [$\alpha=.92(.88)$, $AVE=.67(56)$]

- Frenzied/Sluggish $\lambda=.79(.78)$, $t=--$
- Overcrowded/Uncrowded $\lambda=.76(.63)$, $t=8.24*(9.61*)$
- Wideawake/Sleepy $\lambda=.81(.77)$, $t=8.89*(12.28*)$
- Controlling/Controlled $\lambda=.87(.79)$, $t=9.85*(12.62*)$
- Dominant/Submitive $\lambda=.83(.72)$, $t=9.27*(11.32*)$
- Influential/Influenced $\lambda=.84(.78)$, $t=9.29*(12.52*)$

**Attitude**

[$\alpha=.95(.95)$, $AVE=.82(.82)$]

- Unfavorable / Favorable $\lambda=.91(.84)$, $t=--$
- Good / Bad $\lambda=.99(.95)$, $t=19.45*(13.24*)$
- Negative / Positive $\lambda=.92(.95)$, $t=15.93*(13.31*)$
- dislike / like $\lambda=.78(.87)$, $t=10.74*(11.34*)$

**Perceived Value**

[$\alpha=.96(.93)$, $AVE=.88(.82)$]

- The benefits I get from this T-shirt worth the price. $\lambda=.96(.90)$, $t=--$
- I think it is reasonable to pay this listed price to buy this T-shirt. $\lambda=.96(.93)$, $t=21.01*(21.51*)$
- Compared with other T-shirts, it is worthy this price for this T-shirt. $\lambda=.89(.89)$, $t=16.13*(19.73*)$

**Purchase Intention**

[$\alpha=.98(.94)$, $AVE=.95(.84)$]
I will purchase this T-shirt.

I will consider buying this T-shirt under the price.

The probability that I buy this T-shirt is high.

Table 2. MANCOVA of Mingdao University

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>Message</th>
<th>Median</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>p</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Pleasant</td>
<td>Positive</td>
<td>4.63</td>
<td>1.01</td>
<td>63.98*</td>
<td>&lt;.01</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Negative</td>
<td>3.66</td>
<td>0.87</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Arousal</td>
<td>Positive</td>
<td>4.51</td>
<td>1.09</td>
<td>35.51*</td>
<td>&lt;.01</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Negative</td>
<td>3.85</td>
<td>0.79</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dominative</td>
<td>Positive</td>
<td>4.34</td>
<td>1.00</td>
<td>18.69*</td>
<td>&lt;.01</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Negative</td>
<td>3.87</td>
<td>0.90</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Attitude</td>
<td>Positive</td>
<td>5.01</td>
<td>1.05</td>
<td>20.08*</td>
<td>&lt;.01</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Negative</td>
<td>3.68</td>
<td>1.26</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*p<.05.

Table 3. MANCOVA of National Taiwan University of Arts

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variables</th>
<th>Message</th>
<th>Median</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>p</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Pleasant</td>
<td>Positive</td>
<td>4.67</td>
<td>1.00</td>
<td>27.53*</td>
<td>&lt;.01</td>
</tr>
<tr>
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<td>Negative</td>
<td>3.50</td>
<td>.95</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Arousal</td>
<td>Positive</td>
<td>4.56</td>
<td>.93</td>
<td>13.29*</td>
<td>&lt;.01</td>
</tr>
<tr>
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<td>Negative</td>
<td>3.72</td>
<td>.86</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dominative</td>
<td>Positive</td>
<td>4.37</td>
<td>.77</td>
<td>6.98*</td>
<td>.10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Negative</td>
<td>3.82</td>
<td>.76</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Attitude</td>
<td>Positive</td>
<td>4.79</td>
<td>1.05</td>
<td>22.32*</td>
<td>&lt;.01</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Negative</td>
<td>3.50</td>
<td>1.16</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*p<.05.

Logistics regression are used to examine whether the emotions induced by the sports team's relevant message patterns and attitudes toward the message type article would significantly affect the acceptance of sports consumers' promotional products. Some of the respondents of this study will ask for a team schedule but others don’t. The results of Mingdao University and the National Taiwan University of the Arts show that emotions and attitudes do not significantly predict consumer acceptance of sports team promotional products. Which means H3a and H3b are not supported. This result implies that the emotions induced by the sports team's relevant message patterns do not significantly affect the acceptance of sports consumers' promotional products by sports teams.

Table 4. Logistics regression summary of Mingdao University

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variables</th>
<th>B</th>
<th>SE</th>
<th>Wald</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>p</th>
<th>Exp(B)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Pleasant</td>
<td>-.40</td>
<td>.26</td>
<td>2.34</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>.13</td>
<td>.67</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Arousal</td>
<td>.38</td>
<td>.36</td>
<td>1.12</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>.29</td>
<td>1.46</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dominative</td>
<td>.16</td>
<td>.32</td>
<td>.26</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>.61</td>
<td>1.18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Attitude</td>
<td>.23</td>
<td>.17</td>
<td>1.73</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>.19</td>
<td>1.26</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*p<.05.

Table 5. Logistics regression summary of National Taiwan University of Arts

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variables</th>
<th>B</th>
<th>SE</th>
<th>Wald</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>p</th>
<th>Exp(B)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Pleasant</td>
<td>.91</td>
<td>.47</td>
<td>3.66</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>.06</td>
<td>2.48</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Arousal</td>
<td>-.89</td>
<td>.52</td>
<td>3.01</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>.08</td>
<td>.41</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dominative</td>
<td>-.83</td>
<td>.56</td>
<td>2.15</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>.14</td>
<td>.44</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Attitude</td>
<td>-.16</td>
<td>.35</td>
<td>.22</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>.64</td>
<td>.85</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*p<.05.
Structural equation model is used to examine the effect of the emotions and attitudes of the sports consumers on the perceived value of the sports team's surrounding merchandises and the purchase intention and the effect of the perceived value on the purchase intention. The case study of Mingdao University found that only the hypothesis H4b and H6 were supported. Attitude of sports consumers to sports team related information will significantly positively affect the perceived value of sports consumers for sports team products; the perceived value of sports consumers for sports team products will positively affect sports consumers' sports products purchase intention. But H4a, H5a and H5b are not supported which means the emotions induced by the sports team's relevant message patterns have not significantly positively affected the perceived value of sports consumers' sports team products. Consumers' intention to purchase sports team merchandise and the attitude of sports consumers to sports team related information has not significantly positively affected the purchasing intention of sports consumers for sports team merchandise. In addition, the case of the National Taiwan University of the Arts found only H6 was supported. That is, the perceived value of sports consumers for sports team merchandise will positively influence the purchasing intention of sports consumers for sports team merchandise.

Figure 1. Route path (Mingdao University)

Figure 2. Route path (National Taiwan University of Arts)
This study also examines whether team performance has a significant impact on the relationship between variables (H7). The analysis of Mingdao University shows that the perceived value of consumers has increased the willingness of purchase after the decline in the record. According to the analysis of the National Taiwan University of Arts, the coefficient changes did not reach a significant level. In the past, the research related to student sports league considered that the intensity of competition in the competition was an important factor in attracting the audience's willingness to enter the market and in this study, it did not affect its willingness to purchase.

Table 6. Two group structural equation modeling summary of Mingdao University

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Route</th>
<th>Coefficient (Before)</th>
<th>Coefficient (After)</th>
<th>Chi-Square Change</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Emotion→Perceived Value</td>
<td>-0.02</td>
<td>-0.02</td>
<td>0.31</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Attitude→Perceived Value</td>
<td>0.24*</td>
<td>0.23</td>
<td>3.03</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Emotion→Purchase Willingness</td>
<td>0.01</td>
<td>0.01</td>
<td>0.91</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Attitude→Purchase Willingness</td>
<td>0.05</td>
<td>0.05</td>
<td>0.47</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Perceived Value→Purchase Willingness</td>
<td>0.70*</td>
<td>0.75*</td>
<td>6.7*</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*p<.05

Table 7. Two group structural equation modeling summary of National Taiwan University of Arts

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>項目</th>
<th>Coefficient (Before)</th>
<th>Coefficient (After)</th>
<th>Chi-Square Change</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Emotion→Perceived Value</td>
<td>-0.43</td>
<td>-0.35</td>
<td>0.38</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Attitude→Perceived Value</td>
<td>0.25</td>
<td>0.21</td>
<td>0.02</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Emotion→Purchase Willingness</td>
<td>-0.24</td>
<td>-0.21</td>
<td>0.89</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Attitude→Purchase Willingness</td>
<td>0.23</td>
<td>0.20</td>
<td>1.33</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Perceived Value→Purchase Willingness</td>
<td>0.69*</td>
<td>0.71*</td>
<td>0.27</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*p<.05

Conclusions and Suggestions

This study is mainly to examine the issues which are important in the context of ornamental sports. And explore the relationship between message patterns, sports consumers' emotions and consumer behaviors and message processing cognition. We use experimental design to examine the effect of message patterns on emotional state by effectively manipulating message patterns; and explore the effects of emotional state of sports consumers on consumer behavior and message processing cognition. The results of the study showed that sports consumers who received positive messages from the sports team had more positive emotions than sports consumers who received negative or neutral messages from the sports team. In addition, sports consumers who accept negative messages from sports teams have more negative emotions than sports consumers who receive positive or neutral messages from sports teams. Funk and Pitchard (2006) also found that positive or negative messages affect the attitude of the audience and also change the reader's perception of the team. Emotions significantly predict consumer acceptance of sports team promotional items. In addition, the attitude of sports consumers to sports team related information will significantly positively affect the perceived value of sports consumers for sports team products.

This study shows the pattern of sports messages can significantly affect the mood of sports consumers. Future research can study changes in consumer sentiment by case studies, or explore how to use different types of messages to achieve strategies that influence consumer behavior. This research findings will help relevant organizations and industry practitioners to take into account the process of message delivery to help them better understand the behaviors and changes of sports consumers.

References


Shiv, B. L., George ; Bechara, Antoine ; Damasio, Hanna ; Damasio, Antonio R. (2005). Investment behavior and the negative side of emotion. Psychological science, 16(6), 5. doi:10.1111/j.0956-7976.2005.01553.x


Appropriateness of Sports Engineering: The Case of the Iran Taekwondo Federation

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University of Tehran, Troy University

Research question:
The purpose of this study was to assess the perceptions of the members of the Iran Taekwondo Federation (ITF) regarding the appropriateness of the introduction of sports engineering.

Research methods:
A back-translated questionnaire drawn up from parts of existing instruments assessing those perceptions was responded to by 244 males and 69 females belonging to the ITF from all over Iran. The subscales assessed (a) the appropriateness of sports engineering, (b) its usefulness (c) its ease of use, (d) it being personally beneficial (e) respondents attitude toward change (f) self-efficacy to adopt, (g) group’s efficacy, and (h) leadership. The analyses included estimates of the internal consistency of the subscales and multiple regression analysis with appropriateness of sports engineering as the dependent variable with the remaining variables as the predictors.

Results and Findings:
Results showed that the internal consistency estimates of the subscales were more than .70 for 7 of the eight subscales while it was .67 for the personally beneficial subscale. In the multiple regression analysis, the Personally Beneficial subscale entered first explaining 44% of the variance in perceived appropriateness of sports engineering. The next two variables entering the equation were Group Efficacy explaining an additional 11.9%, and Usefulness explaining another 3.7%.

Implications:
The major implication of the study is that if members perceived a specific change to be personally beneficial, they are likely to perceive the change as appropriate and adopt it when introduced. Thus, it is important for sport managers when considering a specific change, to identify and articulate the benefits accruing to the members because of the proposed change.

Keywords: sports engineering, appropriateness, readiness for change, change management
Corresponding Author: Elham Shirzad
E-mail: eshirzad@ut.ac.ir

Introduction
Progress in sports performance is taking an increasingly technology-dependent route (Fuss, Subic, & Ujihashi, 2007). The performance enhancing strategies and practices have been spawned by various scientific disciplines such as anatomy, biochemistry, biomechanics, nutrition, physiology, etc. The early examples of running shoes with spikes, fiber glass poles for vaulting, and technologically innovative racing bicycles are examples of technology based equipment that have improved human performance. As Erdman (2009) notes engineering sciences (e.g., metrology, energy science, materials science, electronics, automation, robotics, etc.) have helped humans run faster, run longer distances, lift heavier loads, jump farther and higher, and so on. These scientific fields have contributed to making sports safe, detecting and treating injuries more effectively, assessing physical limits and potential, expanding the experiences available in sports, training to be more efficient, providing athletes with more control of their bodies, increasing the speeds at which humans move, reducing the risks involved in sports, enhancing the size and strength of bodies, altering bodies to match the demands of particular sports, identifying rule infractions and enforcing rules more accurately, measuring and comparing performances with precision, and improving the durability of equipment (Coakley & Donnelly, 2009).

Sports Engineering
An emerging scientific field is sports engineering which views an athlete as a neuro-mechanical system is a rapidly developing and exciting area of engineering associated with sporting activities and equipment. The International Sports Engineering Association (ISEA, n.d.) defines sports engineering as follows:

Sports engineering can be thought of as the technical application of mathematics and physics to solve sporting problems. These might include: designing equipment, building facilities, analyzing athlete performance, regulating standards, ensuring safety requirements are met, developing coaching tools, etc.
The disciplines that get involved in sports engineering include mechanical engineering, physics, mathematics, biomechanics, computer science, aeronautical engineering etc. The aim of a sports engineer is to enable elite and recreational athletes to enjoy injury-free sport as well as to improve their performance. While sports engineering knowledge can be of great help to management, coaching staff, referees, and other involved personnel, the prime beneficiary of such knowledge is the participant or competitor in a given activity because this knowledge reduces injuries and facilitates maximal performance in a standard environment. More specifically, sports engineering contributes to (a) identification and development of athletes, (b) design of garments and equipment based on technical parameters, (c) intelligent supervision and tools to assist in performing exercises, (d) scientific analysis and refinement of sports techniques, and (e) construction and care of engineered facilities and playfields.

Application of sports engineering in the Iran Taekwondo Federation include setting up the technique enhancement laboratory, preparation of BioID or biodynamic ID cards for athletes, design and manufacturing of equipment to help the referees, talent identification based on scientific principles to develop national champions, and computerized supervision of the exercise and practice session.

Change Management

Any progress towards a technology driven national organizational sport system would entail changes in the organization in terms of culture, structure, and processes. This is where the concept of change management plays a crucial role in taking national organizations from the current state of affairs to a new and technology driven state. The change process is as important as the change itself. That is, even the right things done the wrong way are not likely to succeed (Remme, De Bono, Van Der Heijden, & Jones, 2008).

Prime beneficiaries of organizational change

Managing change in an organization begins with (a) an analysis of the type and characteristics of the focal organization, and (b) an understanding of the concept of change in general and the implications of a technology driven change in particular (Abukhzam & Lee, 2011; Besley & Case, 1993; Chuttur, 2009; Hall & Khan, 2003; Parente & Prescott, 1994). In assessing the type and nature of the organization _visa a vis_ the proposed change, the primary focus needs to be on who would benefit from the proposed change. Blau and Scott’s (1960) criterion of prime beneficiary for classification of organizations provides a clue as to who would be the prime beneficiary of a proposed change in a given organization. They classified organizations into (a) _mutual benefit associations_ where the members are the prime beneficiaries, (b) _business concerns_ where the owners are the prime beneficiaries, (c) _service organizations_ where the clients (i.e., the public in contact) are the prime beneficiaries, and (d) _commonweal organizations_ (such as the police and prisons) where the public at large are the prime beneficiaries. In a mutual benefit association, the members decide on the changes, if any, and the benefits of the changes will accrue to the members as they are the prime beneficiaries. In a business concern, the owners or their appointed managers decide on any changes and the benefits of those changes are expected to flow largely to the owners with some benefits trickling down to the employees at the lowest levels. That could be a reason why in a business organization there would be resistance from the employees to any proposed changes. As a service organization such as the ITF exists to serve its clients, any proposed changes advanced by the management of that organization is expected to benefit the members most. Thus, the members are most likely to welcome and endorse those changes that benefit them. Further, the members are more likely to embrace the change if they are consulted before the change is implemented. Based on this reasoning, the present study assessed the perceptions of the members of the ITF regarding the appropriateness of sport engineering. Our approach is consistent with the newer approach to organizational change which includes recipient readiness instead of just focusing on their resistance to change (e.g., Armenakis, Bernerth, Pitts, & Walker, 2007), and their support of the proposed change (e.g., Meyer, Srinivas, Lal, & Topolnytsky, 2007).

Unfreezing

The introduction of the topic of sports engineering in the ITF would be the first stage in Lewin’s (1947) three stages of organizational change— _unfreezing, change_, and _refreezing_. The unfreezing stage in our context refers to the ITF and its members becoming aware of the new ways or techniques of sports engineering, and be willing to accept sports engineering as an appropriate strategy. This stage would entail the distribution of a detailed introduction of sports engineering and its benefits to members of the ITF. This
introduction is expected to contribute to the unlearning of old ways (Akgün, Byrne, Lynn, & Keskin, 2007), and initiate the process of a dynamic and continuous change (Coakley & Donnelly, 2009). This unfreezing stage would also entail overcoming the technophobic tendencies and the consequent resistance to change, and cultivate the readiness for change which is the hallmark of a learning organizations (Holt, Armenakis, Feld, & Harris, 2007).

Readiness for Change

Holt and Vardaman (2013) define readiness for change as “the degree to which those involved are individually and collectively primed, motivated and technically capable of executing the change” (p. 9). They suggest that readiness may be manifested through specific attitudes and beliefs regarding the need for, appropriateness of, management support for and value of the change (p. 10). Following this line of reasoning, we assessed member perceptions of the appropriateness of the proposed change (i.e., adoption of sports engineering).

According to Armenakis, Harris and Mossholder (1993) “Creating readiness involves proactive attempts by a change agent to influence beliefs, attitudes, intentions, and ultimately the behaviors of a change target” (p. 683). They also proposed that readiness is a precursor of adoption behaviors. Readiness for change is a multidimensional construct. Holt, et al., (2007) suggest that (a) change-specific efficacy, (b) appropriateness, (c) management support, and (d) personal valence are the four key elements in the creation of readiness and the assessment thereof.

This assessment is necessary before implementation of changes, because it enables leaders to identify gaps that may exist between their own expectations about the change initiative and those of other members. If significant gaps are observed and no action taken to close those gaps, resistance would be expected which, in turn, would threaten the change implementation (Holt, et al., 2007).

Both internal and external change agents are involved in the readiness creation process. Because the energy, inspiration, and support necessary to create readiness must come from within the organization, the activities of internal change agents is important. Armenakis et al., (1993) proposed that the readiness message should contain two issues: a) discrepancy between desired situation and current state (need for change) and b) individual and collective efficacy (ability to change). Readiness is both a state and a process (Dalton & Gottlieb, 2003). Therefore, readiness as a pre-change concern needs to be maintained throughout the process of large-scale changes or ongoing changes (Armenakis, et al., 1993).

Factors Influencing Readiness to Change

The factors that would influence a person’s readiness for change can be derived from Holt, Armenakis, Harris, & Field (2015) definition of readiness for change as:

Readiness for change is a comprehensive attitude that is influenced simultaneously
by the content (i.e., what is being changed), the process (i.e., how the change is being implemented),
the context (i.e., circumstances under which the change is occurring), and the individuals (i.e.,
characteristics of those being asked to change) involved and collectively reflects the extent to which
an individual or a collection of individuals is cognitively and emotionally inclined to accept,
embrace, and adopt a particular plan to purposefully alter the status quo. (p. 326)

Based on the above definition and its implications, we derive the following factors that would influence a person’s or a group’s readiness for change.

Appropriateness of Sports Engineering

For members to readily accept and adopt a new strategy, they must first be convinced that the proposed change is an appropriate one. The appropriateness of the proposed change is reflected in the belief that the proposed change (i.e., the adoption of sports engineering) would benefit the Iran Taekwondo Federation as well as its members. Such conviction is fueled by the following factors.

Attitude Toward Change

Refers to an individual’s positive inclination toward change in general and changes in organizations in particular in contrast to another person who dislikes any change. As noted by Holt and Vardaman (2013), this is a “crucial element” of readiness to change. This attitude could be a function of one’s personality traits labelled as “change” by Jackson (1984) or the big five personality dimension of “openness to experience” (Barrick and Mount, 1991).
Personally Beneficial

A person’s view that the proposed change will be beneficial to that individual or group of individuals. As the members are the beneficiaries of the ITF, their perceptions that the adoption of sports engineering would be beneficial to them would be critical in shaping their readiness for the change. Holt and Vardaman (2013) labeled it as ‘valence.’

Self-Efficacy

Self-efficacy reflects a sense of control over one’s environment and the belief that one can perform well in a given task environment (Bandura, 1997). It is a significant trait of individuals that propels them to engage in an activity. In our context, if members of the ITF believe that they can adopt the sports engineering easily, they are likely to be willing to adopt it and be ready for it.

Useful

For an athlete to adopt a new framework for training and performance, that athlete must believe that the new training regimen will be useful and raising his or her performance levels. Without such a belief, the athlete is less like to be ready for the change.

Ease of Use

By the same token, the athlete will be ready to adopt the change if he or she believes that sports engineering will be easy to adopt and use. Without such a belief, the athlete will be less willing to adopt the change.

Leadership

While it is the athlete who should adopt and practice the new method of training, the process has to be initiated and instituted by the leaders of the organization. A member’s willingness to adopt the new strategy is likely to be influenced by that person’s perception that the leaders of the ITF know what they are proposing and that they are capable of instituting the change successfully. Without such positive perceptions of leadership, the members are less likely to be ready for the change.

Group Efficacy

Collective efficacy represents team “members’ appraisals about their group’s capability operating as a whole” (Bandura, 2000, p. 76). While self-efficacy relates to a person’s belief about his or her capability to adopt the change successfully, the same person may also hold a belief about the group’s “conjoint capabilities to organize and execute the courses of action required to implement change successfully” (Holt & Vardaman, 2013; p. 12). That is, if a person does not believe that the members of the ITF are not capable of adopting the change, that person is less likely to be ready for the change. One approach to estimate group efficacy is to aggregate members’ individual self-efficacy scores and the other is to assess individual perceptions of group efficacy. We adopted the latter approach.

In summary, the present study assessed the perceptions on members of the ITF regarding whether (a) they have a positive attitude toward change in general, (b) sports engineering would be useful, (c) the adoption of sports engineering would be personally beneficial to them, (d) their feelings of self-efficacy to adopt sports engineering, (e) the group’s efficacy in adopting sports engineering, (f) the leadership’s supports for the change, and finally (g) their view that adopting sports engineering was appropriate.

Method

Instruments

Readiness for Change

We selected Holt, et al. (2007) Readiness for Change questionnaire which consists of 25 items measuring Appropriateness of the change (n = 7), Management Support for the change (n = 5), Change Self-Efficacy referring to respondent’s belief that he/she has the skills to carry out the tasks associated with the proposed change (n = 6), and Personally Beneficial reflecting respondent’s belief that she or he would personally benefit from the change (n = 7). In order to assess efficacy at the group level, we divided the Change Self-Efficacy scale into two subscales to reflect Self Efficacy and Group Efficacy. In addition, we added two more items to the Personally Beneficial Scale and merged two existing items into one. Because adopting Sports Engineering, is a technological change, we added 2 more subscales to assess perceived Usefulness of Sports Engineering (n = 5) and Ease of Use of the technology (n = 5).
Attitude toward Change

While the foregoing scales assessed respondent attitude toward a particular change (i.e., adoption of sports engineering), we also wanted to assess respondents’ Attitudes toward Change in General. Accordingly, we included Dunham, Grube, Gardner, Cumming, and Pierce’s (1989) 18-item Attitude toward Change scale. However, we used only six items representing the affective subscale in our analyses.

In sum, the questionnaire consisted of Section 1 which included 42 items to measure Appropriateness (7 Items), Self-Efficacy (6 Items), Personally Beneficial (8 Items), Group Efficacy (6 Items), Leadership (5 Items), Usefulness (5 Items) and Ease of Use (5 Items); and 18 items to measure Attitudes Toward Change in General. The response format for all items was a Likert-type scale ranging from 1 (Strongly Disagree) to 7 (Strongly Agree). We also included items to elicit some demographic information (i.e., gender, age, education, province, background and position title).

Back-Translation of the Scales

Following Cha, Kim, and Erlen (2007), all the scales were translated into the Persian language independently by three bilingual experts which was later integrated into one version by these three translators. This single version of the scales in the Persian language was translated back into the English language by three other bilingual experts. These back-translated versions were compared by three other experts who judged that the translation into the Persian language had captured the meaning of the original items.

Procedure

We placed the questionnaire and the 2-page statement introducing sports engineering on a website. Initially, a request was sent to all members to participate in the study and fill in the questionnaire. All participants were directed to read the introduction to sports engineering first, and then respond to the questionnaire. In addition, a message (SMS) was sent to 11,000 cell phones. We also generated a Gmail account for receiving all responses via email.

Participants

With the help of graduate students in the University of Tehran, and members of the Iran Taekwondo Federation, and the Ministry of Sport and Youth, we were able to secure fully completed responses to our questionnaire from 313 members of the Federation from a population of 296,000 members. This figure compares favorably with the sample size (n=384) suggested by Krejcie and Morgan (1970) for having 95% confidence level. Participants included 244 (78%) males and 69 (22%) females. The mean age was 28.01 years (SD = 11.69) and the mean of their background experiences was 14.19 years (SD = 9.99).

Analyses

The first step we took was to enter the data on an Excel sheet and then reverse the score on the twelve negatively worded items. This spread sheet was then converted into the SPSS data file. We used the version 18 of the SPSS software in our analyses.

Reliability analyses

For estimating the internal consistency of the questionnaire, we computed Cronbach’s Alpha for each subscale. The alpha values were .706 for Appropriateness, .697 for Self-Efficacy, .673 for Personally Beneficial, .802 for Group Efficacy, .789 for Leadership, .794 for Usefulness, .748 for Ease of Use and .867 for the affective subscale of Attitude toward Change. The lowest value of .673 for Personally Beneficial approached the minimum of .70 recommended by Nunnally (1978).

Intercorrelations among the Subscales

The intercorrelations among the scales of the study along with their alpha values are shown (Table 1).
Multiple regression analysis. In order to identify the unique and cumulative effects of the predictor variables (i.e., Self-Efficacy, Personally Beneficial, Group Efficacy, Leadership, Usefulness, Ease of Use, and General Attitude toward Change) in explaining the variance in Appropriateness, a stepwise multiple regression analysis was carried out.

Results

Intercorrelations among Scales

The intercorrelations among the scales used in the study and their alpha values are shown in Table 1. As the highest correlation of .80 between Group Efficacy and Leadership represents a shared variance of only 64%, the variables are treated as independent of each other.

Descriptive Statistics

The descriptive statistics for all variables of the study are provided in Table 2.

Table 1. Intercorrelations among Subscales of the Study

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>1</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>3</th>
<th>4</th>
<th>5</th>
<th>6</th>
<th>7</th>
<th>8</th>
<th>α</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1.</td>
<td></td>
<td>.641**</td>
<td>.660**</td>
<td>.595**</td>
<td>.591**</td>
<td>.655**</td>
<td>.609**</td>
<td>.704**</td>
<td>.706</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.</td>
<td></td>
<td>.669**</td>
<td>.579**</td>
<td>.568**</td>
<td>.679**</td>
<td>.729**</td>
<td>.617**</td>
<td>.697</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.</td>
<td></td>
<td>.418**</td>
<td>.458**</td>
<td>.653**</td>
<td>.609**</td>
<td>.632**</td>
<td>.673</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.</td>
<td></td>
<td>.800**</td>
<td>.486**</td>
<td>.633**</td>
<td>.477**</td>
<td>.802</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.</td>
<td></td>
<td>.506**</td>
<td>.601**</td>
<td>.468**</td>
<td>.789</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>6.</td>
<td></td>
<td>.638**</td>
<td>.607**</td>
<td>.794</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>7.</td>
<td></td>
<td>.570**</td>
<td>.748</td>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>8.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>.867</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

** p<.01

Gender differences

Females scored lower than males on all the subscales (Table 2). These differences were significant in the case of Appropriateness ($F (1, 303) = 5.28, p < .05; \eta^2 = .017$); Self Efficacy ($F (1, 303) = 5.28, p < .05; \eta^2 = .017$); Leadership ($F (1, 304) = 7.70, p < .01; \eta^2 = .025$); Usefulness ($F (1, 304) = 9.43, p < .01; \eta^2 = .030$); Ease of Use ($F (1, 307) = 4.09, p < .05; \eta^2 = .013$). However, the eta squared values ($\eta^2$) show that the effects size was less than 3% in all cases. Thus, these minute differences were set aside and the total group was used in subsequent analyses.

Regression Analysis

The results of the stepwise regression analysis are shown in Table 3. The variables of Personally Beneficial, Group Efficacy, Usefulness, Attitude Toward Change, and Leadership entered the equation in that order to explain a total of 61% of the variance in Appropriateness (adjusted $R^2 = .609$). Personally Beneficial, entering first, explained 44% of the variance (adjusted $R^2 = .442$) and Group efficacy entering second added another 12% to the explained variance ($R^2$ Change = 11.9). Usefulness which entered third added another 3.7% ($R^2$ Change = .037). The contributions of the other two variables were less than 1% each.
Discussion

Given that this is the first study exploring the introduction and acceptance of sports engineering by a national sport governing body, it is encouraging that the measures employed were to a large extent internally consistent and were independent of each other. The two subscales (namely, Self-Efficacy with alpha value of .697 and Personally Beneficial with an alpha value of .673) did approach the recommended minimum of .7 (Nunnally, 1978). Future studies employing these scales may attempt to refine them and make them more robust.

Our results indicate that the members of the Iran Taekwondo Federation felt that the adoption of sports engineering was appropriate (\(m = 5.41\) on a 7-point scale) and thus willing to embrace the change involving the introduction of sports engineering. Further, the respondents felt that (a) sports engineering was relatively easy to use (\(m = 4.81\)), (b) the leadership was more attuned to the change than not (\(m = 4.93\)), and (c) that group efficacy relating to the adoption of sports engineering was also rated on the positive side (\(m = 4.89\). These positive evaluations of the factors related to the adoption of sports engineering should encourage the ITF to embark on the adoption of sports engineering.

It should not be surprising that the perceptions of sports engineering being personally beneficial entered first in the equation explaining 44% of respondent’s perceptions of the appropriateness of sports engineering. This is consistent with the view that members are the prime beneficiaries of the ITF. While the major function of a sport governing body is the management of a given sport within a country (Chelladurai & Zintz, 2015), it exists mainly for the benefit of those who practice that sport both at the elite and participant levels. Our finding is consistent with these perspectives. Even those organizations whose prime beneficiaries are not the rank and file members should recognize that any changes they contemplate would be successful if the benefits to members of such a change are identified and articulated as such to the members.

It is also interesting that the second variable entering the regression equation was group efficacy explaining an additional 11.9% of the variance. That is, the respondents’ perception that sport engineering was appropriate is, to a large extent, based on their belief that the group was efficacious enough to adopt sports engineering. It is interesting that perceptions of group efficacy was perceived to be more relevant than respondents’ self-efficacy perceptions in the estimation of the appropriateness of sports engineering.

As there is no single prescription for enhancing readiness for change (Weiner, 2009), ITF will need to design a program for making its constituents ready for the adoption of sports engineering. Following the recommendations of Armenakis et al. (1993), the ITF needs to first communicate a message of discrepancy between the capacities of the organization and its members and their actual performance in international competitions. Then, sports engineering needs to be advanced as a solution to the personal resources-performance discrepancy. As our results show, the participants were convinced of the appropriateness of sports engineering. Thus, the ITF should convince the members that they have the knowledge, skills and abilities needed to adopt sports engineering and benefit from it. In addition, leaders in the ITF need to offer

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Model</th>
<th>Variables</th>
<th>R</th>
<th>R²</th>
<th>Adjusted R²</th>
<th>R² Change</th>
<th>F Change</th>
<th>Df1</th>
<th>Df2</th>
<th>p</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Personally Beneficial</td>
<td>.667</td>
<td>.444</td>
<td>.442</td>
<td>.444</td>
<td>237.406</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>297</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Personally Beneficial Group Efficacy</td>
<td>.751</td>
<td>.564</td>
<td>.561</td>
<td>.119</td>
<td>80.877</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>296</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Personally Beneficial Group Efficacy Usefulness</td>
<td>.775</td>
<td>.601</td>
<td>.597</td>
<td>.037</td>
<td>27.432</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>295</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Personally Beneficial Group Efficacy Usefulness Attitude Toward Change</td>
<td>.781</td>
<td>.610</td>
<td>.604</td>
<td>.007</td>
<td>6.896</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>294</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>Personally Beneficial Group Efficacy Usefulness Attitude Toward Change Leadership</td>
<td>.785</td>
<td>.616</td>
<td>.609</td>
<td>.005</td>
<td>4.349</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>293</td>
<td>.038</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
educational opportunities, and other resources to make the readiness efforts to be successful (Madsen, Miller, & John, 2005). Getting members involved in the change process and offering rewards for those efforts would smoothen the way in the change process (Hetkamp, 2012; Kotter & Schlesinger, 1979). The emphasis on the role of organizational leaders is supported by our results which showed a strong association between leadership and group efficacy ($r = 0.8; p<.000$).

The process of managing change should target relevant human resource groups such as the media, the coaches, the referees, the athletes, support staff, and fans and followers. The informational and educational sessions would include general introduction, appropriate content for each target group, presentation of case studies of adoption of sports engineering, and an outline of the relevant technologies. As the whole idea is to make the target groups accept a new set of behaviors (i.e., the acceptance and adoption of sports engineering), the ITF can adopt the strategies of social marketing to convey the utility of sports engineering, and enhance the readiness of members to adopt the new technology. Social marketing is the application of "commercial marketing technologies to the analysis, planning, execution and evaluation of programs designed to influence the voluntary behavior of a target audience in order to improve their personal welfare and that of their society" (Andreasen, 1995, p. 7).

Our exploratory study suggests several avenues for future research. It is intriguing that in Taekwondo, an individual sport, group efficacy explained nearly 12% of the variance while self-efficacy did not even enter the regression equation explaining members’ perceptions of the appropriateness of sports engineering. It could be argued that although individuals can adopt sports engineering on an individual basis, the introduction and sustenance of sport engineering in the ITF would be largely based on the group’s acceptance of the technology and its efficacy to adjust to sports engineering and benefit from it. But this speculation needs to be verified in future studies. This issue raises another related research concern relating to the type of sports we investigated. Whether the findings from Taekwondo, an individual and combative sport, be replicable in team and/or non-competitive sports needs to be investigated in future studies. Further, the respondents in the present study read a description of sports engineering before answering the questionnaire. It has to be verified if the respondents would have different feelings and/or attitudes toward sports engineering after practical experiences with it.

In summary, the respondents of our study felt that it was appropriate to adopt sport engineering by the Iran Taekwondo Federation after reading a two-page statement about sports engineering and its utility. These results serve as a green light for the Iran Taekwondo Federation to initiate the introduction of sports engineering to their sport all across Iran. This would require the development a number of experts in sports engineering from different regions of the country who, in turn, can facilitate the introduction of sports engineering in their respective regions.

References


ISEA (n.d.) What is sport engineering. Retrieved from: http://www.sportsengineering.org/students/what-is-sports-engineering/


Appendix: The Scales Used in the Study

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Item</th>
<th>Strongly Disagree</th>
<th>Strongly Agree</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Appropriateness</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Adoption of Sports Engineering is a must for Iranian sport.</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5 6 7</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I think that my organization will benefit from this change.</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5 6 7</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>It doesn’t make much sense for my organization to initiate this change.</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5 6 7</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>There are legitimate reasons for us to make this change.</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5 6 7</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>This change will improve our organization’s overall efficiency.</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5 6 7</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The time we are spending on this change should be spent on something else.</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5 6 7</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>This change matches the priorities of our organization.</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5 6 7</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

| **Self-Efficacy**                                                    |                   |                |
| I do not anticipate any problems adjusting to the work I will have    | 1 2 3 4 5 6 7     |                |
| when this change is adopted.                                          |                   |                |
| I don’t think I can do well the additional tasks required by this   | 1 2 3 4 5 6 7     |                |
| change.                                                              |                   |                |
| When we implement this change, I feel I can handle it with ease.     | 1 2 3 4 5 6 7     |                |
| I have the skills that are needed to make this change work.          | 1 2 3 4 5 6 7     |                |
| I can learn everything that will be required when this change is     | 1 2 3 4 5 6 7     |                |
| adopted.                                                             |                   |                |
| My past experiences make me confident that I will be able to perform | 1 2 3 4 5 6 7     |                |
| successfully after this change is made.                              |                   |                |

| **Personnally Beneficial**                                           |                   |                |
| I am worried I will lose some of my status in the organization when  | 1 2 3 4 5 6 7     |                |
| this change is implemented.                                          |                   |                |
| This change will disrupt many of the personal relationships I have   | 1 2 3 4 5 6 7     |                |
| developed.                                                          |                   |                |
| My future in this job will be limited because of this change.        | 1 2 3 4 5 6 7     |                |
| In the long run, I feel that it will be worthwhile for me if the     | 1 2 3 4 5 6 7     |                |
| organization adopts this change.                                     |                   |                |
| This change makes my job easier.                                     | 1 2 3 4 5 6 7     |                |
| When this change is made, I don’t believe there is anything for me to| 1 2 3 4 5 6 7     |                |
| gain.                                                               |                   |                |
| The prospective change will give me new career opportunities.        | 1 2 3 4 5 6 7     |                |
| When this change implemented, I envision financial benefits          | 1 2 3 4 5 6 7     |                |
| coming my way.                                                      |                   |                |

| **Group-Efficacy**                                                   |                   |                |
| I think that members of our organization are capable of making this  | 1 2 3 4 5 6 7     |                |
| change.                                                             |                   |                |
| The workers in the organization can carry out this change.          | 1 2 3 4 5 6 7     |                |
| The workers in the organization have the skills to engage in this   | 1 2 3 4 5 6 7     |                |
| change.                                                             |                   |                |
| The members of this organization will easily adapt to this change.   | 1 2 3 4 5 6 7     |                |
| The members of the organization would implement this change         | 1 2 3 4 5 6 7     |                |
| effectively.                                                       |                   |                |
| I think that the organizational members’ knowledge, skills and       | 1 2 3 4 5 6 7     |                |
| abilities align with this change.                                   |                   |                |

| **Leadership**                                                      |                   |                |

76
The leaders of our association are strong enough to initiate this change. 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
The board members of our association are capable of carrying out this change. 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
We can depend on our leaders to introduce this change. 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
Our board will be focused on bringing this change to our organization 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
Our board will be effective in introducing this change. 1 2 3 4 5 6 7

**Scale for perceived usefulness**

Using this change in my job would enable me to accomplish tasks more quickly. 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
Using this change would improve my job performance 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
Using this change in my job would increase my productivity 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
Using this change would enhance my effectiveness on the job. 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
I would find this change useful in my job. 1 2 3 4 5 6 7

**Scale for perceived ease of use**

Adapting to this change would be easy for me 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
Instructions for this change would be clear and understandable 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
I would find this change flexible to interact with 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
It would be easy for me to become skillful at using this change 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
I would find this change easy to use. 1 2 3 4 5 6 7

**Attitude Toward Change**

Change usually benefits the organization. 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
I usually support new ideas. 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
Most of my co-workers benefit from change 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
I intend to do whatever possible to support change 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
I find most changes to be pleasing 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
I usually benefit from change 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
A cross-cultural comparison of sports magazine covers between the United States and Japan

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Understanding the differences and similarities in sports coverage between the United States and Japan will aid marketers in their sales strategies, as well as understand how cultures value and market some sports more than others. The purpose of this study was to examine the differences regarding how sports magazines package their cover page contents between the United States and Japan as a cross-cultural comparison. Samples were collected by coding the cover page contents of \textit{Sports Illustrated}® and \textit{Number}®, which are two magazines that are published from the United States of America and Japan, from 2010 to 2015. As the authors tested four hypotheses, it was revealed that there were significant differences in the display frequencies surrounding sports, level of sport, and the number of athletes on the magazine cover pages.

**Keywords:** sports magazine covers, cross-cultural comparison, content analysis, media, sports celebrities

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**Introduction**

Increasingly, sports are reliant upon journalism and other media outlets, as these are vehicles for revenue streams as well as cultivating awareness among fans. Meanwhile, journalists are mutually reliant upon sports for offering stories surrounding players, teams, and leagues, which help expand revenue streams and audience bases (Horne, 2005). Given this interdependence between sports and media, the management strategies of media companies are influenced by sports and the society in a broader sense.

The transmission of information has changed dramatically over the last two decades. In the field of sports, there are many individuals and organizations who actively use online media such as twitter and Facebook as a means of information transmission. The emergence of the Internet has forced legacy media industries, such as the magazine industry, to reconsider marketing strategies to sustain and attract customers. Such an urgency is also pertinent to elite sports magazines, which is defined as magazines that demonstrate a top-level commercial performance in terms of circulation and sales. Elite sports magazines have abilities to circulate their contents to a large customer base, but they further aim to grab potential readers’ attention by curating various contents (Weber & Carini, 2012). One of the important strategies is to emphasize eye-grabbing contents on cover pages as the sales of most magazines highly depend on attractiveness of cover pages (Johnson & de Lozano, 2002). For example, \textit{Sports Illustrated}®, one of the elite sports magazines in the United States, has been publishing various contents including NFL cheerleaders, Olympians, and other novelty issues to drive consumption interest (Sports Illustrated, 2008; Hendrix, 2017). \textit{Number}®, a popular sports magazine in Japan, also includes peripheral components (e.g., introducing books that influenced athletes' philosophies) to attract readers. Such novelty based issues often attract a segmented fan base (Fisher, 2011). Accordingly, understanding elite magazines’ marketing strategies can illuminate what contents and cover page framing they believe are most appealing to fan bases.

As domestic market has been saturated, various media companies including magazines recognize the needs to seek new overseas markets. Understanding the key differences and similarities in sports coverage among countries will aid marketers in effectively framing contents for the audience and placing advertisements in sports magazines. Delorme and Pressland (2016) found that media contents are greatly influenced by cultural and structural characteristics of countries. Martin and colleagues (2015) also pointed out that emerging sports such as mixed martial arts (MMA) are still poorly handled in magazines and other media due to the cultural issues. Therefore, comparing strategies of magazines from a cross-cultural perspective will benefit those who strive to understand the characteristics of consumers in other countries.

The purpose of this study was to compare cover pages of the sports magazines between the United States and Japan from various viewpoints such as the frequency of the type of sports, sport levels and gender, and to clarify whether the circumstances surrounding sports were reflected on sports magazine cover pages. From the perspective of the media industry, there are many similarities between the United States and Japan, including population buying power (Johansson, 1994), high literacy rate (Hong, Muderrisoglu, & Zinkhan, 1987), and active advertising spending trends (Statista, 2017b). However, these countries have notable
cultural differences from Hofstede’s cultural dimension perspective (Hofstede, 1983). The United States of America is considered much more individualistic than Japan, while Japan is rated higher in the long-term orientation and uncertainty avoidance dimensions. Therefore, comparing these two countries is appropriate for the present study.

This study contributes additional knowledge to the sport management literature surrounding cultural differences in the competitive global sports market place (De Mooij & Hofstede, 2011). This will aid sports marketers in understanding how cultural differences may trigger different magazine covers, and other instances of media content expression, including which sports should be emphasized, what professional level is the story at, as well as athlete gender. Numerous studies have revealed that media (e.g., advertising, magazines) can reflect societal and cultural values (Dallmann, 2001; Fink, 2015; Sengupta, 1995). Nevertheless, scholars have largely overlooked how magazine cover pages are framed from the cross-cultural perspective.

2. Literature Review and Hypothesis Development

2.1 Media Consumption in the United States vs. Japan

In the United States, sports viewership has grown exponentially, propelling expanded coverage of college sports teams, professional sports teams, as well as the Olympics. The domestic professional sports business is estimated to be worth over $60 billion (McDuling, 2014), and college sports is worth over $9 billion (Gaines, 2016). Over its evolution, sports coverage across various mediums has been extended beyond live sports games, encompassing personal athlete stories, free agent signings, drafts, athlete suspensions, and other elements not directly relevant to actual game play (Mahan & McDaniel, 2006).

Sports consumption is an entertainment staple in the United States. Despite fractured media audiences, the sports marketplace is still lucrative. As a reference, Americans watched roughly 31 billion hours of sports on TV, and greater than 127,000 hours of sports programming were exhibited in the United States in 2015 (James, 2016). Numerous media channels invest financial resources to obtain rights to utilize various sports contents like NCAA football, basketball, and Olympics (Hinnen, 2012; Crupi, 2016; Sherman, 2016). Aside from gathering major television audiences for live sports, sports-specific magazines, such as ESPN (circulation just over 2 million) and Sports Illustrated (circulation just over 3 million) also enjoy a substantial presence in sports coverage through their respective magazines (Cromwell, 2015; Statista, 2017a).

This phenomenon is not unique to the United States. A westernized country, Japan is a well-positioned choice for comparison against the United States, as its citizens engage in many of the same sports as U.S. citizens do, and its economy is collective capitalist in nature, providing a foundation for the rise of sports in Japan (Cutts, 1992). Traditionally, Japanese consumers are fanatic about professional baseball, sumo, and pro-wrestling while many sports, including soccer, basketball and rugby football, began as amateur sports that were supported by companies for more than a century (Takai, 2001). Nevertheless, the sport environment in Japan has changed since the first professional soccer league (i.e., J-league) was established in 1993. The trends regarding professionalization expanded to various sports including basketball (B.League Results Archive, 2016). Such relatively new team sports started to receive media attention.

Japanese amateur sports have also experienced notable changes. However, as for college sports, the old system has continued. Unlike the United States, Japan does not have a structured college sports system to date (Nagatsuka, 2015). The Japanese government has encouraged universities for the establishment of the Japanese version of NCAA called UNIVAS for the purpose of strengthening governance and businessization (Japan Sports Agency, 2018). At this point, the popularity of college sports is gradually rising, but only a small number of collegiate sports events are regularly covered by the media. Interestingly, Japanese people are more interested in watching high school sports, especially high school baseball. Notable fan interest and attention has shifted toward newly introduced sports although baseball is still dominant in Japan based on TV ratings (Hernandez, 2017). Based on aforementioned differences between the United States and Japan, the following hypotheses were developed.

$H_1$: There are differences in terms of featured sports types between elite magazine covers in the United States and Japan.

$H_2$: There are differences in terms of featured sport levels (e.g., professional, collegiate) between elite magazine covers in the United States and Japan.

2.2 Gender in Sport Media

In the academic literature stream, past sports magazine studies have mostly centered on how athlete gender influences media representations. For example, Weber and Carini (2012) analyzed the covers of *Sports Illustrated* between 2000 and 2011, and examined how female athletes were represented on these
covers. Of the 716 issues in 11 years, there were only 35 female athletes were displayed on the cover, of which only 18 featured a female as the primary or sole image. The most commonly represented sports were sexually neutral sports and appearance on 25 covers: basketball (14 covers), tennis (5 covers), skiing (3 covers), swimming (2 covers) and track/field (1 cover). It is reported that female athletes have been unfairly portrayed, underscoring sex appeal of athleticism. Several studies have also found that featured female athletes are hypersexualized or glamorized, posing in model-like positions (Furrow, 2012; Ginsberg & Gray, 2006; Kim & Sagas, 2014). The purposes behind these representations are often irrelevant to their expertise (Carty, 2005; Fink, 2015; Fink & Kensicki, 2002; Trolan, 2013). More in line with the current study, female athletes have been underrepresented in media coverage of sport in the United States (Bishop, 2003; Fink & Kensicki, 2002; Weber & Carini, 2012). In fact, Martin and McDonald (2012) found that there were declining features of women on the covers of Sports Illustrated from the mid-1980s through 2009. Fink (2015), in her review study, also reported that the quantity of female athletes portrayed in various media platforms has not substantially increased over time. Delorme and Pressland (2016) conducted a survey using the content analysis method on media handling during the Sochi Olympic Games held in 2014, and revealed that the coverage of male athletes was overwhelmingly dominant in France, whereas in the UK female athletes were strongly covered, implying notable differences in athlete coverage in each country. Sports media coverage based on gender has been founded on critical feminist theory (Crossman et al., 2007; Delorme & Pressland, 2016). When female athletes are represented in the media, sexual and genderized gazes are cast, diminishing their own athletic achievements (Yamaguchi, 2005). It could also be driven by organizational characteristics as Hardin (2013) mentioned that there are many men who serve as editor-in-chief in media organizations, leading a strong tendency for favorite male athletes to be posted in newspapers and on other media platforms.

Despite transparent inequalities in quantity and type of sports athlete depictions, other related variables including athletic opportunities for female athletes, female sports directors, and participation from female fans have seen dramatic improvements since the enactment of Title IX in the United States (Bower & Hums, 2013; Fink, 2015), but less so abroad in Japan. While Title IX was established 45 years ago in the United States, it has been only about half that long since a law that specifically combats against gender inequalities was established in Japan (Eto, 2010). Japan is more male-centric as a society, while the United States has made notable inroads toward gender equality, which may impact how females are treated and highlighted in society. The World Economic Forum placed Japan as the one hundred fourteenth in gender equality, based on political empowerment, financial success, education, and health (Jiji, 2017). Meanwhile, the United States was ranked forty-ninth in the same list. Clearly, there is a cultural disparity here regarding how gender is treated both within and outside of sports. It could be reasoned that stakeholders, including media and consumers in the United States, are more likely to be sensitive about gender inequalities and may be less hesitant to feature female athletes on sports magazine cover pages than in Japan.

**H3: Male athletes are more likely to appear on the cover pages.**

### 2.3 Individual Athlete or Team in Sport Media

In this study, we are examining whether differences in the circumstances surrounding cultures and sports are reflected on the cover page of sports magazines. Hofstede’s cultural dimensions constitute a key theory as we consider international and cross-cultural comparisons. Hofstede (1983) examined the cultural differences among countries from various dimensions. One of the dimensions that has been commonly utilized in cross-cultural comparisons is individualism (Hamamura, 2012; Watanabe, Nie, & Yan, 2013). People in the individualistic society tend to focus more on themselves and autonomously make various decisions, whereas those who are in the collectivistic society are thought to be more interdependent. The differences between individualism versus collectivism is particularly pronounced between the United States and Japan (Noguchi, 2007). As the United States of America consists of diverse cultures, people tend to seek heroes as symbols of freedom and success. On the other hand, in Japanese society, collective identity is generally more important than individual success. One of the characteristics of Japanese media is to pursue stories based on organizational strength and unity of a sports team, which is characteristic of the Japanese team-oriented culture (Morita, 2012). Also, in Japan, despite the recent commercialization of Japanese sports, individual athletes are still not typically highlighted, or given lucrative endorsement deals or salaries compared to their United States counterparts. Therefore, there may be a difference in terms of media focus on the cover page. It is therefore conceivable that more athletes will be posted on the cover page of a sports magazine in the United States than in a sports magazine in Japan.
**H4: It will be more likely to find multiple athletes featured on the cover pages in Japan than the United States.**

**Methods**

The authors conducted a content analysis to assess how magazines uniquely feature athletes on cover pages of sports magazines in the United States and Japan. Content analysis is defined as “a research technique for making replicable and valid inferences from texts (or other meaningful matter) to the contexts of their use” (p. 18; Krippendorff, 2004). This approach has been commonly utilized in various studies surrounding media coverage of athletes in print media (Kane, 1988; Shapiro & Pitts, 2014; Delorme & Pressland, 2016). Samples were collected by coding the cover page contents of *Sports Illustrated®* and *Number®* for the United States and Japan, respectively. These two magazines were deemed appropriate for the comparison because these two magazines are considered elite magazines in each country (Okazaki & Mueller, 2009; Kim, Sagas, & Walker, 2011; Weber & Carini, 2012). In addition, these magazines have some characteristics in common. Both magazines are general sports magazines that cover various sports rather than a specific sport. They have been published for more than 30 years since their respective inceptions. Furthermore, both magazines are similarly structured in content and athlete stories, as *Sports Illustrated* shared articles and photos with *Number* during its initial launch.

Weber & Carini (2012) conducted a research on *Sport Illustrated®* published during the period 2000-2011. So, we focused on the magazines published in 2010 - 2015 for this study. Dependent variables are listed as follows and coding details are shown in parentheses: Sport types (1 = Football, 2 = Basketball, 3 = Baseball, 4 = Ice hockey, 5 = Soccer, 6 = Golf, 7 = Other Olympic sports, 8 = Other non-Olympic sports), level of sports (1 = Professional, 2 = College, 3 = High school, 4 = Others), gender of athletes (1 = Male, 2 = Female), the number of athletes (1 = One, 2 = Two or more). We excluded the nationality of the athletes from our analyses because all the non-Japanese athletes appeared in *Number®* were soccer players, which would bias the results of the current study.

To assess differences between the two magazines regarding the dependent variables, the authors took the following steps. First, two examiners (i.e., one of the authors and a trained examiner) independently coded the cover page contents of *Sports Illustrated®* and *Number®*. Two hundred seventy-eight cover pages for *Sports Illustrated®* and one hundred forty-four cover pages for *Number®* were coded. Several cover pages were omitted due to difficulties in terms of coding. For example, since we targeted athletes appearing on the cover page in this survey, the issues that featured figures such as F1 cars and racehorse were omitted. Additionally, the issues that featured stadium buildings on the cover were also omitted in this research. The inter-coder reliability for each magazine was adequate as we obtained 87% for *Sports Illustrated®* and 90% for *Number®* (Cohen, 1960). The trained examiners further discussed inconsistent coding results until they reached consensus. *Sports Illustrated®* is a weekly magazine and has a larger circulation than *Number®* as the latter only publishes 2 issues per month and several irregular special issues. To identify the differences regarding the dependent variables between the two elite sports magazines in the United States and Japan, we performed a series of chi-square tests and Fisher’s exact tests when the expected frequency is less than 5 cells exceeds 20%, or when the minimum expected frequency is less than 1.

**Results**

The authors identified various athletes from 7 sport types: Football, basketball baseball, ice hockey, soccer, golf, other Olympic sports, and other non-Olympic sports. Chi-squared test indicated that there were statistical differences among those categories (p < .001). A complete list of all sports is included in Table 1. Specifically, the United States magazine often showcased football players, while the Japanese magazine predominantly utilized soccer players on their cover pages. The findings showed that athletes from basketball and baseball were also utilized on the cover pages of the United States magazine. Although baseball players were often utilized, it was surprisingly rare to find basketball players featured on the Japanese magazine covers. In Japan, a professional league of basketball was launched in 2005, and a new league (i.e., The B. League) has started in 2016. The popularity of basketball is still developing in Japan, whereas basketball in the United States is an established sport. Overall, since there were significant differences in terms of types of sports featured in the United States and Japanese magazines, supporting H1.
Table 1. Types of Sports

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Types of Sports</th>
<th>United States</th>
<th>Japan</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Football</td>
<td>112 (40.3%)</td>
<td>0 (0.0%)</td>
<td>112 (26.5%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Adjusted residual</td>
<td>8.9</td>
<td>-8.9</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Basketball</td>
<td>69 (24.8%)</td>
<td>0 (0.0%)</td>
<td>69 (16.4%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Adjusted residual</td>
<td>6.5</td>
<td>-6.5</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Baseball</td>
<td>56 (20.1%)</td>
<td>35 (24.3%)</td>
<td>66 (21.6%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Adjusted residual</td>
<td>-1.0</td>
<td>1.0</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hockey</td>
<td>8 (2.9%)</td>
<td>0 (0.0%)</td>
<td>8 (1.9%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Adjusted residual</td>
<td>2.1</td>
<td>-2.1</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Soccer</td>
<td>6 (2.2%)</td>
<td>89 (61.8%)</td>
<td>95 (22.5%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Adjusted residual</td>
<td>-13.9</td>
<td>13.9</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Golf</td>
<td>7 (2.5%)</td>
<td>0 (0.0%)</td>
<td>7 (1.7%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Adjusted residual</td>
<td>1.9</td>
<td>-1.9</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Olympic Sports</td>
<td>10 (3.6%)</td>
<td>13 (9.0%)</td>
<td>23 (5.5%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Adjusted residual</td>
<td>-2.3</td>
<td>2.3</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other non-Olympic Sports</td>
<td>10 (3.6%)</td>
<td>7 (4.9%)</td>
<td>17 (4.0%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Adjusted residual</td>
<td>-0.6</td>
<td>0.6</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>278 (100%)</td>
<td>144 (100%)</td>
<td>422 (100%)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The % within each column is displayed. ($\chi^2 = 257.718, df = 7, p < .001$)

The level of sport that was featured on magazine covers also differed between the United States and Japanese sport magazine covers ($p < .001$). A residual analysis was conducted to identify those specific cells making the greatest contribution to the chi-square test result (Sharpe, 2015). As a result of the residual analysis, the adjusted residual value of Japanese professional sport (5.1) and the United States collegiate sport (5.4) were much higher than the standard value (1.96). Table 2 shows the breakdown of the sport levels in this study. It was indicated that the United States sports magazine covers more often showed athletes from college sports while the Japanese sports magazine mostly used professional athletes on their cover pages. Thus, H2 was upheld.

Table 2. Levels of Sports

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Level</th>
<th>United States</th>
<th>Japan</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Professional</td>
<td>215 (77.3%)</td>
<td>139 (96.5%)</td>
<td>354 (83.9%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Adjusted residual</td>
<td>-5.1</td>
<td>5.1</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>College</td>
<td>58 (20.9%)</td>
<td>2 (1.4%)</td>
<td>60 (14.2%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Adjusted residual</td>
<td>5.4</td>
<td>-5.4</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>High school</td>
<td>3 (1.1%)</td>
<td>3 (2.1%)</td>
<td>6 (1.4%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Adjusted residual</td>
<td>-0.8</td>
<td>0.8</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other</td>
<td>2 (0.7%)</td>
<td>0 (0.0%)</td>
<td>2 (0.5%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Adjusted residual</td>
<td>1.0</td>
<td>-1.0</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>278 (100%)</td>
<td>144 (100%)</td>
<td>422 (100%)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The % within each column is displayed. ($\chi^2 = 31.177, df = 3, p < .001$)

Inconsistent with our hypothesis regarding the gender representations, the results showed that there was not a statistical difference between the United States and Japanese sports magazines in their use of female athletes on cover pages ($p = .545$). In both sports magazines, male athletes were portrayed in more than 90% of the sample issues. Thus, H3 was supported.
Table 3. Gender of Athletes

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Gender</th>
<th>United States</th>
<th>Japan</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
<td>259 (93.2%)</td>
<td>132 (91.7%)</td>
<td>391 (92.7%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Adjusted residual</td>
<td>0.6</td>
<td>-0.6</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td>13 (4.7%)</td>
<td>10 (6.9%)</td>
<td>23 (5.5%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Adjusted residual</td>
<td>-1.0</td>
<td>1.0</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Both (Male and Female)</td>
<td>6 (2.2%)</td>
<td>2 (1.4%)</td>
<td>8 (1.9%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Adjusted residual</td>
<td>0.5</td>
<td>-0.5</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>278 (100%)</td>
<td>144 (100%)</td>
<td>422 (100%)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The% within each column is displayed. ($\chi^2 = 1.215, df = 2, p > .05$)

The authors also examined how elite sports magazines in the United States and Japan highlighted athletes by focusing on the number of athletes displayed on the cover pages. Interestingly, the results showed that there was a significant difference between two magazines ($\chi^2/df = 8.280, p < .01$). As table 4 shows, 57.2% of the sample issues solely utilized an individual athlete on *Sports Illustrated*® cover pages whereas 71.5% of *Number*® cover pages did the same cover page strategy. This indicated that *Sports Illustrated*®, relative to *Number*®, more often utilizes multiple athletes on their cover pages. Thus, H4 was rejected.

Table 4. Number of Athletes

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Number of Athletes</th>
<th>United States</th>
<th>Japan</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Solo</td>
<td>159 (57.2%)</td>
<td>103 (71.5%)</td>
<td>262(62.1%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Adjusted residual</td>
<td>-2.9</td>
<td>2.9</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Multiple athletes</td>
<td>119 (42.8%)</td>
<td>41(28.5%)</td>
<td>160(37.9%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Adjusted residual</td>
<td>2.9</td>
<td>-2.9</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>278 (100%)</td>
<td>144 (100%)</td>
<td>422 (100%)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The% within each column is displayed. ($\chi^2 = 8.280, df = 1, p < .01$)

Discussion

As we tested hypothesis 1 to examine the difference in the frequency of the type of sports featured on magazine covers, there was a significant difference between sports magazine covers in the United States and sports magazine covers in Japan. Whereas football was covered 60 times in the United States, it never appeared on a sports magazine cover page in Japan during the period from 2010 to 2015. Similarly, neither basketball nor ice hockey had ever appeared on the cover page in Japan. Although there are no professional football and ice hockey leagues in Japan, college and semi-professional leagues have been developed and a certain number of fans exist for both sports. Especially, with regard to football, the NFL has launched its Japanese website a few years ago, and since actively promoted its league in Japan as a part of its international marketing strategy. The Japanese national team has also finished second place in the 2015 World Cup. Therefore, it was expected that there is a demand for media coverage of non-domestic sports. However, the results indicated that the current situation is different from the above view as baseball and soccer were showcased on 124 out of 144 sports magazine covers. It was revealed that the two popular sports had accounted for most of Japan’s issues since football and ice hockey were not considered popular sports in Japan. In both countries, the sports magazine companies incorporate major sports in their cover pages to attract readers. On the other hand, during this survey period (2010-2015), rugby was only featured on the magazine cover once a year in Japan. The Japanese national team also appeared the Rugby World Cup held in New Zealand in 2011, but lost in the qualifying round. People did not pay attention to rugby. However, as the Japanese national team won the South African national team at the 2015 Rugby World Cup in England, there has been a great excitement for rugby in Japan and many media have started to report on rugby. In this way, the success of the national team is a good promotional material for the media.

This simple finding can provide important implications to international sports marketers. The cover of the magazine is considered to represent the trend of sports of that era. It should be an important clue for those international sports marketers to develop a sports marketing business in another country. Such knowledge will contribute to possible international marketing strategies (e.g., partnership with popular sports). As we excluded in our analysis this time, foreign athletes appeared limited on soccer-related issues in Number®. Moreover, in this survey, many foreign soccer players were also featured in 2014 when FIFA
World Cup was held in Brazil. Marketers may be able to attract consumers’ interests by approaching international sporting events and appointing athletes from various sports and countries on magazine covers.

Differently, Olympic sports were covered 13 times from 2010 to 2015. The 2012 London Olympics and 2014 Sochi Olympics were held from 2010 to 2015, and the increased attention paid to the athletes appearing in the Olympics clearly impacted these sports magazine cover features. International sports events such as the Olympic Games mobilize sports fans, and so media tend to over represent and glorify athletes (Wensing & Bruce, 2003). As a result, it seems that there were more opportunities for athletes who were featured at the Olympic Games on the magazine cover pages as the period of the Olympic Games approached. Surprisingly, although sumo was very popular as Japan’s national sport, it was not featured often on select Japanese sports magazine issues. However, this does not mean that sumo receives very little attention in Japanese sports magazines. The reason may be that while sumo is very traditional and popular in Japan, enthusiastic Japanese sports fans may be interested in subscribing to a general sports magazine.

We found that professional sports have dominated most issues in both countries. However, more distinctively, there was a significant difference in college sports between the two countries. The popularity of college sports in the United States and Japan are completely different. This result directly reflects the problem of Japanese college sports. College sports had not been regarded as a source of business until recently whereas high school sport has been actively covered by various media, which help sustain its popularity. In recent years, various efforts have been made to turn college sports into business in Japan. It is very interesting to know if the media coverage of college sports increases in the future as college sports is expected to be revitalized in Japan.

As we examined if athlete features on sports magazine cover pages varied by gender, 136 issues in the United States and 132 issues in Japan featured male athletes on the cover. There were no significant differences regarding the ratio of males and females between the United States and Japan. However, male athletes still accounted for the majority of media portrayals in both the United States and Japan, which is consistent with the previous literature (Weber & Carini, 2012; Fink, 2015). In the United States, the gap in gender equal opportunity in sports has been expected to diminish by Title IX. Although Title IX has not applied to or impacted the sports magazine industry (Bishop, 2003; Fink, 2015), we expected that some improvements in gender representations could emerge in the magazine covers. Sports studies scholars in the U.S. have argued that females have not yet completely broken through the gender barrier that exists in the sports, although women have made great strides in achieving the success (Miloch et al., 2005). The gains made with respect to gender equality have not extended to sport as a social or cultural institution. Cooky (2018) also mentioned that sports have been considered the last male preserve in which men exert power to control the industry. To this end, the changes in the system may not have been sufficient to influence the sports-related areas. This could be the reason why the hypothesis 3 that male athletes are more likely to appear on the cover pages while the trend of gender equality is rising in both countries was supported. One of the future marketing strategies is to portray female athletes more frequently in the magazine covers. As the situation regarding the gender equality is gradually improving in the sport context, consumers may express more interests in female athletes. It could be legitimate to portray female athletes to respond to the needs of the audience, which will help increase the sales of the magazines.

Careful attention must be paid to the content of female athletes when they appear on the cover of a magazine. In the media, female athletes are perceived as sexual objects, similar to fashion models, instead of professional athletes. In recent years, some female athletes actually have released their own nude calendars and are financing their activities. The phenomenon of the commercialization of sex by female athlete herself has emerged (Yamaguchi, 2005). In addition, it is not uncommon for attention to be paid to athletes’ physical attractiveness, rather than their achievements in competition (Kim & Sagas, 2014). As female athletes’ media exposure increases, through female athlete personal social media accounts across Facebook, Twitter, and Instagram, consumers will continue to pay more attention, and female athletes will wield more power over their own public perceptions. The current study could not address the concern as to whether gender representation may change year by year because the proportion of female athletes was notably low when looking into each year. Future studies should employ trend analysis to assess how gender representation may change over time by using more comprehensive data.

Comparing the number of people appearing on the cover pages between the two sports magazines representing both countries, 76 issues in the United States and 103 issues in Japan featured a solo athlete. In hypothesis 4, which was rejected, there is a significant difference in the number of athletes on each cover between the two countries supporting Hofstede’s cultural dimension. In comparing the cultures of Japan and the United States, individual athletes are given more media attention in the United States, while teamwork is more highly regarded in Japan’s culture, leading to less media coverage of individual athletes. However,
the opposite result was seen here, as Japanese sports magazines often featured individual athletes in this study. Takano and Osaka (1997), who meta-analyzed past research results on collectivism and individualism in the United States and Japan, pointed out that there was no cultural difference between Japanese and American societies, as Hofstede (1983) previously mentioned. The lifestyle of Japanese people has become rather individualistic in recent years. In addition, the media appearances of athletes who play in international competitions and sports leagues in the U.S. or Europe have been increasing, and the distance between athletes and fans became closer through use of SNS (Social Networking Service) by athletes and fans. The Japanese sports culture has become focused on individual athletes and their personal lives (Bizen, 2012). Certainly, the transitions in the Internet usage rate has dramatically improved, but many users, especially the elderly, have cited "sending and receiving e-mail" as the main purpose of use (Japanese Ministry of Internal Affairs and Communication, 2018). Therefore, magazines may still play an important role as mass media. It is important to note that the current investigation did not reflect the diversity of the sport world. Various initiatives for young people, for example, have been implemented. Youth Olympics have started since 2010, and new sports such as bouldering and surfing will be added to the 2020 Tokyo Olympics. These changes may require sport media including magazines to attract young people as a future marketing strategy.

Limitation
This study has some main limitations. First, we used the most popular sports general magazines in both the United States and Japan as samples to examine whether the difference in the environment surrounding culture and sports was reflected on the cover of the magazine. These sports magazines offer general coverage of many sports, and are supposed to appeal to a broad sports audience. In future research, scholars should analyze specialized magazines and specific elements of the photos of each sport to conduct a similar investigation. Also, with the diversification of media today, future studies will require investigations targeting online magazine media as well. Second, we conducted a survey covering a limited period of time, 2010 to 2015, in this study. The environment surrounding cultures and sports is rapidly changing, and as sales of sports magazines are decreasing, publishers are required to create sports magazine covers that more closely follow the readers’ interests. It is thought that more accurate results and new findings can be obtained by continuing investigation in the future.

Conclusion
As compared the contents of cover pages of one of the most popular sports magazines in the United States and Japan, we partially found the difference on the cover pages of sport magazine between the two countries. It was clearly revealed that popular sports are directly reflected in the number of appearances on the cover pages in both countries. Also, just as in other studies (Salwen & Wood, 1994; Bishop, 2003; Grau, Roselli & Taylor, 2007; Fink, 2015), there were significantly more male athletes featured on sports magazine covers in Japan and on sports magazine covers in the United States. Since magazine firms published magazines with covers that are meant to appeal to their respective consume bases, these covers are likely meant to appeal to a largely male audience. As discussed in Yamaguchi (2005), it seems necessary to reexamine the significance of gender role in the sports media.

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