

JASFA

Volume 11 • Number 1 • 2011

Journal of Asiana Sport For All

SPORT FOR ALL



ASSOCIATION

CONTENTS

Articles

1. A Cross-national Study of Sport Promotion Policies in Japan, Korea and China
Yasuo Yamaguchi(Japan) 1
2. Physical Education in Educational System of the Ancient Iran
Mitra Rouhi(Iran) 15
3. Examining Organizational Effectiveness in Leadership Behaviors of PE Office in Chinese Taipei Universities
Ying-Hua Hung, Annette E. Craven, Suh-Ting Lin, Chin-Tsai Kuo(Chinese Taipei) 28
4. A Study of Factors Influencing Behavioral Intentions among Users at Public Sport Facilities in Japan
Ryoko Akiyoshi, Yasuo Yamaguchi(Japan) 49
5. Process of Career Transition among Japanese Ex-Professional Football Players
Keiko Jodai, Haruo Nogawa(Japan) 65
6. Gallery's Profiles at Japanese Golf Tour Tournaments on the Basis of Attendance Motivation
Yasuhiro Watanabe, Koji Matsumoto, Haruo Nogawa(Japan) 81

7. The Relationship between the Month of Birth (in quartiles) and Participation in Elite Under 18 Soccer Players in Asia <i>Lee Kok Sonk (Singapore)</i>	99
8. The Americanization of Japanese Professional Baseball Fans: The Case of Bobby Valentine and the Chiba Lotte Marines <i>Eiji Ito, Gordon J. Walker, and Haruo Nogawa(Canada)</i>	108
Guidelines for Contributors.....	125

A Cross-national Study of Sport Promotion Policies in Japan, Korea and China

Yasuo Yamaguchi¹
Kobe University, Japan

abstract

The purposes of the study are to discuss the methodological problems in comparative cross-national studies and to compare sport promotion policies in Japan, Korea and China focusing on sport systems and socio-cultural characteristics. Five major, yet inter-related problems of comparative cross-national methods are discussed: 1) conceptual equivalence, 2) equivalence of measurement, 3) linguistic equivalence, 4) unit comparability, and 5) sampling. Sport policies in Japan, Korea and China were compared focusing on socio-cultural characteristics, organizational structures, sport legislation, sport budgets and sport promotion. A similar tendency is found in the relationship between sport legislation and hosting the Olympics. Differences in organizational structures as well as sport budgets in three countries can be seen and might be related to the performance in international sport competitions.

Key words: sport policies, cross-national study, comparative methods, Japan, Korea, China

¹Yasuo Yamaguchi, Ph.D. is professor at Graduate School of Human Development & Environment, Kobe University, Kobe 657-8501 Japan. Email: yasuo.yama@nifty.com

Introduction

In recent years a considerable attention has been given to the comparative cross-national study of sport and sport policies (Houlihan, 2004; De Bosscher et al., 2008). The comparative study of sport involves the drawing of comparisons and contrasts between aspects of sport cultures, provision, and organizational structures in different countries. The increased concern has been due to the recent growth in globalization studies in social sciences of sport.

Oakley (2004) points out the following justifications used for the inclusion of units of study that include comparative aspects:

1. It is important for students to appreciate international dimensions and organizations since many aspects of sport studies increasingly operate on a global scale whether these are social trends or business/sporting practices;
2. Making comparisons leads to a deeper level of understanding of domestic provision and organization of sporting opportunities;
3. Important lessons can be learnt about how democratic provision can be shaped and adjusted for greater effectiveness.

Thus, the comparative cross-national study of sport and sport policies has the great significance in organizational effectiveness and democratic provision of sport systems in different countries.

There has been a number of comparative cross-national study of sport policy in these days. Houlihan (1997) investigated an accessible introduction to public sport provision and motives for investment by governments in five countries – Australia, Canada, Ireland, the United Kingdom and the United States of America. De Bosscher et al., (2008) compared and analyzed sport structures, policy and performance in Canada, Italy, Norway, Netherlands, UK and Belgium. Despite the fact that the number of comparative cross-national study of sport policy has been increasing, those studies have been focusing on Western countries.

East Asia has a variety of cultures, languages, religions, and ethnicities according to countries and regions. There have been only three countries in which the summer Olympics were held in Asia: Japan, Korea and China. It should be noted that there is a similar tendency in significant economic growth after the Olympics among the three countries. Furthermore, international sporting success in Japan, Korea and China is quite significant in the mega sport events such as the Olympics, the FIFA World Cup and the World Baseball Classic. Although a considerable attention has been to comparative cross-national studies, methodological problems have been argued in the literature (Kennett, 2001; Budhwar, 2001; Sinkovics & Salzberger, 2008). The purposes of the study are to discuss the methodological problems in comparative cross-national studies and to compare sport promotion policies in Japan, Korea and China focusing on sport systems and socio-cultural characteristics.

Methodological Problems in Comparative Cross-national Studies

Since the early stage of cross-national studies, methodological problems have been noted by many researchers. Also, the question of equivalence in cross-national studies is enormously complex. One of the most often discussed problems is the question of comparability across nations. In this respect, problems of equivalence constitute a formidable obstacle to the plausibility of inferences drawn from comparative data.

Certain basic problems arise in comparative cross-national studies whether the research method is survey research, participant observation, content analysis, small-group experimentation, use of aggregate data, or some other approach. These are (1) conceptual equivalence; (2) equivalence of measurement; (3) linguistic equivalence; unit comparability; and (5) sampling (Yamaguchi, 1987).

Conceptual Equivalence

The most fundamental theoretical question in cross-national studies is whether the concepts under study have any meaning or equivalent meanings in the social units considered. The meanings of concepts may differ according to cultures or nations. In order to eliminate national or cultural biases in the operational definitions of concepts, a researcher must have sufficient knowledge about each relevant social system. Theoretical concepts in cross-national research are comparable only to the extent that their operational indicators can be constructed as being equivalent.

Equivalence of Measurement

One of the goals of science is to reduce the overwhelming number of specific observations into general statements. The first step toward this goal consists of ordering specific observations into a variety of problems related to equivalence of measurement.

A researcher must generally decide what type of research instrument to use in cross-national research. According to Elder (1976: 221), there exists collections of standardized interview or questionnaire items as well as a number of standardized measuring devices. The use of particular research instrument in cross-national research is related to reliability and validity. It should be noted that while reliability refers to the consistency of a measure with itself, validity refers to the extent to which a set of observations measure what it purports to measure. It can be said that measures are equivalent if they are valid within nations, and reliable across nations.

Linguistic Equivalence

The problem of linguistic equivalence is that the same language may not be applicable across cultures or nations but may have to be adjusted to specific

cultures.

A major methodological task in cross-national research is to assure that the stimuli being used (questionnaires, scales, etc.) are translated into sufficiently exact cross-national equivalence. It should be emphasized that the issue of linguistic equivalence is inseparable from the theory and concepts guiding the study, the problems chosen, and the research design. In order to secure the linguistic equivalence in questionnaires, back translation has been adopted in cross-national research.

Unit Comparability

Traditionally the units of analysis within which comparisons have been made are cultures (mainly by anthropologists), societies (mainly by sociologists), and nations (mainly by political scientists). A number of the past studies suggested that research deal with regions within nations, comparing those that share important social characteristics, instead of comparing two entire nations. Smelser (1976: 172-174) presented five criteria for the units of analysis in comparative methods:

- (1) the unit of analysis must be appropriate to the kind of theoretical problem posed by the investigators.
- (2) the unit of analysis should be causally relevant to the phenomena being studied.
- (3) The units of analysis themselves should be in fact be empirically invariant with respect to their classificatory criterion.
- (4) The choice of the unit of analysis should reflect the degree of availability of data referring to this unit.
- (5) insofar as possible, decisions to select and classify units of analysis should be based on standardized and repeatable procedures, provided that these do not themselves introduce important sources of uncontrolled error.

Sampling

In general, the major concern in sampling is attempting to make the sample representative of the population. While the problem of sampling, to some extent, overlaps with that of unit comparability, two major problems can be pointed out: (1) the selection of countries, and (2) the sampling of population elements within nations.

With respect to the sampling of population elements within nations, four problems can be identified: (1) the case of non-comparable or low-quality sampling frames, (2) differing selection procedures, (3) overrepresentation and underrepresentation of population elements, and (4) high or varying non-response rates.

Analytical Framework for Comparative Cross-National Research

Figure 1 indicates the Analytical Framework for Comparative Cross-National Research. The framework includes two levels: descriptive level and explanatory level. At a basic descriptive level, comparative cross-national research focuses on descriptions about similarities and differences between countries.

On the other hand, explanatory level has two roles: 1) constructing a hypothesis or theory focusing similarities between countries, and 2) explanation of cultural differences and social systems focusing on differences between countries.

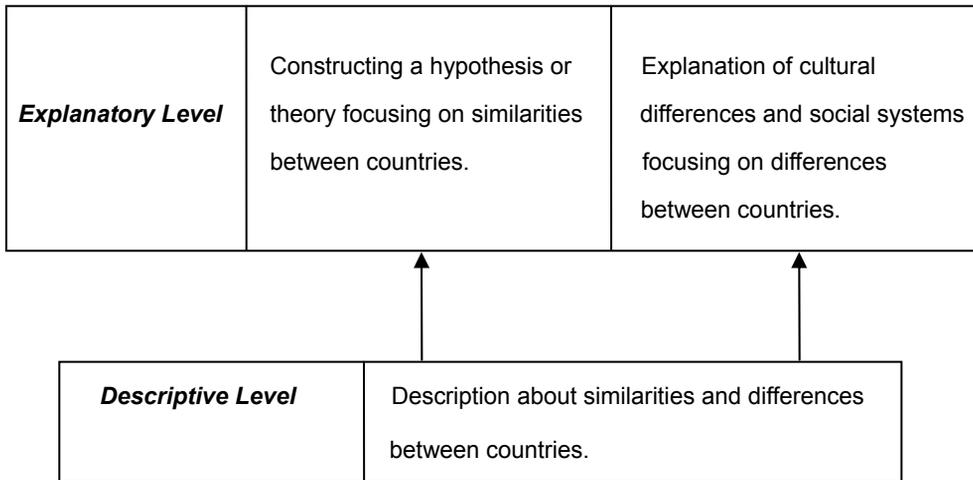


Figure 1 Analytical Framework for Comparative Cross-National Research
(Yamaguchi, 1987)

Finally, it should be emphasized that the use of a combination of methods, such as historical and survey data, content analysis, ethnographic observation (qualitative), would enhance a comparative understanding of similarities and differences concerning phenomena among nations.

A Cross-National Study of Sport Promotion Policies in Japan, Korea and China

A cross-national study of sport promotion policies focuses on socio-cultural characteristics, organizational structures, sport legislation, sport budgets, and sport promotion plans in Japan, Korea and China. Fieldworks were conducted to governments and sport organizations with interviews in Korea and China in 2004-2005 and 2010.

Socio-cultural Characteristics

Table 1 indicates socio-cultural characteristics in Japan, Korea and China. Population of Japan is 128 millions, while that of Korea is 48 millions and

China and that of China is 1,345 millions in 2010. With respect to major languages, there has been the Yamato in Japan and the Han Minjuku in Korea, while there have been Han Chinese and 55 minorities in China. Religions have a variety in Korea and China, but not in Japan. GNI (Gross National Income) in Japan is US\$35,220 in 2009, while it is US\$20,000 in Korea in 2007. GNI in urban China is US\$2,525 in 2009.

Table 1 Socio-cultural Characteristics in Japan, Korea and China

	<i>Japan</i>	<i>Korea</i>	<i>China</i>
<i>Population(10)</i>	128mill.	48mill	1,345 mill
<i>Major language</i>	Japanese	Hankul	Chinese
<i>Ethnicity</i>	Yamato	Han Minjuku	Han Chinese 55 minoroties
<i>Religion</i>	Buddhism	Christianity Buddhism Confucianism	Buddhism Taoism, Islam Christianity
<i>GNI</i>	US\$ 35,220(09)	US\$20,000(07)	US\$2,525 (09:urban)

Organizational Structure and Sport Legislation

Organizational structures are the major part of sport promotion policies in three countries. Specifically, government organization play a role of headquarter in planning and administration in sport promotion.

In Japan, Ministry of Education, Culture, Sport, Science and Technology (MEXT) is in charge of sport promotion. Sport and Youth Bureau in MEXT' is responsible for the improvement of health and fitness of the people, and for the promotion of elite sport and physical education in schools. Under the Department of Sport and Youth, there are three divisions in charge of sport : 1)

Division of Sport Planning and P.E., 2) Department of Sport Promotion, and 3) Department of Elite Sport.

In Korea, Ministry of Culture and Tourism is in charge of sport from 1998. Ministry of Sport played an important role for hosting the Seoul Olympic from 1981 to 1988 (Park, Yamaguchi, 2004). While Ministry of Sport and Youth governed sport policies from 1988 to 1990, Ministry of Culture and Sport played the role from 1991 to 1998. Four Departments are set under the Ministry of Culture and Tourism: 1) Department of Sport policies, 2) Department of Sport Promotion, 3) Department of Sport for All, and 4) Department of International Sport.

In China, General Administration of Sport is the center of sport and sport administration. There are twelve Departments in G.A.S.: 1) General Administration, 2) Sport for All, 3) Elite Sport, 4) Finance, 5) Sport Policies and Legislation, 6) Personnel, 7) International Affairs, 8) Science Education, 9) Public Relations, 10) Communist Party (Union), 11) Inspection(Account), and 12) Administration of Retired Personnel.

Table 2 Governmental Organization and Sport Legislation

	<i>Japan</i>	<i>Korea</i>	<i>China</i>
<i>Governmental organization</i>	Min. of Ed.Cul. Sport, Sci. & Tech.	Min. of Culture & Tourism	General Administration of Sport
<i>Sport legislation</i>	Sport Promotion Law (61)	Sport Promotion Law (62)	All China Sport Law (95)
	Basic Act on Sports (11)	Sport Industry Promotion Law (07)	Regulation of National Fitness (09)
<i>Summer Olympics</i>	Tokyo (64)	Soul (88)	Beijing (04)

Sport Budgets and Sport Promotion Plans

Table 3 indicates sport budgets and sport promotion plans in Japan, Korea and China. National sport budget in MEXT, Japan, is US\$225 millions, although the national budgets on health promotion, marina and water sport, parks are set by other Ministries as Ministry of Health, Welfare and Labor, and Ministry of Land, Infrastructure, Transportation and Tourism. In addition to national budgets, toto (Sport Promotion Lottery provides total of 950 million Yen to local governments and sport organizations.

In Korea, national sport budget is US\$109 millions. However, it should be emphasized that SOSFO provides over 6 times of the national budgets to sport organizations as grants. Specifically, the profit of Keirin and Boat Race as a legacy of Seoul Olympics produces wealthy support to sport organizations and environments.

In China, national budget for Sport for All is approximately US\$40 millions in 2005. Total budgets on elite sport is unknown. Sport Lottery started 1994 under the administration of GAS in China. In 2008, 62 million Yen of total Lotteries were sold (Sun, Yamaguchi, 2010)

With regard to master plan of sport, the Basic Sport Promotion Plan started in Japan from 2000 to 2010. Now, the Strategies for Sporting Nation is about to be ready under the National Sport Council under the MEXT. In Korea, National Sport Promotion Plan started in 1993 and has been renewed since then. In China, National Fitness Plan as a plan of Sport for All and Olympic Medal Plan as a plan for elite sport have been established and promoted.

Table 3 Sport Budgets and Sport Promotion Plans

	<i>Japan</i>	<i>Korea</i>	<i>China</i>
<i>Sport budgets</i>	225 億円(09) (US\$225 mil.)	1,093 億 W (US\$109 mil.)	2 億 7,000 万元(SFA:05) (US\$40 mil)
<i>Sport Lottery</i>	toto (10) (9 億 5000 万円)	SOSFO (04) (6,434 億 W)	Sport Lottery (131 億円)
<i>Master Plan</i>	Basic Sport Promotion Plan (2000-10)	National Sport Promotion Plan (93-97,98-02,03-08)	National Fitness Plan (SFA) (95-00,01-06,, 07-12) *Olympic Medal Plan

Sport Participation

Table 4 indicates the present state of sport participation in Japan, Korea and China. All countries have been conducting a national survey on sport participation, while sample varies by countries: over 20 years in Japan, over 15 years in Korea and over 16 years in China. While the comparison between countries are difficult due to the differences in sample and criteria of regular participants, 45.3% in Japan, 59.3% in Korea as over once a week and 28.2% in China as over 3 times a week with over 30 minutes.

With regard to popular sport, walking is number one in all three countries. Generally speaking, exercise and sport with light intensity are popular in the cases of gymnastics, hiking and table tennis. It should be noted that every country has unique traditional sport including Judo, Kendo and Naginata in Japan, Ssirum, Taekwondo and Nolltwigi in Korea, and Wushu, Taijiquan, Kite Flying and Dragon Boat Race in China (Yamaguchi, 2001).

Table 4 Present State of Sport Participation

	<i>Japan</i>	<i>Korea</i>	<i>China</i>
<i>National Survey</i>	National Sport & Fitness Survey (every 3 years: over 20ys)	National Sport Survey (every 3 years: over 15ys)	National Physical Fitness Survey (2000, 2002, 2007: over 16ys)
<i>Regular Participants</i>	45.3%(09) (over once/w)	59.3% (03) (over once/w)	28.2% (07) (over 3 times/w)
<i>Popular Sport</i>	Walking, Gymnastics Bowling	Jogging/speed w. Climbing/hiking Strength training	Walking/jogging Table tennis Badminton
<i>Traditional Sport</i>	Judo, Kendo Kyudo, Naginata	Ssirum Taekwondo Nolltwigi (Seesaw)	Wushu, Taijiquan Kite Flying Dragon Boat Race

Conclusions

The purposes of the study are to discuss the methodological problems in comparative cross-national studies and to compare sport policies in Japan, Korea and China focusing on sport systems and socio-cultural characteristics. Five major, yet inter-related problems of comparative cross-national methods are discussed: 1) conceptual equivalence, 2) equivalence of measurement, 3) linguistic equivalence, 4) unit comparability, and 5) sampling. Furthermore, the analytical framework for comparative cross-national research including two levels: descriptive level and explanatory level is proposed.

Sport policies in Japan, Korea and China were compared focusing on socio-cultural characteristics, organizational structures, sport legislation, sport budgets and sport promotion. A similar tendency is found in the relationship

between sport legislation and hosting the Olympics. In addition, it is apparent that economic growth after the hosting the Olympics is quite significant among three countries. There are similarities in popular sport, while a variety of traditional sport are enjoyed among the people with maintaining traditional styles and spirits.

There are certain differences in sport policies in three countries. Differences in organizational structures as well as sport budgets in three countries can be seen and might be related to the performance in international sport competitions. It should be emphasized that sport lottery plays an important role to support sport organizations in all three countries.

In conclusions, since sport in the 21st century has been playing important roles and functions in social integration, community development, health promotion, international understanding, and quality of life among the people, more attention should be paid to improve the quality of sport policies as well as the evaluation of sport policies.

Acknowledgement

I would like to appreciate Dr. Lim Burn Jang, Professor Emeritus, Seoul National University and Dr. Park Jin Kyung, Professor, Kwandong University in Korea and Mr. Guo Min, General Administration of Sport in China for their assistance and cooperation of fieldworks in Korea and China.

References

- Budhwar, P.S., Debrah, Y (2001): "Rethinking Comparative and Cross-National Human Resource Management Research". *International Journal of Human Resource Management* 12(3): 497-515.
- De Bosscher, Veerle et al., (2008): *The Global Sporting Arms Race- An International Comparative Study on Sports Policy Factors Leading to*

- International Sporting Success*. Meyer & Meyer Sport: Oxford.
- Houlihan Barrie (2004): *Sport, Policy and Politics*. Taylor & Francis Group Plc.
- Kennett, P. (2001): *Comparative Social Policy*. Milton Keynes:OUP.
- Oakley, Ben (2004): Resource Guide in Comparative Studies. LTSN Hospitality, Leisure, Sport & Tourism, March.
- Park yong-Kyung, Yamaguchi, Yasuo (2004): "A Study on the Developmental Process of Lifelong Sports in Korea" *Journal of Lifelong Sport* 2(1):41-49..
- Sasakawa Sports Foundation, Yamaguchi, Y. (2005) *An International Survey of Sport Promotion Policies in Foreign Countries*. Sasakawa Sports Foundation: Tokyo.
- Sinkovics, Rudolf R., Salzberger, Thomas (2008): *Issues and Advances in International Marketing Research*. Emerald Group Publication Limited.
- Smelser, N.J. (1976): *Comparative Methods in Social Sciences*. Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice-Hall.
- Sun, Weiwei & Yamaguchi, Yasuo (2009): Present State and Tasks of the Sport Lottery Tickets in China. *Bulletin of the Graduate School of Human Development and Environment*, Kobe University 3(2): 113-118.
- Yamaguchi, Yasuo (1987): International Comparative Studies of Sport: A Review. *Science of Physical Education and Sport* 37(4):318-324.
- Yamaguchi, Yasuo & Fujimoto, Kazunobu (eds.:2001) *TAFISA World 2001-The Global Almanac on Sport for All-*. Sasakawa Sport Foundation: Tokyo.
- Yamaguchi, Yasuo & Watanabe, Kazunori (eds.:2011) *TAFISA Active World 2011-The Global Almanac on Sport for All*. Sasakawa Sports Foundation: Tokyo.

Physical Education in Educational System of the Ancient Iran

Mitra Rouhi

Payambar-e Azam High Education Complex,
Nasibeh college, Tehran, Iran

Abstract

Despite that all cultural and civilization progress, Iranians in the ancient era has been benefitting an exact and coherent educational system. Certainly, Iran has been the most important country that has the priority in physical education and sports in its education system in the ancient era and among the east countries. According to manuscript wrote by historians and achieved works from the ancient Iran, sports like horse and chariot riding, shooting, fencing, wrestling, javelin throwing, gymnastics, boxing especially bat & hockey have more than 3000 years of history in Iran.

Ancient sport of Iran, Gym has precedence more than 3000 years. The gym sport is one of the oldest sports of world that were acceded to other countries with the Iranian's name, sign, formalities, customs, language and characters. There were more advanced educational systems and especially, physical training systems in Achaemenid era (330 B.C. – 55 B.C.) that caused Iranian achievement to growth and development stages. In this era, there was a great interest to war, hunting and shooting among Iranians and kinds of sports and games were prevalent among them. The Sassanid era is considered as an era looking sports and physical activity from angle of body dexterity and spirit relaxation. With the dawn of the Muslim Faith, kinds of sports are more developed and Islam emphasized on spreading sports including equestrian,

shooting, fencing, wrestling, swimming and running. In Safavid's Era, various sports like chess, wrestling, fencing, shooting, bat, track and field, acrobats and gymnastic had fully spread. Iranians did not look at sports as recreation and fun, but sports considered as kind of ethical rules and behavior, extension of moral, generosity, discretion, truthfulness and good behave virtues.

Keywords: ancient Iran, education systems, local sports

Introduction

Iran has brilliant culture since years B.C. and has ancient precedence in culture & sports. Although, most of cultural & sports traces of Iran has become extinct through attacks and violations of different countries; but, worthy cultural & sports traces which were obtained at different parts of Iran so far are demonstrated the magnificence of culture & sports in the ancient Iran.

Iranian physical education systems since prehistoric times up to deterioration of Sassanid government has get major evolutions and developments most of which were related to governmental & political systems dominant in Iran. Iranian nations has followed the sports with the purpose of morale, generosity, considerate & veracity elevation and did not refrain from any endeavor toward spread of the sports and prevalence of these instructions to other nations.

Sports in the Ancient Iran

Iranian during the ancient era, despite of its advanced culture and civilization has benefitted from the accurate and consistent educational systems. Natural condition and location of Iran that has been mountains, dry and without water & grass in some areas caused the inhabitants of Iran make more efforts toward removing problems, preparing and providing daily instruments and

confronting foreigners pressure. This land has been continuously exposed to the attack of various ethnic groups and the Iranians have must been strong and ready for battle. The very interesting point in history of Iran that organized the intellectual sprit of Iranians in social life was their education method. This education get the source of good feelings in youths' spirit since their childhood period and in any works guided them to honesty & progress line. At the beginning, they tried to prepare their spiritual and physical powers and educated a safe and sound society that their members could perform easily their assigned duties against their nation & homeland in the future.

Certainly, Iran has been the most important country that has the priority in physical education and sports in its education system in the ancient era and among the east countries. Whereas the Chinese not have any attention to sports and physical education, Indians also has forbidden sports and physical education, Iranians found the importance of ability and body health as a most important tool toward providing warrior and victorious army.

Generally, education goals of the ancient Iran were divided into five items of religious, power, health, war & military, economical & political. The most ancient transcripts about sports in Iran was wrote by two Greek historians, Herodotus & Xenophon that pointed to different trainings and sports competitions in Iran such as horsemanship, shooting and specially, ethical and educational contents of sports in the ancient Iran in their books.

The Greek famous historian, Herodotus wrote that the Iranians were learned three items such as horsemanship, shooting & truthfulness during their studies from 5 years old up to 20 years old. They engaged in learning different type of sports in addition to theoretical training for youth's education. In mythological history of the Iranian nations and therefore, in history of the ancient Iran, learning fighting tactician linked together with learning sciences & knowledge and have had precious place in education.

The Greek great historian, Xenophon wrote that the Iranian youth started their daily practices before sun ascent through running, stone & javelin throwing and some of their ordinary practices were living with finite diet, tolerating tiresome hotness, long walking, passing the river without wetting of weapon, sleeping in an open and fresh area, tolerating thirst and other difficulties. Riding and hunting were two common and ordinary activities which learned by the youth. Jumping on and jumping down the horse while running and generally, agility and dexterity were important goals of Iranian youth education.

The Iranian have had deliberated strength toward capturing beyond the Oxus road up to the Greek and putting different tribes in its territory. The Iranians were established masterpieces like Persepolis and applied their artistic intelligence and strong arms in creating this palace, therefore, such tribe(s) were not free of intellectual skill and combat. In historical books of Greek historians like Xenophon, Herodotus, Ktzyas and narrative sources of Iranians were expressed evidences of physical education methods. Trainings were performed in open fields but inside cities and in all specific age groups.

According to historian books and traces were achieved by Iranian sports in the ancient era, it was proved that horse and chariot riding, shooting, fencing, wrestling, javelin throwing, gymnastics, boxing especially bat & hockey have more than 3000 years of history in Iran. The great historian of world's sports history, Professor Diem (the late), founder and chancellor of Sports University of Germany, in his different historical books such as History of World's Sports – Games with Horses in Asia, commemorated Iranians as a nation trained horses for competitions like horse and chariot riding and bat which were previously played on the ground (hockey). He explicitly stated that in History of World's Sports book that the Iranians are the first nations founded the Bat as the oldest group (team) game and it was a sample for creating other games after transferring to Europe. He wrote at his book that; whereas, Bat in Iran was

sports of kings & Gods, therefore we can call it "King Games".

A French tourist named Tavrnih in books of his travel to Iran at 16th Century expressed that, running race in Iran were performed for electing the best runner as messenger. He wrote about training and practicing kinds of running from adolescence ages for distance of 1 to 3 miles and from 18 years old with more speed and distance. He added that, Hockey & Bat races were performed in a place named field, he also referred to desert running in Iran that was held from sun ascent to sunset.

Another French tourist of the 16th century named Jean Charles de Coulomb was wrote about running competitions for distance of 1000 meter and 2700 meter. Other tourists that were traveled Iran in 19th century also pointed to running competitions for distance of 1000 m. and 2700 m. and stated that, in one kind of horse running, horsemen tried to pull down other participant competitors during the competition and last one on the horse is considered as a winner.

Ancient sport of Iran, Gym has precedence more than 3000 years. Iranians are acquainted with this sport and its historical record, gym sports is one of the oldest sports of world that were acceded to other countries with the Iranian's name, sign, formalities, customs, language and characters. Famous poets like Firdausi & Saadi were pointed to this sport and their champions in their worthy traces. In Paris National Library in France, there is a transcript of Mr. Aliakbar Benmahdi - Kashan related to year 1875 together with 83 existing pictures that regularly & constantly wrote about Gym therein and in addition to different practices were wrote about athletes massaging with almond oil, rest within practices, master's song, playing tambourine and bell. This author had has special indication to performing wrestling and boxing competitions at the end of Gym. Another trace about Gym maintains at the Britain Museum that is a couplet poems related to year 1734. The author of this trace is Mr. Mirabdolali

Nejatkashan that he is also indicated to massaging with almond & jasmine oil, master's song, playing tambourine and bell while describing Gym sports and movements thereof.

One of the documentary and unique traces related to sports in the Ancient Iran that discovered by European & Iranian archaeologists a place named Hasanlu at Naghadeh of Azarbaijan is "Gold Cup of Hasanlu". Different sport scenes were engraved on this gold cup and according to archaeologists' theories, it might have 3500 years antiquity and it was related to 1500 years B.C. Scenes of chariot riding and especially boxing competitions that boxers wore specific glove are truly observe. This scene of boxing race is oldest and most important trace of boxing world's history. Two competitors stand in front of each other while wearing boxing gloves observe on this cup. Another sport scene which showed in this cup is fitness and beauty of an athlete who has broad shoulder, well-trained arms, slim waist and muscular thighs. This sports scene is truly representing the reality that sports have been considered in 3500 years ago. Physical fitness observes in athlete's body conforms to medical-sports data as a well-trained body.

Chariot riding in the ancient Iran has been the most important part of Mehregan celebration (held for honoring Mehr, light angle). Greeks borrowed this competition from Iran & Romans from Greeks. Another physical education programs of the ancient Iran is Bat game that Iranian known as its founders. Children played bat on foot and youth played on horseback and love it, Firdausi explained the starting age for bat in 17 years old. Shooting, hunting and swimming are skills that contained educational programs of the Ancient Iran's youth and have extraordinary value and importance. Championship rank in the ancient Iran has had specific importance, toward achieving the said rank, a young person in addition to complete dominance on different sport fields such as horsemanship, shooting, hunting & swimming also having wrestling skills

and techniques, ethical virtues, generosity, bravery, greatness and fairness has been obligatory. Champions and heroes were champions of the country during peacetime and were commanders of army during wartime. The importance of championship title in the ancient Iran is to the extent that sometimes, the result of two sides is pending on victory or fail of one of the champions who were commanders of army. Ancient Iranian has suffered much and has full planning concerning achievement a sound, healthy and well-trained society.

Educational Systems of Local Sports during Different Eras

The Achaemenid Era

There were more advanced educational systems and especially, physical training systems in Achaemenid era (330 B.C. – 55 B.C.) that caused Iranian achievement to growth and development stages. Elementary education has public aspect and all children from any rank or class were learned reading, writing, calculation, gardening and farming, started their studies from 4-7 years old in schools, their education period is depending on physical & spiritual strength and social needs of the child. Students were divided into three groups:

1. Children of courtiers, polices, frontier officials and officers that have specific martial and statecraft trainings.
2. A group that have professional trainings such as children of artisans, handicraftsmen and farmers.
3. Children of teachers, employees and merchants that learned administrative and economical sciences.

Concerning education method of children, Xenophon in “Cyrus Biography” book believes that: Iranians built a specific place named “Freedom Station” for education next to king palace which have four sections: Specific for children, adolescence, full-grown men & adults.

Herodotus, the Greek historian of 5th Century B.C. about education method of Iranian children also mentioned that the Persian nations hardly tried in education of their children. Children up to 5 years old were trained by their mother and then by teachers. They learned Zoroastrian well ceremonies, riding, shooting and veracity to their children and accustomed them with running, tolerating coldness and hotness, using different weapons, horsemanship and chariot riding and their great specification were generosity & bravery.

Ktzyas, the Greek physician of the court of Achaemenid Second Artaxerxes, stated in his book that, Persian nations trained youth for hunting, early rising in cold and hot weather, patience, walking, running and shooting. Through trumpet sound, the youth get ready, wake up before sun rising, gathered at a specific place, divided into 50-member groups and each group were consigned to one of masters. In these groups, they must talking loud and firm for fortification their lung. They learned passing the river without wetting their weapons. Hunting through javelin, bow and arrow, sling and swimming were among their daily programs. Children learned shooting by bow and arrow since childhood age and continued up to 16-17 years old. Then, up to 26 years old assigned for protecting cities and then entered to mature and strong men group and participated in wars. Cyrus repeatedly gathered different tribes and acquainted them with martial tactician.

Holding sport competitions were interested affair by the public too. In most fields such as running that considered as oldest sport of Iran, races were held in the presence of king and awarded gifts by the best runner and distinguished runners were assigned for sending orders and letters. In horsemanship, specific races were held under supervision of Cyrus.

Xenophon stated in "Cyropaedia" that whenever Cyrus found a suitable place, assigned five masters for signing (1 km) and ordered horse riding to equestrians that dividend into different groups according to their nationality.

Cyrus was a skilled equestrian too and a horse was awarded to winner. Herodotus stated in his book, while passing Xerxes from Thessaly whereas he heard that Thessalian Cavalry were well-known in Greece, he was held a competition between Persian & Thessalian horses in order to examining Persian horses and therefore, Persian horses get superiority over Thessalian horses.

In Achaemenid Era, other sport fields were customary in Iran like Bat. Bat is one of the sport fields that Iranians were master in it and considered among their inventions and sometimes was known as “Bat” and sometimes as “Ball”.

The Phartians (Arsacides) Era

The Phartians (Arsacides) were in power between two splendiferous kingdoms of Achaemenid and Sassanid, actions and tasks were performed in Iran always shown most faint against the above mentioned two kingdoms and while there is no exact information thereof, research about sports in that era will be required more research and consideration. Nevertheless, Arsacides' attention to physical education has been fewer in comparison with Achaemenids.

In this era, there was a great interest to war, hunting and shooting among Iranians and kinds of sports and games were prevalent among them. Romans praised skill and power of Iranian soldiers in shooting that has been expressed as proverb in Virgil's poems, a poet of Ancient Rome. Remained works from Arsacides era explicitly shows the valorization of this kingdom for physical capabilities. Some reliefs show Arsacides kings on horse riding, javelin throwing & shooting.

The Sassanid Era

The Sassanid era is considered as an era looking sports and physical activity from angle of body dexterity and spirit relaxation not from angle of readiness for war and fighting. Therefore, it has specific importance in sports

history of the ancient Iran. The Sassanid's kings were interested in sports, have participated in several sports activities, and encouraged other athletes to sports. Many of them such as Hormuz I and Shapur II called as "Valiant". In this era, physical capabilities of kings were most important role in electing them as a king and someone could attain this rank must be strong and winner in sports competitions. In the event that, Bahram V (Bahram Gur) successfully obtained the crown bravely which placed between two lions by the great in a competition for possessing the throne with Khosrow Parviz and became the King of Iran.

There are several pictures of hunting, horsemanship, shooting with bow and throwing javelin in most of remained traces from Sassanid era. It is noteworthy that, differences between traces of Sassanid era with previous eras are existing pictures of festivity, music and dance ceremonies. Swimming was being considered in this era and Iranians learned children swimming while bathing around rivers. Wrestling was also being considered in this era and champions and winners were get Hero rank and heroes for attaining Hero rank has wrestled once per year at the presence of kings and court officials. In addition, the hero has benefitted some privileges thereof.

In Sassanid era, horse considered as one of the family members and each Iranian young person tried to learning horsemanship and became a good equestrian. Youth following the King engaged in hunting and shooting and used their family signs on competition's horses.

In Shahnameh and other historical books repetitively pointed to Bat in the Sassanid era. Sometimes, women also successfully participated in this game. Bat has been one of the training items of the Iranian youngers for a long time. Historians pointed an Iranian old book named "Bat Instructions for Princes" that one chapter therein indicated for expressing regulations, formalities and instructions of this game and method of taking bat and riding horse.

Board up the nuts or pellets were the ancient games of Iran that spread

among Arabs after Islam. Soapberry or nuts were the small pellets made of mud or stone or lead. Sometimes it also called as the Iranian warheads. Iranians throw them up like arrow with the bow and using feral animals and birds for hunting were prevalent among Iranians. Iranians learned chess that reinforced the mental faculties from Indians and using chess in the Sassanid era has been usual.

After the Islam Era

With the dawn of the Muslim Faith, kinds of sports are more developed and Islam emphasized on spreading sports including equestrian, shooting, fencing, wrestling, swimming and running. Physicians of Islamic era such as Avicenna and Abu Bakr Bokhara, student of Zakaria Razi emphasized on importance of kinds of sports in body and soul health in their works, but, whatever was important by Iranians, their differences with Greek were in their looks and views to sports. Iranians did not look at sports as recreation and fun, but sports considered as kind of ethical rules and behavior, extension of moral, generosity, discretion, truthfulness and good behave virtues and their view look likes thoughts of the modern Olympics. In addition, Iranian approaches to sports emphasized and promoted ambition, tolerance, patience, friendship, understanding, honesty, humility, courage and self-focused and sports also has close relation with religion.

In Safavid's Era, various sports like chess, wrestling, fencing, shooting, bat, track and field, acrobats and gymnastic had fully spread. The great masterpieces of epepee after Islam were found in Shahnameh and then in Garshasnameh, Borzunameh, Bahmannameh & other epepee stories.

Conclusion

People all around the world are aware of the influence of Iran in development of global civilization during the ancient era and the Islamic era and

they believe that this country has been one the most important origins of improvement of civilization around the world.

Sport in Iran is an evident of this effect. There have been a lot of religious instructions and sport capabilities which are propagated from this region to other countries and nations, and nowadays everyone enjoys their old Iranian cultural criterions whether ethical or literal, while they don't have any sign of Iranian nature.

Sports have played a very important role in education of the Ancient Iran. Iranians used to train spiritual and physical powers of their children together and prepare them for serving their country and people. Youths should have started their exercises before sunrise and performed very hard exercises for increasing their physical power. Herodotus has said about Iranians "Iranians teach their children to sit upright, tell the truth and shoot right". Xenophon who has written his history in "the Great Cyrus Education", in respect of physical education always reminds of military trainings, horse riding and prey, and tells about the education of teachers and their bravery.

Iranians had never forgotten that their children should have acceptable and honorable characteristics. Shooting, prey and swimming were such important skills included in education programs of youths in the Ancient Iran. It was very prominent to reach to the championship rank in that era. In order to reach championship rank it was necessary to be skilled in different sports fields such as horse riding, shooting, prey and swimming, and to have proficiency in techniques and secrets of wrestling, good conduct, magnanimity, bravery, noble and justice. Ancient Iranians made plenty of programs and had suffered a lot in order to have a healthy and powerful society.

In the Islamic era many social institutions had been changed, and sports – still preserving its spiritual and bravery aspect – stepped with the same Iranian quality into a new period of civilization i.e. Islamic civilization, and placed in the

situation of generosity and errantry, and trained so many brave and lionhearted champions which their spiritual aspects were situated in Persian literature, their obvious sample could be seen in Gym sports and wrestling which still have a specific place among Iranians.

References & Resources

1. Gholamreza Ensafpour (1974), Gym Club History and Culture and social Groups thereof, Tehran, State Anthropology Center.
2. Hassan Bastani Rad, Amir Hosseini, Hayedeh Sirafi (2007), History of Iran's Sport (1), Tehran, Komiteye Melli Olampic (Olympic National Committee) Publication.
3. Parto Beyzaei Kasjani (1958), History of Ancient Sport, Tehran.
4. Hassan Pirnia (1994), Ancient Iran, Tehran, Donyaye Ketab (Book World) Publication.
5. Naser Takmil Homayoun (2003), Educational Systems & Associations in the Ancient Iran, Tehran, Human Sciences Cultural Studies Research Center.
6. Henry Corbin (2006), Generosity Virtues, translated by Ehsan Naraghi, Second Printing, Tehran, Sokhan Publication.
7. Xenophon (1962), Cyrus Biography, translated by Reza Mashayekhi, Tehran, Book Publication & Translation Institution .
8. Xenophon (1971), Cyrus Biography, translated by Vahid Mazandarani, Tehran, Pocket Books Publication.
9. Roman Girshman (1995) Iran from the beginning up to Islam, translated by Mohammad Moein, Tehran, Scientific & Cultural.
10. Herodotus (1989), Histories, translated by Vahid Mazandarani, Tehran, (Book World) publication.

Examining Organizational Effectiveness in Leadership Behaviors of PE Office in Chinese Taipei Universities

Ying-Hua Hung¹

National Formosa University, Chinese Taipei

Annette E. Craven

University of the Incarnate Word, USA

Suh-Ting Lin

Tamkang University, Chinese Taipei

Chin-Tsai Kuo

Naanhua University, Chinese Taipei

Abstract

The purpose of this study was to predict the organizational effectiveness of the Physical Education (PE) Office in Chinese Taipei universities. The Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ-5X) was used in this study. The response rate was 68%. The results showed as the following: First, the idealized influence (attributed) (II-A), active management-by-exception (MBE-A) leadership behaviors, and followers' extra effort, satisfaction leadership outcomes directly and positively influence the PE office effectiveness. Second, inspirational motivation (IM), contingent reward (CR) leadership behaviors, and followers'

¹Ying-Hua Hung is associate professor of Physical Education Office at National Formosa University, Chinese Taipei
P.O. Box 6-35 Huwei, Yunlin, Chinese Taipei
E-mail: sakura@nfu.edu.tw

satisfaction indirectly and positively influence the PE office effectiveness by followers' extra effort. Third, idealized influence (behavior) (II-B) indirectly and negatively influences PE office effectiveness by followers' satisfaction. Fourth, intellectual stimulation (IS) and individual consideration (IC) leadership behaviors indirectly and positively influence the PE office effectiveness by followers' satisfaction. Finally, the transformational leadership behavior directly and positively influences the PE office effectiveness, followers' extra effort, and satisfaction. The laissez-faire leadership behavior directly and negatively influences the followers' satisfaction.

Overall, the summarized conclusions include two points. First, II-A, IM, IS, IC, CR, and MBE-A leadership behaviors, directly or indirectly, influence organizational effectiveness positively. Second, II-B and laissez-faire leadership behaviors indirectly and negatively influence organizational effectiveness.

Key words: organizational effectiveness, leadership behavior, physical education

Introduction

A successful organization comes from the organizational atmosphere, followers' work attitude, and the leader. Leadership is a process of interaction between the leader, followers, and situation. It influences the followers' satisfaction and extra effort, and directly or indirectly influences the organizational effectiveness. Burns (1978, p.2) said, leadership is a universal human phenomenon, and it is one of the most observed and least understood phenomena on earth. There are four major eras in the study of leadership. They are the Trait Era, the Behavior Era, the Contingent Era, and the popular trends of new leadership. These eras reflect a change in how leadership is viewed from a focus on the leaders' personal traits to a focus on the situation, and finally to more focus on the leader's ability to inspire and the followers'

motivation to reach personal achievement and organizational goals.

Burns identified transactional and transformational leadership styles by researching political leaders. Bass and Avolio (1994) identified non-leadership (laissez-faire leadership), transactional leadership, and transformational leadership in the Full-Range of Leadership Model. It displays the leadership continuum ranges from ineffective to effective leadership, passive to active leadership, and varying frequency continuums for different leadership behaviors. The full-range of leadership is one kind of leadership in the new leadership era. It includes three dimensions of leadership behaviors identified in the MLQ: transformational leadership, transactional leadership, and laissez-faire leadership behaviors. The three leadership styles evaluated from nine characteristics, which included (a) charisma and inspiration includes idealized influence (attributed), idealized influence (behavior), and inspirational motivation. (b) intellectual stimulation, (c) individual consideration, (d) contingent reward, (e) active management-by-exception, (f) passive management-by-exception, (g) laissez-faire. The higher the frequency of behaviors in the nine characteristics form (c) to (a) has more effective and higher the achievement of the organizations. On the other hand, the higher the frequency of laissez-faire leadership behaviors, the more passive and less effective the leadership in an organization (Bryman, 1992; Northouse, 2001). Furthermore, the MLQ also evaluates the followers' extra effort, organizational effectiveness, and followers' satisfaction with their leaders (Bass & Avolio, 2000).

Most effective leaders combine both transactional and transformational leadership behaviors in different amounts (Bass, 1985; Tang, 1997; Avolio, Bass, & Jung, 1999; Yukl, 2002). Both the transactional and transformational leadership behaviors represent an active and constructive form of leadership (Yammarino & Bass, 1990; Singer & Singer, 1990; Lowe, Galen Kroeck, &

Sivasubramaniam, 1996; Bass, 1997; Yukl, 1998; Avolio et al., 1999; Bass & Avolio, 2000). Both them also had a significant positive correlation between followers' extra effort, organizational effectiveness, and followers' satisfaction in the PE offices. The laissez-faire leadership behaviors did not (Hung, 2003).

Most of leadership research literature focuses on followers' motivation, satisfaction, extra effort in business, marketing, and/or education. Many researchers also have provided evidence that transformational leadership has a more positive and stronger correlation with organizational effectiveness (including leader's effectiveness and followers' effectiveness), followers' satisfaction, and followers' extra effort (Yammarino & Bass, 1990; Singer & Singer, 1990; Lowe et al., 1996; Bass, 1997; Yukl, 1998; Avolio et al., 1999; Bass & Avolio, 2000), few studies related to each leadership behaviors of Full-Range of Leadership of PE Office. Therefore, the purpose of this study was to predict the organizational effectiveness in leadership behaviors of the PE Office in Chinese Taipei universities.

Methodology

Research Design

A quantitative survey methodology was used in this study. This was accomplished using the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ-5X). Each questionnaire has documented reliability and validity, and the appropriate permissions were obtained. Research design include participants, data collection, data analysis, and comes out the conclusions.

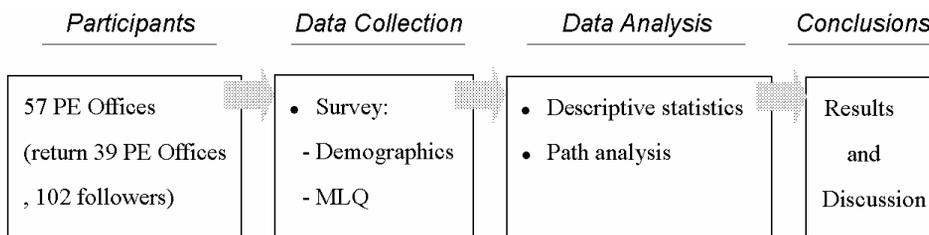


Figure 1 Research design procedure

Participants

Higher education in Chinese Taipei includes different types of public and private schools, such as junior colleges, universities of technology and institutes of technology, universities and independent colleges, normal universities and teachers colleges, and open universities (long-distance learning academies). This non-parametric study involved the entire population of 27 public and 30 private universities. The potential participants included 285 followers (5 followers for each director) in this study.

A research package was sent to those 57 universities Physical Education Offices. It included one introductory letter to the Physical Education Office director (leader), and five separate envelopes for five followers. The 285 followers were asked to evaluate his or her respective director using the MLQ-5X rater form. All the survey responses were anonymous and confidential. This study focused only on universities so as to serve as a model study that could later be applied to other institutions of the same academic level.

Instruments

Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ-5X short form, Chinese version). (Bass & Avolio, 2000). There were 45 items which is comprised of both leader and rater forms. The MLQ-5X included three leadership styles and three outcome factors. The three leadership styles were transformational,

transactional, and laissez-faire. The nine leadership scale components included: idealized influence (attributed charisma), idealized influence (charismatic behavior), inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation, individual consideration, contingent reward, management-by-exception (active), management-by-exception (passive), and laissez-faire leadership behaviors. The three outcomes included: followers' extra effort, organizational effectiveness, and followers' satisfaction with their leader.

The preliminary reliabilities for the total 45 items of the nine leadership scales ranged from .74 to .94. An intercorrelation of .64 to .92 was identified for the six-factor model but did not include the outcome factors (as cited in Bass & Avolio, 2000). The range of each of the 45 items was rated on a 5-point scale from 0 (not at all), 1 (once in a while), 2 (sometimes), 3 (fairly often), to 4 (frequently, if not always).

Data Analysis

The quantitative data from this study were analyzed using the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences 10.0 (SPSS 10.0), which included descriptive statistics and Spearman rank correlations. The alpha was set at .05 ($\alpha = .05$) and the confidence level was 95%.

The Cronbach alpha coefficient was used first to ensure the internal consistency reliability of the MLQ-5X of the Chinese traditional character version.

The descriptive statistics were used on the demographic data and included means, standard deviations (SD), and percentages to describe the current leadership of Physical Education Offices in Chinese Taipei universities.

The study used Pearson Product Moment Correlations matrix and variance inflation factors (VIF) to examine the multi-collinearity among study variables. Furthermore, the path analysis was applied for the relationship between

different leadership behaviors, leadership outcomes, and organizational effectiveness. The enter method was used in the regression model, and there were four steps in the following:

First, the leadership behavior factors and leadership outcomes (followers' extra effort, and followers' satisfaction) was used to predict organizational effectiveness (PE office effectiveness).

Second, the leadership behavior factors and followers' satisfaction was used to predict the PE office followers' extra effort.

Third, the leadership behavior factors were used to predict the PE office followers' satisfaction.

Fourth, the transformational, transactional, and laissez-faire leadership styles were separated to predict the PE office effectiveness, followers' extra effort, and followers' satisfaction.

Results

Descriptive Statistics

The response rate was 68%, which included 102 followers from 39 PE offices of 57 universities. The rater form is completed at least by 2 followers to evaluate the director of each PE office in this study.

The MLQ-5X included two different forms: the leader form and the rater form. The leader form is a director's self-rating on leadership. The rater form is completed by followers and evaluated a director for each Physical Education Office in this study. The Cronbach alpha coefficient was used to report the internal consistency of the MLQ-5X score and its six-factors. Reliabilities for the initial MLQ-5X items ranged from .74 to .94 as demonstrated in Table 1. Reliabilities for the six-factors of the MLQ-5X ranged from .64 to .92 and did not include the leadership outcomes, which were also measured by the MLQ-5X (Bass & Avolio, 2000). In this study, the reliabilities for MLQ-5X items ranged

from .38 to .91. No self-ratings were included for all of the above reliability reports (see Table 1).

Table 1 Reliability of Cronbach alpha coefficient of MLQ-5X

Scale	MLQ-5X (Initial)	MLQ-5X (Six-factors)	This study
Transformational leadership			.91
Charisma & inspirational		.92	.85
Idealized influence - attributed	.86		.41
Idealized influence - behavior	.87		.61
Inspirational motivation	.91		.83
Intellectual stimulation	.90	.78	.77
Individual consideration	.90	.78	.85
Transactional leadership			.53
Contingent reward	.87	.74	.68
Management-by-exception (active)	.74	.64	.38
Laissez-faire leadership			.48
Passive avoidant		.86	.48
Management-by-exception (passive)	.82		.35
Laissez-faire	.83		.70
Extra effort	.91		.75
Effectiveness	.91		.72
Satisfaction	.94		.87
MLQ-5X	.74 ~ .94	.64 ~ .92	.38 ~ .91

Table 2 presents the means and standard deviations of leadership behavior frequency for MLQ-5X follower evaluations of the PE office directors. Followers reported more transformational leadership behaviors than transactional leadership and laissez-faire leadership behaviors on their directors' leadership.

Table 2 MLQ-5X rater form: means and standard deviations

Scale	Public (<i>n</i> = 51)		Private (<i>n</i> = 51)		Total (<i>n</i> = 102)	
	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>
TFL	2.43	.50	2.47	.70	2.45	.61
CI	2.49	.51	2.51	.66	2.50	.59
II-A	2.42	.51	2.43	.72	2.42	.62
II-B	2.43	.61	2.54	.63	2.49	.62
IM	2.61	.74	2.55	.82	2.58	.78
IS	2.40	.66	2.41	.86	2.40	.76
IC	2.32	.75	2.39	.99	2.35	.87
TSL	2.03	.42	2.16	.51	2.09	.47
CR	2.22	.60	2.35	.81	2.29	.71
MBE-A	1.85	.51	1.95	.69	1.90	.61
LFL	1.70	.54	1.71	.49	1.71	.51
PA	1.70	.54	1.71	.49	1.71	.51
MBE-P	1.99	.65	2.06	.62	2.03	.63
LF	1.43	.77	1.36	.77	1.40	.77
Extra effort	2.18	.75	2.21	.97	2.19	.86
Effectiveness	2.15	.63	2.32	.89	2.23	.77
Satisfaction	2.32	.92	2.37	1.11	2.35	1.01

Note. *n* = numbers of followers; TFL = transformational leadership; CI = charisma & inspiration;

II-A = idealized influence (attributed); II-B = idealized influence (behavior); IM = inspirational motivation; IS = intellectual stimulation; IC = individual consideration; TSL = transactional leadership; CR = contingent reward; MBE-A = management-by-exception (active); LFL = laissez-faire leadership; PA = passive avoidant; LF = laissez-faire; MBE-P = management-by-exception (passive). The range of questionnaire items goes from 0 (not at all) to 4 (frequently).

Correlations among Study Variables

Table 3 shows the Pearson Product Moment correlations matrix among study variables, which included organizational effectiveness (X1), idealized influence (attributed) (X2), idealized influence (behavior) (X3), inspirational motivation (X4), intellectual stimulation (X5), individual consideration (X6), contingent reward (X7), management-by-exception (active) (X8), management-by-exception (passive) (X9), laissez-faire (X10), extra effort (X11), satisfaction (X12), transformational leadership (X13), transactional leadership (X14), and laissez-faire leadership (X15). The study used Pearson Product Moment Correlations matrix and variance inflation factors (VIF) to examine the multi-collinearity among study variables. Bohrnstedt and Knoke (1988) said, if VIF less than 10 and the study variables would not exist the multi-collinearity (as cite in Kao & Huang, 2000). The VIF of this study were range from 1.07 to 5.25 and it can be to analyze on multi-regression (see Table 4 to 7).

Table 3 Pearson product moment correlations matrix among study variables (N=102)

Variable	X1	X2	X3	X4	X5	X6	X7	X8	X9	X10	X11	X12	X13	X14	X15
X1	1.00														
X2	.61**	1.00													
X3	.51**	.59**	1.00												
X4	.65**	.66**	.72**	1.00											
X5	.55**	.49**	.52**	.60**	1.00										
X6	.72**	.57**	.56**	.68**	.73**	1.00									
X7	.65**	.55**	.64**	.67**	.69**	.75**	1.00								
X8	.13	.15	.24**	.09	-.01	-.11	.03	1.00							
X9	.18*	.40**	.27**	.26**	.21*	.26**	.33**	.07	1.00						

Variable	X1	X2	X3	X4	X5	X6	X7	X8	X9	X10	X11	X12	X13	X14	X15
X10	-.41**	-.25**	-.35**	-.44**	-.38**	-.51**	-.43**	.24**	.04	1.00					
X11	.75**	.51**	.48** .38**	.65**	.54**	.66**	.67**	.11	.26**	-.31**	1.00				
X12	.74**	.45**	.38**	.54**	.71**	.82**	.63**	-.11	.17*	-.48**	.67**	1.00			
X13	.74**	.78**	.80**	.88**	.82**	.87**	.80**	.07	.33**	-.48**	.69**	.72**	1.00		
X14	.58**	.50**	.64**	.56**	.52**	.51**	.78**	.65**	.28**	-.17*	.58**	.41**	.65**	1.00	
X15	-.20*	.06	-.10	-.17*	-.16	-.23*	-.12	.23*	.65*	.78*	-.08	-.26*	-.16	.05	1.00

* $p < .05$, one-tailed. ** $p < .01$, one-tailed.

Note. X1= organizational effectiveness; X2 = II-A = idealized influence (attributed); X3 = II-B = idealized influence (behavior); X4 = IM = inspirational motivation; X5 = IS = intellectual stimulation; X6 = IC = individual consideration; X7 = CR = contingent reward; X8 = MBE-A = management-by-exception (active); X9 = MBE-P = management-by-exception (passive); X10 = LF = laissez-faire; X11 = extra effort; X12 = satisfaction; X13 = transformational leadership; X14 = transactional leadership; X15 = laissez-faire leadership.

Path Analysis of Leadership Behaviors on Organizational Effectiveness

There is 72% explained variation to predict organizational effectiveness with leadership behaviors and leadership outcomes ($F_{(11, 101)}=24.05$, $p<.001$)(see Table 4). There is 59% explained variation to predict followers' extra effort with leader's leadership behaviors and followers' satisfaction ($F_{(10, 101)}=15.30$, $p<.001$)(see Table 5). Seventy-one percent explained variation predicts followers' satisfaction with leader's leadership behaviors ($F_{(9, 101)}=27.91$, $p<.001$).

Table 4 Direct effect of leadership behaviors and leadership outcomes on organizational effectiveness

Dependent	Predictors	Beta	<i>t</i>	VIF	Adjusted R square
Organizational effectiveness	II-A	.212	2.73**	2.14	.72
	II-B	-.036	-.41	2.72	
	IM	.104	1.06	3.40	
	IS	-.165	-1.89	2.71	
	IC	.091	.75	5.25	
	CR	.097	1.00	3.34	
	MBE-A	.140	2.30*	1.32	
	MBE-P	-.087	-1.45	1.29	
	LF	-.047	-.69	1.65	
	Extra effort	.269	3.10**	2.68	
	Satisfaction	.413	3.73***	4.35	

Table 5 Direct effect of leadership behaviors and leadership outcomes on extra effort

Dependent	Predictors	Beta	<i>t</i>	VIF	Adjusted R square
Extra effort	II-A	.010	.11	2.14	.59
	II-B	-.066	-.63	2.71	
	IM	.350	3.12**	3.07	
	IS	-.143	-1.37	2.65	
	IC	-.021	-.14	5.25	
	CR	.312	2.78**	3.08	
	MBE-A	.108	1.48	1.29	
	MBE-P	.021	.29	1.29	
	LF	.096	1.17	1.63	
	Satisfaction	.481	3.89***	3.73	

Table 6 Direct effect of leadership behaviors on satisfaction

Dependent	Predictors	Beta	<i>t</i>	VIF	Adjusted R square
Satisfaction	II-A	.032	.40	2.14	.71
	II-B	-.196	-2.27*	2.56	
	IM	-.016	-.17	3.07	
	IS	.266	3.19**	2.39	
	IC	.683	6.75***	3.51	
	CR	.007	.07	3.08	
	MBE-A	.035	.57	1.28	
	MBE-P	-.022	-.36	1.28	
	LF	-.109	-1.60	1.59	

Table 7 presents the leadership style predictors to predict organizational effectiveness, followers' extra effort, and followers' satisfaction. There is 56% explained variation to predict organizational effectiveness with transformational leadership style (TFL), transactional leadership style (TSL), and laissez-faire leadership style (LFL) ($F_{(3, 101)}=43.74$, $p<.001$). Forty-nine percent explained variation predicts followers' extra effort with TFL, TSL, and LFL ($F_{(3, 101)}=33.68$, $p<.001$). The different leadership styles have 53% explained variation to predict followers' satisfaction ($F_{(3, 101)}=38.74$, $p<.001$) (see Table 7).

Table 7 Direct effect of leadership styles

Dependent	Predictors	Beta	<i>t</i>	VIF	Adjusted R square
Organizational effectiveness	TFL	.592	6.60***	1.84	.56
	TSL	.197	2.22*	1.80	
	LFL	-.116	-1.70	1.07	

Dependent	Predictors	Beta	<i>t</i>	VIF	Adjusted R square
Extra effort	TFL	.550	5.72***	1.84	.49
	TSL	.219	2.30*	1.80	
	LFL	-.001	-.02	1.07	
Satisfaction	TFL	.740	7.97***	1.84	.53
	TSL	-.065	-.71	1.80	
	LFL	-.142	-2.01*	1.07	

Figure 2 presents the path analysis of organizational effectiveness of PE Office. All the direct and indirect influences of study variables present in Table 8. The idealized influence (attributed)(II-A)(Beta=.212), management-by-exception (active)(MBE-A)(Beta=.14), followers' extra effort (Beta=.209), followers' satisfaction (Beta=.413), leader's transformational leadership behavior (TFL)(Beta=.592), and leader's transactional leadership behavior (TSL)(Beta=.197) had a significant directly and positively influence the PE office effectiveness.

On the other hand, inspirational motivation (IM)(Beta=.07), contingent reward (CR)(Beta=.065) leadership behaviors, followers' satisfaction (Beta=.101), transformational leadership style (TFL)(Beta=.115), and transactional leadership styles (TSL)(Beta=.046) indirectly and positively influence the PE office effectiveness by followers' extra effort. Moreover, the transformational leadership style also indirectly influences organizational effectiveness by followers' satisfaction (Beta=.495).

The idealized influence (behavior) (II-B)(Beta=-.10) and laissez-faire leadership behaviors (Beta=-.073) indirectly and negatively influence the PE office effectiveness by followers' satisfaction. The laissez-faire leadership behavior also directly and negatively influences the followers' satisfaction. The intellectual stimulation (IS)(Beta=.137) and individual consideration

(IC)(Beta=.351) leadership behaviors indirectly and positively influence the PE office effectiveness by followers' satisfaction.

Table 8 Direct, indirect, and total effects of study variable on organizational effectiveness

Dependent	Predictors	Effects		
		Direct effects	Indirect effects	Total effects
Organizational effectiveness	Idealized influence (attributed)	.212	--	.212
	Idealized influence (behavior)	--	-.10	-.10
	Inspirational motivation	--	.07	.07
	Intellectual stimulation	--	.137	.137
	Individual consideration	--	.351	.351
	Contingent reward	--	.065	.065
	Management-by-exception (active)	.14	--	.14
	Management-by-exception (passive)	--	--	--
	laissez-faire	--	--	--
	Extra effort	.269	--	.269
	Satisfaction	.413	.101	.514
	Transformational leadership	.592	.495	1.087
	Transactional leadership	.197	.046	.243
	Laissez-faire leadership	--	-.073	-.073

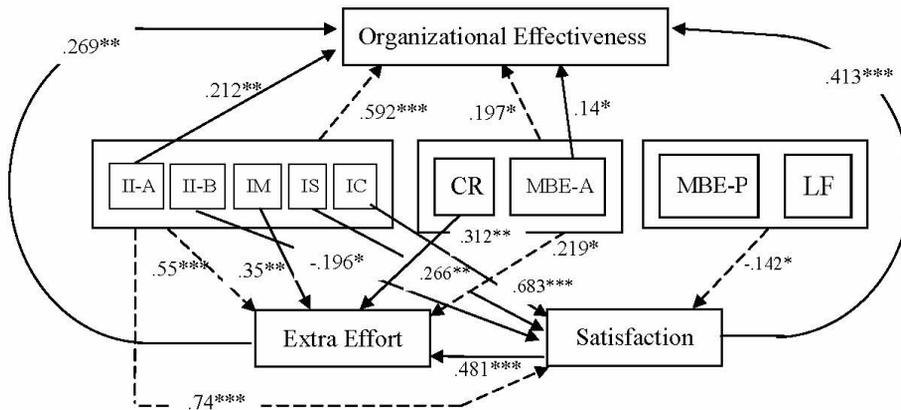


Figure 2 Path analysis of organizational effectiveness of PE office.

Discussion and Conclusions

Bass (1985) said, the organization is less well defined and efficient, and the followers display more dissatisfaction. A good interaction could impact the organizational effectiveness of both leaders and followers. The followers' extra efforts and satisfaction enhanced organizational effectiveness and this could reflect in the PE office. Although most effective leaders combine both transactional and transformational leadership behaviors in different amounts (Bass, 1985; Tang, 1997; Avolio, Bass, & Jung, 1999; Yukl, 2002), but it does not know how the leadership behavior factors influence the PE office effectiveness.

The study results support that the transformational leadership style has a more positive relationship with organizational effectiveness (including leader's effectiveness and followers' effectiveness), followers' satisfaction, and followers' extra effort (Yammarino & Bass, 1990; Singer & Singer, 1990; Lowe et al., 1996; Bass, 1997; Yukl, 1998; Avolio et al., 1999; Bass & Avolio, 2000; Jones & Rudd, 2008). The study results present that most of the transformational leadership behaviors factors were not directly influencing but indirectly influencing the organizational effectiveness. However, the transformational leadership style

influences organizational effectiveness more than transactional leadership and laissez-faire leadership styles.

The reason that the idealized influence (attributed), management-by-exception (active) leadership behavior factors, followers' extra effort, and followers' satisfaction directly influences PE office effectiveness may have been as follows: first, the idealized influence (attributed) leadership behavior describes the leaders who consider the followers' needs over their personal needs. The leader's conduct, both ethical and moral, is a model for their followers (Bass & Avolio, 1994). Therefore, the followers respect their leader and then translate to their work. The more positive attitude made the more followers' extra effort and increasing satisfaction. The positive leadership plays in producing effective leader and followers outcomes (Avey, J. B., Avolio, B. J., & Luthans, F., 2011). Second, Hung (2003) said, both the transactional and transformational leadership behaviors had a significant positive correlation between followers' extra effort, organizational effectiveness, and followers' satisfaction in the PE offices. The laissez-faire leadership behaviors did not. The study result supports Hung's study that both transformational and transactional leadership directly and indirectly influence the PE office effectiveness. Therefore, although the management-by-exception (active) leadership behavior belongs to the transactional leadership style, it still works on PE office effectiveness.

Bass thinks the laissez-faire leadership style has a negative impact on organizational effectiveness (as cited in Hooijberg & Choi, 2000). The study result also supports that the laissez-faire leadership style directly and negatively influences the followers' satisfaction, and indirectly influences the PE office effectiveness. Moreover, although the transformational leadership style directly and positively influences the followers' extra effort, satisfaction, and organizational effectiveness, the idealized influence (behavior) directly and

negatively influences the followers' satisfaction.

Although the transactional and transformation leadership behaviors do not provide an adequate explanation of the relevant behavioral influence process between the leader and the followers (Yukl, 1998; Tejada, 2001), managers' (or leader's) behavior and team performance is indirect (Cole, M. S., Bedeian, A. G., & Aruch, H., 2011), the transactional leadership behaviors are still immediately effective for short-term goals and transformational leadership behaviors have long-term positive effects (Hung, 2003).

The study recommends that a transformational leader should appropriate to use their advantageous leadership behaviors. Otherwise, emphasized excessive can create the counter-effect.

References

- Avey, J. B., Avolio, B., Luthans, F. (2011). Experimentally analyzing the impact of leader positivity on follower positivity and performance. *Leadership Quarterly*, 22(2), 282-294. doi:10.1016/j.leaqua.2011.02.004
- Avolio, B. J., Bass, B. M., & Jung, D. I. (1999). Re-examining the components of transformational and transactional leadership using the multifactor leadership questionnaire. *Journal of Occupational and Organizational Psychology*, 72(09631798), 441-441-462. Retrieved from <http://search.proquest.com/docview/199293696?accountid=10936>
- Bass, B. M. (1985). *Leadership and performance beyond exceptions*. New York: Free Press.
- Bass, B. M. (1997). Does the transactional-transformational leadership paradigm transcend organizational and national boundaries? *American Psychologist*. 52(2), 130-139.
- Bass, B. M., & Avolio, B. J. (1994). *Improving organization effectiveness through transformational leadership*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

- Bass, B. M., & Avolio, B. J. (2000). *MLQ multifactor leadership questionnaire* (2nd ed.). Redwood, CA: Mind Garden.
- Bryman, A. (1992). *Charisma and leadership in organizations*. London: SAGE.
- Burns, J. M. (1978). *Leadership*. New York: Harper & Row.
- Cole, M. S., Bedeian, A. G., Bruch, H. (2011). Linking leader behavior and leadership consensus to team performance: Integrating direct consensus and dispersion models of group composition. *Leadership Quarterly*, 22(2), 383-398. doi:10.1016/j.leaqua.2011.02.012
- Hooijberg, R., & Choi, J. (2000). From selling peanuts and beer in Yankee stadium to creating a theory of transformational leadership: An interview with Bernie Bass. *Leadership Quarterly*, 11(2), 291-306.
- Hung, Y. H. (2003, May). Physical Education Department Leadership and Effectiveness of Sports Facilities Management in Chinese Taipei. *Dissertation Abstracts International*, 64 (03), 741. (UMI No. 3086695)
- Jones, D., Rudd, R. (2008). Transactional, Transformational, or Laissez-Faire Leadership: An Assessment of College of Agriculture Academic Program Leaders' (Deans) Leadership Styles. *Journal of Agricultural Education*, 49(2), 88-97.
- Kao, Y. H. & Huang, Y. C. (2000). 成年人運動行為影響因素之徑路分析. [Determinants of exercise behavior in Adults: A path analysis]. *護理研究*, 8(4), 435-446.
- Lowe, K. B., & Galen Kroeck, K. K. (1996). Effectiveness correlates of transformational and transactional leadership: A meta-analytic.. *Leadership Quarterly*, 7(3), 385-425. Retrieved from EBSCOhost.
- Northouse, P. G. (2001). *Leadership: Theory and practice* (2nd ed.). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.
- Singer, M. S., & Singer, A. E. (1990). Situational Constraints on Transformational Versus Transactional Leadership Behavior, Subordinates'

- Leadership Preference, and Satisfaction. *Journal of Social Psychology*, 130(3), 385-396. Retrieved from EBSCOhost.
- Tang, T. C. (1997). The relationships among transformational, transactional, and instructional leadership behaviors of senior secondary school principal in Chinese Taipei. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, University of South Dakota, South Dakota.
- Tejeda, M. J. (2001). The MLQ revisited: Psychometric properties and recommendations. *Leadership Quarterly*, 12(1), 31. Retrieved from EBSCOhost.
- Yammarino, F. J., & Bass, B. M. (1990). Transformational leadership at multiple levels of analysis. *Human Relations*. 43(10), 975-995.
- Yukl, G. A. (1998). *Leadership in organizations* (4th ed.). Upper Saddle River, NJ: Prentice-Hall.
- Yukl, G. A. (2002). *Leadership in organizations* (5th ed.). Upper Saddle River, NJ: Prentice-Hall.

@First author & corresponding author

Name: Ying-Hua Hung

Organization: Formosa University, Office of Physical Education, Taipei, R.O.C.

Address: P.O. Box 6-35 Huwei, Yunlin, Chinese Taipei

e-mail: sakura@nfu.edu.tw

@Second author

Name: Annette E. Craven

Organization: University of the Incarnate Word, School of Business, Texas, USA

Address: 4301 Broadway, CPO 141, San Antonio, TX 78209

e-mail: craven@universe.uiwtx.edu

@Third author

Name: Suh-Ting Lin

Organization: Tamkang University, Office of Physical Education, Taipei,
R.O.C.

Address: 151 Ying-chuan Road Tamsui, Taipei County 25137, R.O.C.

e-mail: suh@mail.tku.edu.tw

@Fourth author

Name: Chin-Tsai Kuo

Organization: Naanhua University

Address: No. 55, Sec. 1, Nanhua Rd., Zhongkeng, Dalin Township,
Chiayi County 62248, Chinese Taipei (R.O.C.)

e-mail: kuo@mail.nhu.edu.tw

A Study of Factors Influencing Behavioral Intentions among Users at Public Sport Facilities in Japan

Ryoko Akiyoshi¹

Graduate School, Kobe University / JSPS Research Fellow, Japan

Yasuo Yamaguchi

Kobe University, Japan

Abstract

The purpose of this study was to examine the relationships among service quality, outcome expectations, customer satisfaction, and behavioral intentions among users at public sport facilities. From March 18 to 31, 2010, a questionnaire survey was conducted to the users of two public sport facilities managed by private sectors in Hyogo Prefecture in Japan. Data were collected from 205 users of the two facilities. Personal attributes, involvement in facilities, service quality, outcome expectations, customer satisfaction, and behavioral intentions were included in the questionnaire. Behavioral intentions were both willingness to recommend the facility to others and future intentions to continue facility use. A hypothesized model that explained the relationships among service quality, outcome expectations, customer satisfaction and behavioral intentions among users was proposed. The results indicated that service quality was derived from five factors, and interpretation of the factors led to naming them, using the following terms: Personnel, Facility, Value, Time, and

¹Ryoko Akiyoshi is Ph.D. candidate at Graduate School of Human Development & Environment, Kobe University, Japan. Email: r07111983@yahoo.co.jp

Secondary. Personnel, Facility, Value, and outcome expectations had significant effects on customer satisfaction, while behavioral intentions were influenced by Personnel, Value, and customer satisfaction.

Key words: service quality, outcome expectations, customer satisfaction, behavioral intentions, public sport facilities

Introduction

In recent years, the Japanese government has had financial problems. One example of the governmental effort to address the financial problems was the Designated Manager System (DMS). The 2003 revision of the Local Autonomy Law introduced the DMS. The purpose of this new system is to reduce administrative cost and improve service quality. Under the new system, public and non-profit organizations and private companies can become the management body for public facilities. This system is applicable to public facilities except for public facilities with the individual law. Since 2003 throughout Japan, the privatization of public facilities has become pervasive.

According to the Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science and Technology (2008), sport facilities in Japan can be categorized as school, university, public, work site or private. Japan has 222,533 sport facilities and nearly a quarter of those facilities are public. One problem has been that the quality of service in public sport facilities was unsatisfactory. Since 2003 when the DMS was introduced, considerable attention has been given to customer satisfaction at public sport facilities. Nearly half of the DMs were organizations affiliated with local government. Other than organizations affiliated with local government, a quarter of the DMs were private companies. The question is how this new system impacts customer satisfaction and what the behavioral intentions among users at public sport facilities are.

Service quality, customer satisfaction, and behavioral intentions have long been an area of interest in academic research. Several scales have been proposed in the sport services industry. Examples of published scales are the REQUAL, developed by MacKay and Crompton (1990); in the context of leisure and recreation centers, the QUESC, developed by Kim and Kim (1995); and in the context of sports clubs in Korea, the TEAMQUAL, which was developed by McDonald, Sutton, and Milne (1995), to measure service quality in professional basketball games, and the SPORTSERV, developed by Theodorakis and Kambitsis (1998); to assess service quality among sports spectators. The vast majority of the service quality studies conducted in the sport industry have indicated the importance of the staff role on customer evaluations about service quality (Alexandris et al., 2001, 2004; Howat et al., 1996, 1999; Papadimitriou and Karteliotis, 2000). Over the last few decades, customer satisfaction has been extensively studied in marketing. The transaction-specific approach views satisfaction as an emotional response to the most recent transactional experience (Oliver, 1993), whereas the overall satisfaction perspective defines satisfaction as a cumulative evaluative response (Tsiotsou, 2006). Service quality is an antecedent of customer satisfaction in various industries (Caruana, 2002; Cronin and Taylor, 1992; Danaher and Mattsson, 1994; Oliver, 1993; Johnson et al., 1995; Lee et al., 2000; Spreng and Mackoy, 1996) and sport industry (Choi and Yanagisawa, 2002; Murray, et al., 2002; Zhou and Kikuchi, 2009).

The indicators of behavioral intentions are the final set of items included in the analysis (Cronin et al., 2000). Researchers have long used behavioral intentions to help predict future behavior. Word -of -mouth intention has been of importance to researchers for at least the past thirty years (Keiningham et al., 2007). Outcome expectations are the beliefs that carrying out a specific behavior will lead to a desired outcome. A significant relationship between

outcome expectations related to exercise and exercise behavior as well has been reported elsewhere. One of the outcome dimensions significantly influenced overall satisfaction (Howat et al., 2008). Little attention has been given to the outcome expectations at sports facilities in Japan. Although studies have investigated service at public sport facilities that have introduced the DMS (Honme, Shoji, Mano, and Nakamura, 2011; Mano and Shoji, 2010; Mano et al., 2009), few studies have investigated the relationships of the variables about service evaluation. The purpose of this study was to examine the relationships among service quality, outcome expectations, customer satisfaction, and behavioral intentions among users at public sport facilities.

Methods

Procedures and Study Site

A self-administered questionnaire survey was conducted with the users of two public sport facilities, Facility A and Facility B, managed by the private sectors in Hyogo Prefecture in Japan from March 18th to March 31th 2010. The population of Hyogo Prefecture is approximately 5,500,000. The autonomy which established these public sport facilities introduces the DMS positively. Additionally, the public sport facility has most types of the gymnasium (Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science and Technology, 2010). Therefore, in this study, two gymnasiums, Facility A and Facility B, were selected. The private sector DMs are a non-profit sport organization and the Kobe Sport Association. Facility A has two gymnasiums (one 975m² and the other, 230m²), a training room (69m²), and other rooms. Facility A was founded in 1989. Facility B has two gymnasiums (one 540m² and the other, 216m²), and a training room (72m²). Facility B was founded in 1975. Data were collected from 205 users of the two facilities.

Measurement

The instrument used in this study has six variables: personal attributes, involvement in facilities, service quality, outcome expectations, customer satisfaction, and behavioral intentions. Service quality was measured using the 20 items proposed by Howat et al. (1996, 1999). A six-point Likert-type scale was used. Outcome expectations consisted of 10 positive expectations for regular exercise and sport involvement (Sugihara et al., 1995). A biased four-point Likert-type scale was used ranging from disagree (1) to quite agree (4). Customer satisfaction was measured utilizing a single-item scale. Overall satisfaction influences repeat purchase and word-of-mouth intentions (Spreng et al., 1995). This item was scaled on a seven-point Likert-type scale. Behavioral intentions consisted of degree of willingness to recommend the facility to others and future intentions to use continuously. The Theory of Reasoned Action postulates that behavior can be predicted from intentions that correspond directly to that behavior (Ajzen and Fishbein, 1980). In addition, these items were derived from Ajzen and Driver's (1992) study testing the Theory of Planned Behavior to measure the link between intentions and leisure behavior. Theodorakis and Alexandris (2008) have used purchase intentions and word –of -mouth communications, as the two dimensions of spectators' behavioral intentions. A seven-point Likert-type scale was used for both degree of willingness to recommend the facility to others and future intentions to use continuously.

Table 1 Measurement

Variables	Constructs	Measurement
Personal attributes	Gender	(1) male, (2) female
	Age	age
	Occupation	(1) office worker, (2) public officer, (3) the self-employed, (4) housewife, (5) part-time, (6) student, (7) the unemployed, (8) other
Involvement in facilities	Use type	(1) club member, (2) organised class, (3) individual user, (4) other
	Frequency of use	(1) everyday, (2) 4 to 5 days/w, (3) 2 to 3 days/w, (4) once a week, (5) once two weeks, (6) once a month, (7) few a year
	Length of use	(1) less than 1 month, (2) 1 to 6 months, (3) 6 to 12 months, (4) 1 to 2 years, (5) 2 to 5 years, (6) 5 to 10 years, (7) more than 10 years
Service quality	The parking area is very safe and secure.	(1) disagree, (2) slightly disagree, (3) undecided, (4) slightly agree, (5) agree
	The facility is always clean.	
	The facility is well maintained.	
	The facility's equipment is a high quality and well maintained.	
	The facility is physically comfortable and pleasant.	
	The facility has up-to-date information.	
	The facility offer a broad range of activities for people who use it.	
	The facility is well organized and well run.	
	The facility have programs which provide value for money.	
	The facility have facilities which provide value for money.	
	The facility have suitable food and drink facilities.	
	Staff in the facility is friendly.	
	Staff in the facility is responsive.	
	Staff is presentable and easily identified.	
Staff in the facility is experienced and knowledgeable.		
Instructors is experienced and knowledgeable.		
The facility's programs always start and finish on time.		
The facility's programs schedule is appropriate.		
The facility's opening hours is appropriate.		
The use procedure of the facility is simple.		
Outcome expectations	More healthy	(1) disagree, (2) agree a little bit, (3) agree, (4) quite agree
	Physically fit	
	Looking good	
	Younger	
	Better player	
	Refresh	
	Vital life	
	Proud of myself	
Self-confidence		
More friends		
Customer satisfaction	Overall satisfaction	(1) very dissatisfied, (2) dissatisfied, (3) rather dissatisfied, (4) neither satisfied nor dissatisfied, (5) rather satisfied, (6) satisfied, (7) very satisfied
Behavioral intentions	Recommend the facility to others	(1) strongly not recommend, (2) not recommend, (3) rather not recommend, (4) undecided, (5) rather recommend, (6) recommend, (7) strongly recommend
	Future intentions to use continuously	(1) strongly disagree, (2) disagree, (3) slightly disagree, (4) undecided, (5) slightly agree, (6) agree, (7) strongly agree

Hypotheses and Analysis

It was hypothesized that (1) service quality has significant effects on customer satisfaction, (2) outcome expectations have significant effects on customer satisfaction, (3) service quality has significant effects on behavioral intentions, (4) outcome expectations have significant effects on behavioral intentions, and (5) customer satisfaction has significant effects on behavioral intentions. Principal component analysis and path analysis were applied to the data obtained and all conducted by using the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS 18.0).

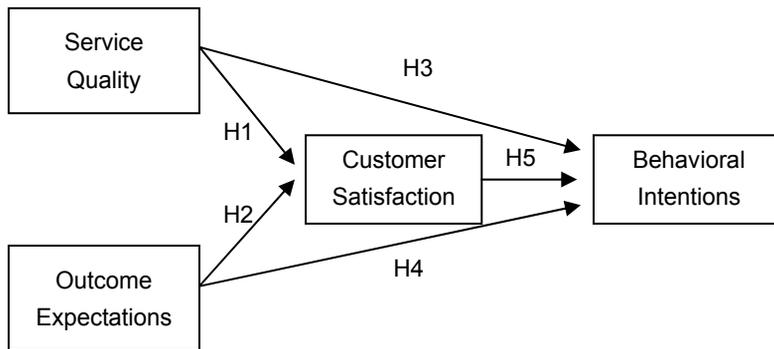


Figure 1 Proposed model with hypothesized relationships

Results

Personal Attributes and Involvement in Facilities

The personal attributes and involvement in facilities of the respondents are shown in Table 2. The majority of respondents were female (73.5%). Approximately 81% of the respondents were between the ages of 40 and 69. Approximately 45% of the respondents were housewife. In terms of frequency of use, a number of users used the facility “2 to 3days a week” and “once a week”. For length of use, more than 40% of the respondents had used the facility for “more than 10 years”.

Table 2 Personal attributes and involvement in facilities

		%	n			%	n
Gender	male	26.5%	53	Use type	Club member	62.3%	127
	female	73.5%	147		Organised Class	6.9%	14
Age	10's	0.5%	1		Individual user	9.3%	19
	20's	1.6%	3		Other	21.5%	44
	30's	6.7%	13	Frequency of use	Everyday	1.5%	3
	40's	25.4%	49		4 to 5 days / w	4.9%	10
	50's	29.5%	57		2 to 3 days / w	41.2%	84
	60's	25.9%	50		Once a week	43.1%	88
	70's	9.3%	18		Once two weeks	5.4%	11
	80's	1.0%	2		Once a month	3.4%	7
Occupation	office worker	9.1%	18		Few a year	0.5%	1
	public officer	3.6%	7	Length of use	Less than 1 month	2.0%	4
	the self-employed	3.6%	7		1 to 6 months	2.9%	6
	housewife	44.7%	88		6 to 12 months	2.4%	5
	part-timer	21.3%	42		1 to 2 years	3.9%	8
	student	0.5%	1		2 to 5 years	22.9%	47
	the unemployed	14.2%	28		5 to 10 years	22.9%	47
	other	3.0%	6		More than 10 years	42.9%	88

Service Quality

Table 3 presents the result for principal components analysis with oblique rotation, was employed, with eigenvalues >1 used as the factor selection criteria. The results indicated that the perception of service quality was derived from five factors. Factor 1 was named *Personnel*, which consists of the staff and instructors at the facilities. Factor 2 was named *Facility*, concerns facilities and equipment. Factor 3 was named *Value*, which concerns the user fee. Factor 4 was named *Time*, which consists of opening hours and other time related details. Factor 5 was named *Secondary*, which consists of the information provided and drink at the facilities. The five factor solution was obtained, accounting for 63% of the total variance. One item failed to load on any factor at higher than the cut-off value of .40 (Nunnally and Bernstein, 1994). Internal consistency of the factors in the service quality was verified using Cronbach's alpha coefficients. For a factor to be acceptable, the Cronbach's alpha coefficient should be greater than .6 (Bagozzi & Yi, 1988).

Table 3 Results for principal component analysis

Factor (Cronbach's alpha)	Items	Factor loading				
		F1	F2	F3	F4	F5
Personnel ($\alpha = .871$)	Staff in the facility is friendly.	.781				
	Staff in the facility is responsive.	.804				
	Staff in the facility is experienced and knowledgeable.	.584				
	Instructors is experienced and knowledgeable.	.521				
	The facility's programs always start and finish on time.	.567				
Facility ($\alpha = .882$)	The facility is always clean.		.631			
	The facility is well maintained.		.704			
	The facility's equipment is a high quality and well maintained.		.734			
	The facility is physically comfortable and pleasant.		.669			
Value ($\alpha = .852$)	The facility is well organized and well run.			.483		
	The facility have programs which provide value for money.			.784		
	The facility have facilities which provide value for money.			.934		
Time ($\alpha = .655$)	The praking area is very safe and secure.				.408	
	The facility's programs schedule is appropriate.				.690	
	The facility's opening hours is appropriate.				.641	
	The use procedure of the facility is simple.				.424	
Secondary ($\alpha = .749$)	The facility has up-to-date information.					.465
	The facility offer a broad range of activities for people who use it.					.807
	The facility have suitable food and drink facilities.					.517
Percent of Variance (%)		16.7	13.7	12.2	10.7	9.8
Accumulated Percent of Variance (%)		16.7	30.4	42.6	53.2	63.1

Outcome Expectations

Figure 2 shows the results of outcome expectations. The results indicated that users were likely to have positive expectations for regular exercise and sport involvement. In particular, the users expect benefits such as more friends, refresh, and more healthy when they participate in regular exercise and sports.

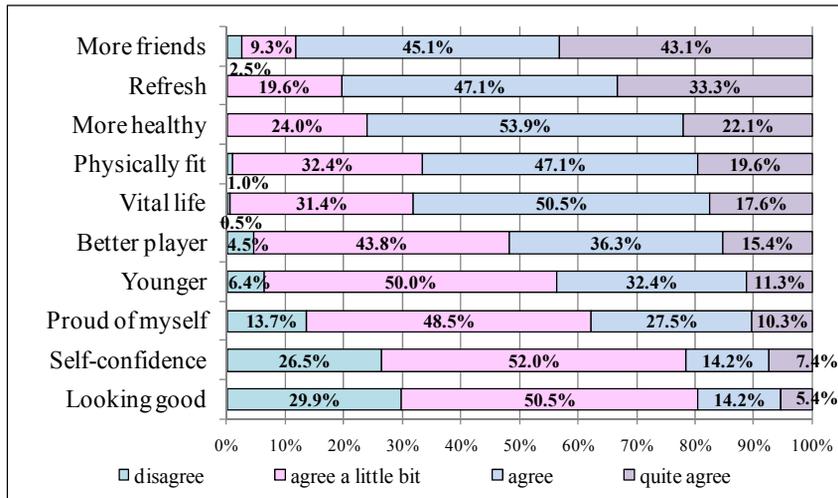


Figure 2 Outcome expectations

Customer Satisfaction

Figure 3 indicates the results of customer satisfaction. The results indicated that approximately 85% of users were likely to be satisfied with the service.

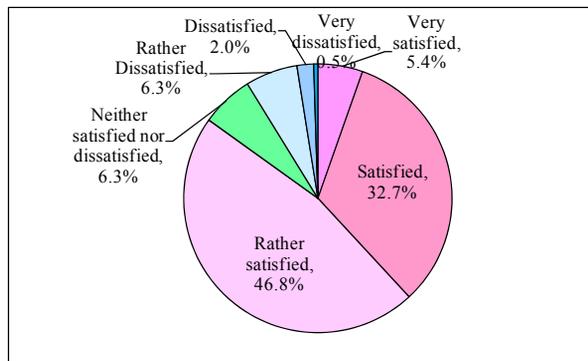


Figure 3 Customer satisfaction

Behavioral Intentions

Figure 4 shows the degree of willingness to recommend the facility to others. The results indicated that approximately 65% of users were likely to have a willingness to recommend their facility to others. Figure 5 shows future intentions to use continuously. The results indicated that approximately 95% of users were likely to have future intentions to use continuously. In particular, the results showed that one in four users would continue use.

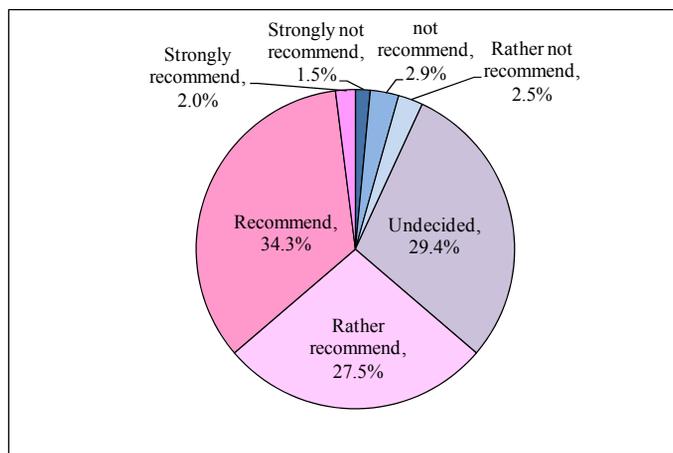


Figure 4 Willingness to recommend the facility to other

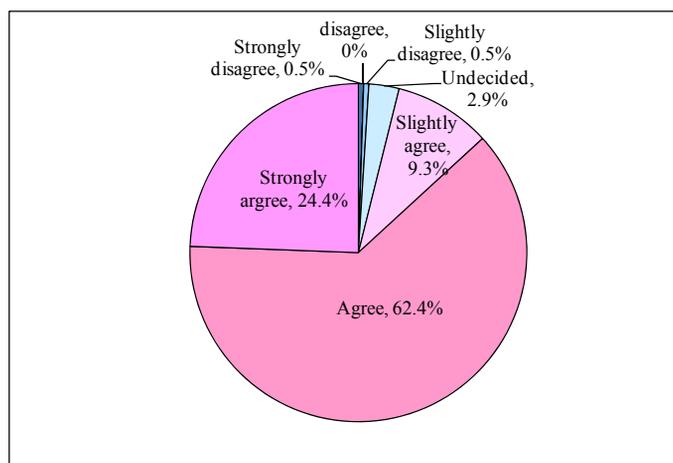


Figure 5 Future intentions to use continuously

Hypotheses

Figure 6 shows the results of hypotheses testing. All hypotheses were accepted except for H4, which posits that outcome expectations have significant effects on behavioral intentions. H1, which proposed that the service quality has significant effects on customer satisfaction was partially supported. *Personnel*, *Facility*, and *Value* showed a statistically significant effect on customer satisfaction. In particular, *Facility*, such as facilities and equipment, had the strongest influence on customer satisfaction. H2, which predicted that outcome expectations have significant effects on customer satisfaction, and H3, which proposed that service quality have significant effects on behavioral intentions, were supported. H5, which predicted that customer satisfaction has significant effects on behavioral intentions was also supported. This model explained that 40.5% of the variance in the degree of customer satisfaction, while behavioral intentions were influenced by *Personnel*, *Value*, and customer satisfaction.

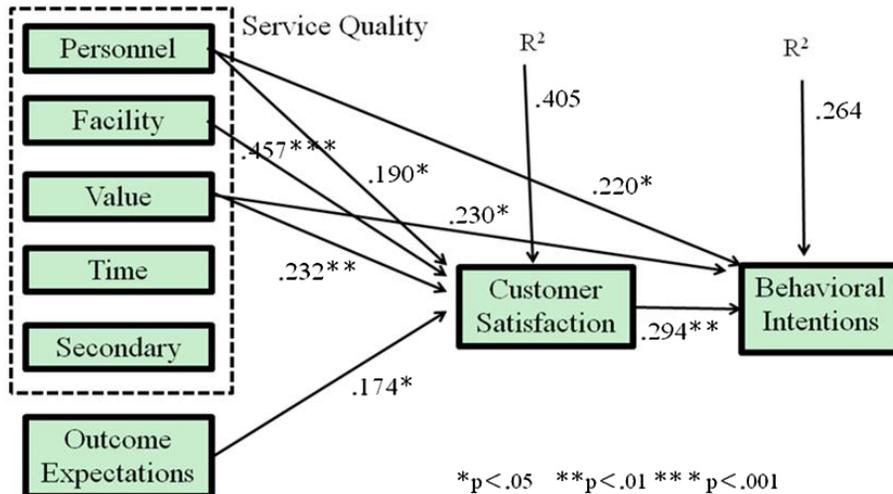


Figure 6 Results of hypotheses testing

Discussion

Based on the results of this study, the following conclusions appear warranted:

1. The results indicated that service quality was derived from five factors, and interpretation of the factors led to naming them, using the following terms: Personnel, Facility, Value, Time, and Secondary, and
2. Personnel, Facility, Value, and outcome expectations had significant effects on customer satisfaction, while behavioral intentions were influenced by Personnel, Value, and customer satisfaction.

The findings of this study provide some insights into this subject. First, outcome expectations have significant effects on customer satisfaction. This finding supports the research of Howat et al. (2008), who found that one of the outcome dimensions significantly influenced overall satisfaction. Since little attention has been given to the outcome dimensions at sports facilities in Japan, it is significant to indicate that outcome expectations have significant effects on customer satisfaction at sports facilities in Japan. It is important that the sport facility staff communicates the physical benefits of using the facility to the user. But this is a difficult task because many of the health benefits are long-term in nature (Alexandris et al., 2004).

Second, few factors influenced the behavioral intentions. Behavioral intentions consisted of the degree of willingness to recommend the facility to others and future intentions to use continuously in this study. Many users at the public sport facilities are the subjects of this study. Therefore, the present user seems to be irritated when the number of users further increases. It was suggested that users with a positive attitude at public sport facilities might not necessarily perform good word-of-mouth communication about the facilities. It is necessary for the thing including the word-of-mouth to put an argument on behavioral intentions carefully.

Third, although we attempted to minimize the limitations of our study, several limitations do exist. Since we investigated only two public sport facilities, generalization of the results is rather tenuous. Since the public sport facility has most types of the gymnasium (Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science and Technology, 2010), replication studies are needed in other gymnasium.

Finally, future research needs to explore the service determinants which influence customer satisfaction at public sport facilities. This study revealed that outcome expectations influence customer satisfaction. One necessary next step in evaluating the service of DMs in Japan is to investigate how results outcome expectations influence customer satisfaction at public sport facilities.

References

- Ajzen, I. & Driver, B. L. (1992) Application of the theory of planned behavior to leisure choice. *Journal of Leisure Research* 24(3), 207-224.
- Ajzen, I. & Fishbein, M. (1980) *Understanding attitudes and predicting social behavior*. Englewood-Cliffs, New Jersey: Prentice-Hall.
- Alexandris, K., Dimitriadis, N., & Kasiara, A. (2001) The behavioral consequences of perceived service quality: An exploratory study in the context of private fitness clubs in Greece. *European Sport Management Quarterly* 1(4), 280-299.
- Alexandris, K., Zahariadis, P., Tsozbatzoudis, C., & Grouios, G. (2004) An empirical investigation of the relationships among service quality, customer satisfaction and psychological commitment in a health club context. *European Sport Management Quarterly* 4, 36-52.
- Bagozzi, R. P. & Yi, Y. (1988) On the evaluation of structural equation models. *Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science* 16(1), 74-94.
- Caruana, A. (2002) Service loyalty: The effects of service quality and the mediating role of customer satisfaction. *European Journal of Marketing* 36(7/8), 811-828.

- Choi, J. & Yanagisawa, K. (2002) The service quality and customer satisfaction at fitness service. *Journal of Management for Physical Education and Sports* 17(1), 1-17.
- Cronin, J. J. Jr. & Taylor, S. A. (1992) Measuring service quality: A reexamination and extension. *Journal of Marketing* 56, 55-68.
- Cronin, J. J., Brady, M. K., & Hult, G. T. M. (2000) Assessing the effects of quality, value, and customer satisfaction on consumer behavioral intentions in service environments. *Journal of Retailing* 76, 193-218.
- Danaher, P. J. & Mattsson, J. (1994) Customer satisfaction during the service delivery process. *European Journal of Marketing* 28(5), 5-16.
- Honme, E., Shoji, H., Mano, Y., & Nakamura, Y. (2011) Effect of Compulsory Competitive Tendering (CCT) on customer satisfaction of a public sports center in Japan: Comparing “Existing” and “New” customers in “A” sports center. *Journal of Japan Society of Sports Industry* 21(1), 57-66.
- Howat, G., Absher, J., Crilley, G., & Milne, I. (1996) Measuring customer service quality in sports and leisure centers. *Managing Leisure* 1(2), 77-89.
- Howat, G., Crilley, G., & McGrath, R. (2008) A focused service quality, benefits, overall satisfaction and loyalty model for public aquatic centres. *Managing Leisure* 13, 139-161.
- Howat, G., Murray, D., & Crilley, G. (1999) The relationships between service problems and perceptions of service quality, satisfaction, and behavioral intentions of Australian public sports and leisure center customers. *Journal of Park and Recreation Administration* 17(2), 42-64.
- Johnson, M. D., Anderson, E. W., & Fornell, C. (1995) Rational and adaptive performance expectations in a customer satisfaction. *Journal of Consumer Research* 21, 695-707.
- Keiningham, T. L., Cooil, B., Aksoy, L., Andreassen, T. W., & Weiner, J. (2007) The value of different customer satisfaction and loyalty metrics in predicting customer retention, recommendation, and share-of-wallet. *Managing*

- Service Quality* 17(4), 361-384.
- Kim, D. & Kim, S. Y. (1995) QUESC: An instrument for assessing the service quality of sport centers in Korea. *Journal of Sport Management* 9, 208-220.
- Lee, H., Lee, Y., & Yoo, D. (2000) The determinants of perceived service quality and its relationship with satisfaction. *Journal of Services Marketing* 14(3), 217-231.
- MacKay, K. J. & Crompton, J. L. (1990) Measuring the quality of recreation services. *Journal of Park and Recreation Administration* 8(3), 47-56.
- Mano, Y. & Shoji, H. (2010) Changing service quality before and after the introduction of Compulsory Competitive Tendering (CCT) to a stadium in Japan. *Journal of Japan Society of Sports Industry* 20(1), 73-79.
- Mano, Y., Shoji, H., & Honme, E. (2009) Changing customer satisfaction before and after the introduction of Compulsory Competitive Tendering (CCT) to a sports centre in Japan. *Journal of Japan Society of Sports Industry* 19(2), 223-229.
- McDonald, M. A., Sutton, W. A., & Milne, G. R. (1995) TERMQUAL: measuring service quality in professional sports. *Sport Marketing Quarterly* 4(2), 9-15.
- Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science and Technology (2008) White paper. Tokyo.
- Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science and Technology (2010) White paper. Tokyo.
- Murray, D. & Howat, G. (2002) The relationships among service quality, value, satisfaction, and future intentions of customers at an Australian sports and leisure centre. *Sport Management Review* 5(1), 25-43.
- Nunnally, J. C. & Bernstein, I. H. (1994) *Psychometric theory* (3rd ed.). New York: McGraw-Hill.
- Oliver, R. L. (1993) A conceptual model of service quality and service satisfaction: compatible goals, different concepts. *Advances in Service Marketing and Management* 2, 65-85.

- Papadimitriou, D. A. & Karteroliotis, K. (2000) The service quality expectations in private sport and fitness centers: a reexamination of the factor structure. *Sport Marketing Quarterly* 9(3), 157-164.
- Spreng, R. A., Harrell, G. D., & Mackoy, R. D. (1995) Service recovery: Impact on satisfaction and intentions. *Journal of Services Marketing* 9(1), 15-23.
- Spreng, R. A. & Mackoy, R. D. (1996) An empirical examination of a model of perceived service quality and satisfaction. *Journal of Retailing* 72(2), 201-214.
- Sugihara, T., Sakai, S., Sasaki, Y., Yamaguchi, Y., & Nakagomi, S. (1995) A report of research on negative factors influencing exercise and sport involvement. Tokyo: Japan Health Promotion Fitness Foundation.
- Theodorakis, N. D. & Alexandris, K. (2008) Can service quality predict spectators' behavioral intentions in professional soccer. *Managing Leisure* 13, 162-178.
- Theodorakis, N. & Kambitsis, C. (1998) The effect of service quality on sport consumers' behavioral intentions. Proceedings of the 6th Congress of the European Association for Sport Management, Madeira.
- Tsiotsou, R. (2006) The role of perceived product quality and overall satisfaction on purchase intentions. *International Journal of Consumer Studies* 30(2), 207-217.
- Zhou, Q. & Kikuchi, H (2009) The effects of perceived service quality on user satisfaction and behavioral intention: An empirical study of fitness club users in China. *Journal of Japan Society of Sports Industry* 19(1), 25-39.

Process of Career Transition among Japanese Ex-Professional Football Players

Keiko Jodai¹

Tokyo International University, Japan

Haruo Nogawa²

Juntendo University, Japan

Abstract

In July 2010, the Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science and Technology announced their draft policy on sports which includes concerns regarding the second careers of athletes. Since the J-League was inaugurated in the early 1990s, the number of Japanese professional athletes in several sports has increased remarkably. Concern for the career re-development of elite athletes has become somewhat of a social issue in Japan. In fact, a majority of Japanese professional football players have faced more and more difficulties in career transition.

The purpose of this study was to determine the career transition process of Japanese professional players on the basis of longitudinal analysis. This research study is a follow-up survey of our previous study conducted ten years ago. The previous study was a replication of Drahotka & Eitzen's study (1998) using the role-exit model. A total of 36 former professional football players voluntarily participated in the previous studies of Jodai (1999) and Shigeno (1999). Eighteen of the 36 decided to take part in this longitudinal study ten years later. Using the time series method, a face-to-face, in-depth interview with

¹The School of Commercial Science, Tokyo International University

²The School of Health and Sports Science, Juntendo University

the sample subjects was conducted for approximately one hour. The questions relevant to four stages of their career process were utilized by the researchers.

The main findings of this project were as follows; (1) most former players were passive or even dependent on their significant others for their own career transition, and (2) as far as the process of career transition was concerned, the majority of the sample subjects did not experience a smooth transition because the role residual of “Ex” identity as the football player lasted much longer than expected. Therefore, the role-exit model of Drahotá & Eitzen (1998) should be modified for the Japanese ex-football players.

Key Words: career transition, professional athlete, longitudinal study

Introduction

In July, 2010, the Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science and Technology (MEXT) announced their draft policy on sports which includes concerns regarding the second careers of athletes. Concern for the second career of top-level athletes has become a social issue. In addition, the number of Japanese professional football players who had to face their career transition has increased more and more in the past 16 years since J League was formed.

Further, the unemployment rate of Japan is currently 4.6%, which is considerably high (Statistics Bureau, February 2011), Especially, the unemployment rate of younger generations (from 15 to 24 years old) is very high at 7.9% (Statistics Bureau, February 2011), This age group is the same age as that of early retirement among Japanese professional football players. Starting anew to find re-employment for a decent job for this age group has not been so easy. Because there have been cases of a former professional athlete causing a crime, professional athletes' career transition is expected to become a social problem in the future.

In order to ease this situation, second career support for professional sports players was initiated by “J-League Career Support Center (CSC)” in

2002. CSC was aimed to support professional players to prepare and build their second career schemes in the J-League. From then on, other sport organizations such as the players' association of professional baseball started similar supporting organizations for their athletes.

Some empirical research studies have been conducted on ex-professional athletes in Japan; however, most studies are cross-sectional. It goes without saying that very little has been known about the process of career transition among ex-professional athletes. Therefore, the researchers attempted to describe how the career transition process of professional football players in Japan had changed over time by following the career paths of former professional football players for the last ten years

Brief Review of Literature

Research studies about career transition of top-notch athletes have been conducted in the United States since 1980 (McPherson, 1980; Schlossberg, 1981; Coakley, 1983; Chamer & Schlossberg, 1986; Person & Patitpas, 1990; Taylor & Ogilvie, 1994; Drahota & Eitzen, 1998; Conzelmann & Nagel, 2003; Fogarty & McGregor-Bayne, 2008; Joanne & Gyozo, 2009).

The start of research studies in this area invoked the gerontology theory to the career transition in sports (McPherson, 1980; Lerch, 1981; Rosenberg, 1981), and scholastic attention to the retirement of the athlete increased rapidly during 1980's. Afterwards, the gerontology theory and the death theory were considered a bit too difficult to explain why the athlete's retirement was only a mere part of the transition process of life. As a result, the transition model in the psychology theory and the sociology theory became somewhat the mainstream of the theoretical framework (Schlossberg, 1981; Coakley, 1983; Charner & Schlossberg, 1986; Pearson & Petitipas, 1990; Taylor & Ogilvie, 1994; Drahota & Eitzen, 1998). The transition models have been subdivided into psychological attention to the identity so that quite a few transition models have been invoked

nowadays (Conzelmann & Nagel, 2003; Gerard & McGregor-Bayne, 2008; Joanne & Gyozo, 2009).

Since the 1990's, there have been many research studies that focus on career transitions for professional athletes in Japan. The main reason for this was that during that period, amateur sports teams, such as soccer and basketball, were spun off from divisions of companies to become separate professional teams. Consequently, this change forced how athletes view the transition to a second career because they could no longer count on the companies that had previously run teams as part of their corporate operations. Research studies primarily covered top athletes but did not distinguish between amateur and professional athletes. Then, early research projects investigated the actual reasons why and how athletes decided to change their career, whereas later research projects sought to study how athletes specifically dealt with career changes (Toyoda & Nakagomi, 1996, 2000; Ooba & Tokunaga, 1999, 2000; Jodai, 1999, 2005; Kubota et al., 2000; Tsukuba University project, 2006, 2007). However, the majority of the previous studies were cross-sectional and the subjects were a mixture of amateur and professional athletes. Moreover, these studies conducted no follow-up survey and failed to ascertain the process of career transition of professional athletes. Therefore, a longitudinal empirical study should be conducted to determine how and which process of career transition would occur among ex-professional athletes. Using the time series method in a longitudinal survey appears to show the effectiveness of actual support programs for former professional athletes.

Role-Exit Model

The role exit theory was empirically applied by Ebaugh (1988). This theory is based on the role theory in which human status is closely tied to the occurrence of expected roles in the career. According to Ebaugh (1988), there are four distinctive stages from when a person being first employed up to

retirement or termination of a job. The four distinctive stages are as follows; Stage 1, a so-called first doubt, is that individual begin to doubt his/her commitment to his/her existing roles; Stage 2, so-called seeking alternatives, is that the individual may look for and weigh alternatives, after experiencing some doubts in the stage 1; Stage 3, named the turning point, is that after weighting the alternatives, he/she experiences the mental and physical changes. This stage can be conscious cuing to shift the next career; and Stage 4, the so-called Creating the Ex-Role, is that the individual terminates the existing career and enters a new career so that he/she and the existing career becomes past or “ex” kind of label or identity. However, he/she often has “role residual” or “role hangover” from the existing career.

On the basis of the role exit theory, Drahotá & Eitzen (1998) conducted a series of interview surveys of the ex-professional athletes in the United States. From the survey results, Drahotá & Eitzen (1998) found some anxiety among certain ex-athletes before they decided to enter the first stage. , In contrast to Ebaugh’s findings with nurses, ex-athletes did not experience Stage 1, They suggested that another stage seems to exist before any individual becomes a professional athlete. Thus, they proposed a modified model for adding one more stage prior to the Stage 1, named Pre-Stage. Drahotá & Eitzen (1998) argued that the role-exit model for ex-athletes should be different from other occupations. Afterwards, this model is invoked in various research findings.

Purpose of Study

This study is a follow-up survey on the career transition of Japanese professional football players that Jodai and Shigeno investigated in 1999. So the purposes of this study are as follows to determine the process of career transition among Japanese ex-professional football players between 1999 and 2011.

Methods and Procedures

Since Drahotá & Eitzen (1998) were front runners in this area, this research

project was a replication of their study. Therefore, the research methods and procedures of this study were identical to their study. The sampling technique in this study consisted of a combination of “purposive sampling” and “snowball sampling.” A total of 18 former professional football players became sample subject in this study. These people were the same subjects who participated in the previous studies of Jodai (1999) and Shigeno (1999).

In order to examine the career transition of a former professional athlete, the researchers conducted a face-to-face, in-depth interview with 18 subjects for approximately one hour. Key informants were used to obtain the initial interviews, and those interviewed were asked for referrals. It included football players who were at the top of profession and others who were average or even below average in their professional peers. The period of this research project was from October of 2010 to July, 2011.

An interview guide developed by Drahota (1998) was used for this study. The interview began with a topical life history approach in the same way as the Drahota & Eitzen (1998), asking the subjects to talk about how they first became involved with football and leading to now. As the respondents talked about becoming professional football players, they were asked broad questions relevant to the four stages of Ebaugh’s theory. Since the researchers were not certain whether Ebaugh’s stages emerged naturally from the interviews, a more direct approach was used. It meant that each interviewee could respond to similar questions, ensuring that each of the necessary topics was addressed. The interviews were not designed too overly structured. Each interview was taped and later transcribed. The findings were categorized into the four stages of Dorahota’s stage for further analysis.

Main Results

Process of Career Transition

About 40% of "ex" professional football players stuck with occupations

related to football, such as coaching and administration. They were fortunate enough to get this occupation but had to be rather passive for a job offer from the team. Others after going back to educational institutions were willing to come back to the occupations related to football. Thus, it ended up that 80 % or more "Ex" professional football players stay with football. They had decided to live in the world of football by using current special skills, knowledge, and human networking.

Using the data obtained from subjects, this research established four relevant stages in their lifetime of playing football. A summary of the process of career transition among 18 ex-players is shown in Table 1. 8 subjects in this study got a job within professional football organizations and have stayed with the organization until now. The rest of them, 10 ex-players, went back to school for their career re-development and have taken other occupations.

Table 1 Characteristics of Sample Subjects

	Age	Playing Career	Current Occupation (2010)	
A	45	6	JSL+JFL+J	Coach of Professional football team
B	40	9	JSL+JFL+J	Business manager of NPO
C	39	1	J	Insurance agents
D	40	4	JFL+J	Coach of Professional football team (Youth team)
E	36	3	JFL+J	Coach of Professional football team (Youth team)
F	45	7	JSL+J	Office worker of football association
G	58	11	JSL	GM of Professional football team
H	39	3	JFL+J	Business manager of osteopathic clinic
I	49	7	JSL+J	Coach of Professional football team (Youth team)
J	40	4	J	Coach of football school (Professional football team)
K	53	17	JSL	Sport commentator
L	39	2	J	Associate professor
M	32	2	J	High school teacher
N	39	2	JSL+J	Office worker
O	44	7	JSL+J	President
P	45	3	JSL	Coach of Professional football team (Top team)
Q	44	7	JSL+J	Fisical coach of Professional football team (Top team)
R	44	7	JSL+JFL	Owner of a football school

JSL: Japan Soccer League
 1965 – 1992
 JFL: Japan Football League
 1992 – 1998
 J: Japan professional football League (J.League)
 1993-

Applicability of the Role-Exit Model

In terms of the first doubt, most of the subjects did not experience Stage 1. Most of the subjects answered that they experienced Stage 3 before Stage 2, meaning that their seeking alternatives might be at the subliminal level or Japanese ex-players were naïve regarding sensing the turning point. Moreover, at the time of Stage 4, creating “ex-role”, 7 of the sample did not feel much role residual or job hangover. Even though the other subjects experienced role residual or job hangover at the time of Stage 4, most of them confessed that role residual had weakened with the time that had passed. As far as anxiety for career transition was concerned, 15 subjects did not have much anxiety while 3 of them experienced high anxiety right before they sought out the next occupation. Table 2 shows the process of career transition for them.

Table 2 Process of Career Transition

	Role (Football Player) Residual	Influence of “Ex” (Football Player)	Original Doubts	First Doubt on Second Career	Seeking Alternatives on Second Career	Turning Point on Second Career	Creating the Ex-Role
A	○	○	○	○	x	Personnel changes	Passive
B	x	○	x	x	○	Family	Active
C	x	x	x	x	○	-	Active
D	x	○	x	○	x	Personnel changes	Passive
E	x	○	x	x	x	Headhunting	Passive
F	x	○	x	x	x	Term of office	Active
G	x	○	○	x	x	Headhunting	Passive
H	○	○	x	○	○	The opening of a business	Active
I	○	○	x	x	x	Personnel changes	Passive
J	x	○	○	○	○	Personnel changes	Passive
K	○	○	x	x	x	Terminated	Active
L	○	x	x	x	x	Graduate	Passive
M	○	x	x	○	x	Graduate	Passive
N	○	○	x	○	x	Headhunting	Passive
O	x	x	x	x	x	Close down the club	Active
P	x	○	x	x	x	Terminated	Passive
Q	x	○	x	x	x	Personnel changes	Active
R	x	○	x	x	x	-	Active

The subjects of this study rarely experienced the original doubts stage, meaning their anxiety before becoming a professional athlete. This tendency was not identical with the study of Drahota & Eitzen. This tendency appeared to

continue when they entered the original doubts stage for their second and third career. Pattern 1 athletes consider alternative career choices in advance of a Turning Point occurring during their current career.

Table 3 Main Findings

	Age	Playing career	Occupation (1999)	Current Occupation (2010)	Original Doubts before entering role of professional athlete	Process of career transitions (Professional athlete)	Original Doubts before entering second career	Process of career transitions (second career)	Pattern
A	45	6	Coach of Professional football team	Coach of Professional football team	Yes	Stage 3 → Stage 2	Yes	Stage 3 → Stage 2	
B	40	9	Business manager of futsal field	Business manager of NPO	No	Stage 3 → Stage 2	No	Stage 3 → Stage 2	2
C	39	1	Office worker of insurance company	Insurance agents	No	Stage 3 → Stage 2	No	Stage 3 → Stage 2	2
D	40	4	Coach of Professional football team	Coach of Professional football team (Youth team)	No	Stage 3 → Stage 2	No	Stage 3 → Stage 2	2
E	36	3	Coach of High school et al.	Coach of Professional football team (Youth team)	No	Stage 3 → Stage 2	No	Stage 2 → Stage 3	
F	45	7	Member of city council	Office worker of football association	No	Stage 3 → Stage 2	No	Stage 3 → Stage 2	2
G	58	11	GM of football team	GM of Professional football team	No	Stage 3 → Stage 2	No	Stage 3 → Stage 2	2
H	39	3	Osteopathic clinic (Vocational school student)	Business manager of osteopathic clinic	Yes	Stage 2 → Stage 3	Yes	Stage 2 → Stage 3	1
I	49	7	Coach of Professional football team (Youth team)	Coach of Professional football team (Youth team)	No	Stage 3 → Stage 2	No	Stage 3 → Stage 2	2
J	40	4	Coach of Professional football team (Youth team)	Coach of football school (Professional football team)	Yes	Stage 2 → Stage 3	Yes	Stage 2 → Stage 3	1
K	53	17	Sport commentator	Sport commentator	No	Stage 3 → Stage 2	No	Stage 3 → Stage 2	2
L	39	2	Graduate student	Associate professor	No	Stage 3 → Stage 2	No	Stage 3 → Stage 2	2
M	32	2	University student	High school teacher	No	Stage 2 → Stage 3	No	Stage 3 → Stage 2	
N	39	2	Office worker	Office worker	No	Stage 3 → Stage 2	No	Stage 3 → Stage 2	2
O	44	7	Coach of Professional football team (Woman's top team)	President	No	Stage 3 → Stage 2	No	Stage 3 → Stage 2	2
P	45	3	Recruiter of Professional football team	Coach of Professional football team (Top team)	No	Stage 3 → Stage 2	No	Stage 3 → Stage 2	2
Q	44	7	Coach of Professional football team (Youth team)	Fiscal coach of Professional football team (Top team)	No	Stage 3 → Stage 2	No	Stage 3 → Stage 2	2
R	44	7	Owner of a football school	Owner of a football school	No	Stage 3 → Stage 2	No	Stage 3 → Stage 2	2

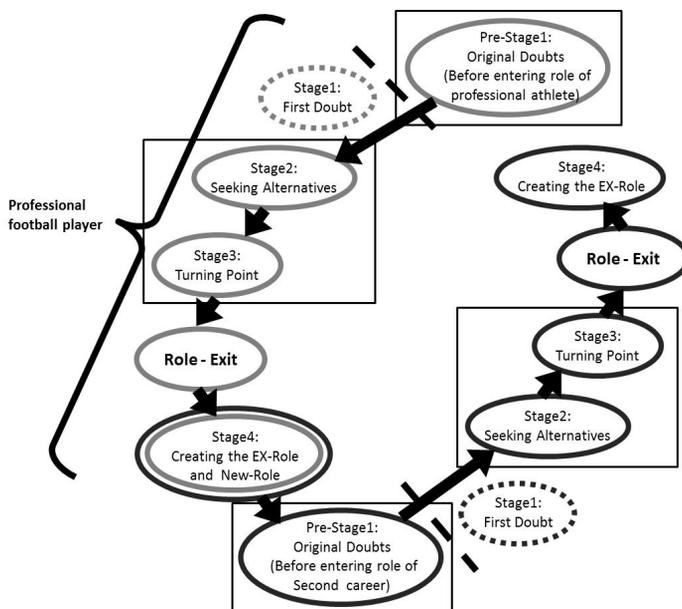


Figure 1 Modified Role - Exit Model: Pattern 1

In Pattern 2, ex-J-League players did not experience either the original doubts stage or the first doubts stage. They rather had anxiety for their career right after they became a professional athlete. In Pattern 2, ex-J-League players faced their turning point and then they seriously considered career alternatives. And they have had a “day-tripper” or “one at a time” tendency, focusing on the present moment such as ‘this season`, `this game`, and `this play`.

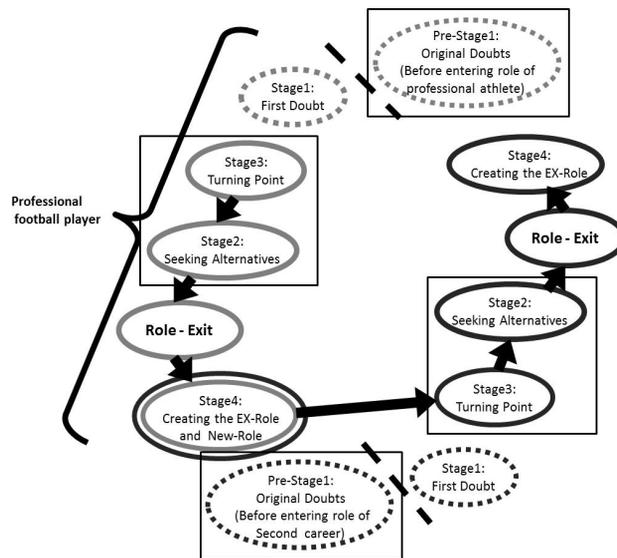


Figure 2 Modified Role - Exit Model: Pattern 2

Most ex-players in the J-League fall into either Pattern 1 or Pattern 2. Although this is speculation, it is thought that ex-J-League players will continue to fall within that pattern when considering alternative careers throughout their lives.

Thus, most ex-J-League players were not always nervous or anxious, and they were rather passive and dependent for their career transition process. In other words, a considerable number of former players tended to be very dependent to their significant others for their career transition.

Discussion

Previous studies (Taylor & Ogilvie, 1994; Drahota & Eitzen, 1998) suggested that athletes cannot fully disengage themselves from sports because their identities developed through sports are so strong and important even after retirement. The findings of this study and our past studies (1999, 2005) supported the assumption of the previous studies.

In terms of the length of role residual, the results of a past study (Sinclair & Orlick, 1993) indicate that it takes two years more or less for former athletes to make the adjustment to a new career. The findings of this study, however, point out that Japanese counterparts need a much longer time to adjust to a new career.

The results of this study reinforced the assumption of past studies (Blann, 1985; Blinde & Greendorfer, 1985; Zaichkowsky, 1994) that a lack of time and energy due to excessive involvement with athletic training has made a considerable number of athletes insufficiently prepared for retirement, regardless of nationality or sport. This seems to be rather a structural issue than a personal matter in sport circles. The researchers of this study found, moreover, that former Japanese football players tend to make career change without adequate preparation even for the third or fourth career transition, probably due to their “dependency.”

Conclusions

A longitudinal approach has been applied to this study, which had not been performed until now. On the basis of these findings, the following conclusions were drawn:

- (1) For their own career transition, Japanese former football players tend to be passive and even rather dependent on their significant others.
- (2) As far as the process of career transition is concerned, the role residual of “Ex” identity lasts a long time for most former football

players.

- (3) The role-exit model of Drahotka & Eitzen (1998) should be modified for Japanese ex-football players.

Also in precedent research, since a sports player has a very large identity about a sport, their research has suggested not being separated from the sports community (Taylor & Ogilvie, 1994; Drahotka & Eitzen, 1998). For soccer players, not being separated from the soccer community is clarified also in my own research of 1999 and 2005. It is likely that Japanese society makes it possible for occupations related to football becoming diverse and the positions of retired players increasing. However, in Japan, occupations related to soccer are extremely popular. Without an introduction from the persons involved, employment in the football community is impossible. Regarding this point, since football players know people related to football, they are easily introduced.

Japanese football players have neither the original doubts stage nor the first doubts stage, which means they have anxiety for their career right after they become a professional athlete. Japanese football players hit their turning point as they consider alternative career choices. And they have a tendency to focus on the moment such as `this season`, `this game` and `this play`. Also in precedent research, it is described that because during active service a sports player concentrates excessively on practice, etc., athletes retire without a plan after retirement or transition to the next career (Blann, 1985; Blinde & Greendorfer, 1985; Zaichkowsky, 1994).

Therefore, the model became different from that of Drahotka & Eitzen (1998). Thus, by attaining the purpose of this research, it is possible to make suggestions concretely regarding second careers, and it is possible to provide information to organizations which are performing businesses related to the second career for professional football players.

References

- Baillie, P. & Danish, S. (1992) Understanding the career transition of athletes. *International Journal of Sport Psychology*, 6, 77-98.
- Baillie, P. (1993) Understanding Retirement from Sports: Therapeutic Ideas for Helping Athletes in Transition. *The Counseling Psychologist*, 21(3), 399-410.
- Ball, W. (1976) Failure in sport. *American Sociological Association Review*, 41, 726-739.
- Blann, W. (1985) Intercollegiate athletic competition and students' educational career plans. *Journal of College Student Personnel*, 26, 115-118.
- Blinde, E. M., & Greendorfer, S. L. (1985) A reconceptualization of the process of leaving the role of competitive athlete. *International Review for the Sociology of Sport*, 20, 87-94.
- Charner, I., & Schollossberg, N. K. (1986) Variations by theme. The life transitions of clerical workers. *The Vocational Guidance Quarter*, June, 212-214.
- Coakley, J.J.(1983) Leaving competitive sport: Retirement or Rebirth? *Quest*, 35, 1-11.
- Conzelmann, A. & Nagel, S. (2003) Professional Careers of German Olympic Athletes. *International Review for the Sociology of Sport*, 38-3, 259-280.
- Drahota J. A. T. & Eitzen, D. S. (1998) The role exit of professional athletes. *Sociology of Sports Journal*, 15, 263-278.
- Ebaugh, H. R. F. (1988) *Becoming an Ex, The process of role exit*. Chicago. University of Chicago Press.
- Edgar H. Schein, (2003) *Career Anchors and Career Survival*, (Kanai, T. Translation) Hakuto-Shobo Publishing Company.
- Gerard J. F., & Heather, M.. (2008) Factor that influence career decision-making among elite athletes. *Australian Journal of Career Development*, 17(3), 26-38.
- Gordon, S. (1995) Career transitions in competitive sport. In T. Morris & J.

- Summers (Eds.). Sport psychology. Theory, applications and issues. *New York: John Wiley*, 474-501.
- Greendorfer, S. L., & Blinde, E. M. (1985) "Retirement" from Intercollegiate sport: Theoretical and empirical considerations. *Sociology of Sport Journal*, 2, 101-110.
- Joanne, B., & Gyozo, M. (2009) Involuntary career termination in Sport: a case study if the process of structurally induced failure, *Sport in Society*, 12(2), 240-257.
- Jodai, K. (1999) Second career of professional football player, unpublished thesis, Juntendo University.
- Jodai, K. (2005) A study on career transition of professional football player -J.Leaguer makes it to parasite-. Unpublished master thesis, Juntendo University.
- Jodai, K. & Nogawa, H., Aoba, Y., Fukushi, N. (2012) Career Transition of Japanese Professional Football Players - A longitudinal study of 10 years -, *Proceedings of Sportology*
- Kawamura, N. (2003) A study on career transition of woman football player. unpublished thesis, Juntendo University.
- Kubota, Y., Nogawa, H., Suenaga, N., & Shigeno, K. (2002) Career transition of "Ex"-Professional Soccer Players –Role Exit of professional Soccer Players-. *Journal of Health and Sports Science Juntendo University*, 6, 106-116.
- Lerch, S. H. (1981) The adjustment to retirement of professional baseball players. In Greeorfer, S. & Yiannakis, A. (Ed.), *Sociology of sport: Diverse perspectives*. West Point, NY: *leisure Press*, 38-48.
- Lerch, S. H. (1984) Athletic retirement as social death. An overview. In Theberge, N. and Donnelly, P. (Eds.) *Sport and the Sociological Imagination*. Fort Worth Texas. *Texas Christian University Press*. 259-274.
- McPherson, B. D. (1980) Retirement from Professional Sport: The process and Problems of Occupational and Psychological Adjustment. *Sociological Symposium*, 30, 126-143.

- McPherson, B. D. (1984) Sport participation across the life cycle: A review of the literature and suggestions for future research. *Sociology of Sport Journal*, 1, 213-230.
- Ooba, Y., & Tokunaga, M. (2000) Athletic Retirement in Competitive Sports. *Health Science*, 22, 47-58,
- Ooba, Y., & Tokunaga, M. (2001) Development of the Scale of Views on Athletic Retirement. *Japanese Journal of Sport Psychology*, 28(2), 39-52.
- Ooba, Y., & Tokunaga, M. (2002) Views on athletic retirement: application of the scale of views on athletic retirement and interview. *Japanese Journal of Health Promotion*, 4(1), 11-19.
- Ogilvie, B., & Taylor, J. (1993) Career termination issues among elite athletes. In Singer, R.N.; Murphey, M.; Tennant, L.K. (Eds). *Handbook of Research on Sport Psychology*. New York, Macmillan, 761-775. 8 Issue 1. 85-99.
- Pearson, R. E., & Petitpas A. J. (1990) Transitions of Athletes. Developmental and preventive perspectives. *Journal of Counseling & Development*, 69, 7 -10.
- Petitpas, A. J., Champagne, D., Chartrand, J., Danish, S., & Murphy, S. (1992) Athlete's guide to career planning. Champaign, *Illinois Human Kinetics*, 383-386.
- Rosenberg, E. (1981) Gerontological theory and athletic retirement. In Greeorfer, S. & Yiannakis, A. (Eds.), *Sociology of sport: Diverse perspectives*. *Leisure Press*, West point, 118-126.
- Rosenberg, E. (1984) Athletic retirement as social death. Concept and Perspectives. In Theberge, N. and Donnelly, P. (Eds.) *Sport and the Sociological Imagination*. Fort Worth Texas. *Texas Christian University Press*, 245-258.
- Rosenfeld, L. B., Richman, J. M., & Hardy, C. J. (1989) Examining social support networks among athletes: description and relationship to stress. *The Sport Psychologist*, 3(1), 23-33.
- Schollossberg, N. K. (1981) A model for analyzing human adaptation to transition. *The Counseling Psychologist*, 9(2), 2-18.
- Shigeno, K. (1999) The Role Exit Theory of Professional Soccer Player in Japan.

- Unpublished master thesis, National Institute of Fitness and Sports in Kanoya.
- Sinclair, D. A., & Orlick, T. (1993) Positive transitions from high-performance sport. *The Sport Psychologist*, 7, 138-150.
- Swain, D. A. (1991) Withdrawal from sport and Schlossberg's model of transitions. *Sociology of Sport Journal*, 8, 152-160.
- Taylor, J., & Ogilvie, B.C. (1994) A conceptual model of adaptation to retirement among athletes. *Journal of Applied Sport Psychology*, 6, 1-20.
- Toyoda, N., & Nakagomi, S. (1996) A study on athletic retirement of elite athletes: From the viewpoint of restructure of ego identity. *Japanese Society of Physical Education*, 41(3), 192-205.
- Toyoda, N. (1999) A Study on Identity Reconstruction of Athletic Retirement: Experiencing Middle Age Crisis among Former Olympians,. *Japanese Journal of Sport Education Studies*, 19(2), 117-129.
- Toyoda, N., & Matsuda, T. (2004) A Narrative Study of the Experiences of Turning Points in a Former Top Athlete. *Bulletin of Biwako Seikei Sport College*, 1, 117-131.
- Toyoda, N., & Nakagomi, S. (2000) Discussion of identity reconfirmation with retiring athletes. *Journal of Sport and Health Science*, 45(3), 315-332.
- Tsukuba University. (2006) Curriculum development of second career support education for the top athlete.
- Tsukuba University. (2007) Curriculum development of second career support education for the top athlete, 2007.
- Werthner, P., & Orlick, T. (1986) Retirement experiences of successful Olympic athletes. *International Journal of Sport Psychology*, 17, 337-363.
- Yoshida, T., Matsuno, T., Yamamoto, N., & Taniguchi, Y., (1999) Japanese Style of Sports Career Development in Athletes Findings from Cross – National Research on Athletes Participating in the 18th Universiade in 1995 at Fukuoka -, *Journal of Health Science*, 20, 63-76.
- Zaichkowsky, J. L. (1994) The Personal Involvement Inventory: Reduction, Revision, and Application to Advertising. *Journal of Advertising*, 23(4), 59-70.

Gallery's Profiles at Japanese Golf Tour Tournaments on the Basis of Attendance Motivation

Yasuhiro Watanabe¹

Hiroshima University of Economics

Koji Matsumoto

Hiroshima University of Economics

Haruo Nogawa

Juntendo University

Abstract

Past studies have shown the importance of the relations between sport managers and sport consumers and contributed to discovering many methods for understanding consumer behavior in attending sport events. However, sport spectator behavior has traditionally been understood in reference to a standard scale developed in a previous study that did not clearly focus on spectator behavior within specific sport settings. For instance, the behavior of live

¹ Correspondence to: Yasuhiro Watanabe, Assistant Professor, Department of Sport Business Administration, Hiroshima University of Economics

5-37-1, Gion, Asaminami-ku, Hiroshima-city, Hiroshima, Japan, 731-0192

Email: yasu-watanabe0110@hue.ac.jp

Co-author: Koji Matsumoto, Associate Professor, Department of Sport Business Administration,

Hiroshima University of Economics

5-37-1, Gion, Asaminami-ku, Hiroshima-city, Hiroshima, Japan, 731-0192

Co-author: Haruo Nogawa, Professor, School of Health and Sports Science, Juntendo University

1-1, Hiragagakuendai, Inzai-city, Chiba, Japan, 276-1695

spectators in professional golf tournaments are called the “gallery,” has been relatively unknown. Thus, the purpose of this study is to develop a profile of the gallery at a professional golf tournament. In order to achieve this objective, a cluster analysis was employed to examine gallery segments on the basis of attendance motivation. Data were collected from galleries at two professional golf tour tournaments using a quota sampling method. Out of the 991 questionnaires distributed, 943 usable questionnaires were collected. The results identify four distinct segments as a result of the multiple analytical steps.

Key words: golf gallery, golf gallery's profiles, professional golf tournaments, cluster analysis

Introduction

Sport marketing has become a very competitive, dynamic, and complex business around the world (Mullin, Hardy, & Sutton, 2007; Luna-Arocas & Tang, 2005). Sport organizations faced with a saturated marketplace have increased competition for consumer attention, which has compelled them to alter the way they access their consumers (Ross, 2007). In this way, the development of sport marketing has augmented the quality and quantity of research studies for sport spectators.

Research study on sport spectators has been done mainly in the Western nations; however, quite a few recent studies have been reported in Japan. Several researchers have tried to develop sport spectator scales to understand spectator characteristics, and it has been reported that various factors affect spectator behaviors (e.g., Wann, 1995; Trail & James, 2001; Funk, Mahony, Nakazawa, & Hirakawa, 2001). These studies have demonstrated that the motives that influence sports spectator behavior include affiliation, family, aesthetic, eustress, escape, achievement, drama, interest in player or sport, skill, and so on. In other studies, it has been found that perceptions of the

physical environment contribute to increase willingness to attend events (Wakefield & Sloan, 1995, Hill & Green, 2000; Greenwell, Fink, & Pastore, 2002). Wakefield and Sloan (1995) and Hill and Green (2000) found that the importance of service quality at stadiums, including concession stands, fan control, and scoreboards, influenced attendance; it has also been found that the improvement of staff service and amenities had an influence on the satisfaction of customers (Greenwell et al., 2002). In addition, Hill and Green (2000) found that parking influenced attendance by the difference of the stadium location.

In addition, a number of scholars have investigated market segmentation approaches to understanding spectator behavior, especially focusing on, demographic, psychographic, and behavioral variables (e.g., Kim & Kim, 1998; Ross, 2007; Wann, Grieve, Zapalac, & Pease, 2008). For instance, Ross (2007) uses cluster analysis to identify spectator segments based upon the brand associations of a professional sport team. Results indicated that two clusters were significantly different in terms of the frequency with which brand-association dimensions were elicited from memory and of their nature. Specifically, Cluster One agreed with all 11 brand-association dimensions more often than did Cluster Two.

Wann et al. (2008) stated that spectator motives differ by the characteristics of various sports and sport settings. They found aesthetic motivation particularly prominent in individual sports (figure skating, gymnastics, boxing, auto racing, tennis, professional wrestling, golf), while in team sports (professional baseball, college football, professional football, professional hockey, professional basketball, college basketball) scores were greater in stress, self-esteem, group affiliation, entertainment, and family.

Previous studies have shown the importance of relations between sport managers and sport consumers, contributing to the discovery of methods for understanding consumer behavior in attending sport events (Funk, Filo, Beaton, & Pritchard, 2009). However, sport spectator behavior was understood in

reference to a standard scale developed in a previous study, which did not clearly focus on the behavior found in any specific sport setting. Because the characteristics of spectators seem to differ from one sport setting to another, it is important to scrutinize relevant characteristics for specific sport settings. Robinson, Trail, and Kwon (2004) indicated that attending professional golf tournaments is different from attending team sport events such as baseball or football in that the spectator is watching specific individuals compete rather than teams. Similarly, McDonald, Milne, and Hong (2002) suggest that the theoretical models of prior studies may not apply in the golf context. Therefore, study of the characteristics of spectators of professional golf events is necessary. Live spectators at golf tournaments are called the “gallery”; so far, their behavior in Japan has been unstudied.

Major studies of professional golf spectators are found in Hansen and Gauthier (1993, 1994), Robinson and Carpenter (2002), and Robinson et al. (2004). These studies emphasize the following characteristics and attendance motives among golf spectators: “watching close to the players,” “watching silently during play,” “walking the course with the players,” and “the scenery of the course.” Hansen and Gauthier (1993, 1994) report that golf spectators had motives including “seeing the game close to the players,” “Golf is love,” and “learning the skills of the players.” In addition, Hansen and Gauthier (1993, 1994) state that golf spectators attend with the purpose of experiencing the golf course as well as cheering the players. Hansen and Gauthier (1993, 1994), and Gauthier and Hansen (1993) segmented their spectators socio-demographically to locate their characteristics by sex or age, rounds of golf played per year and the tour difference. They further claimed that “scenery of the course,” “picking up tips,” “event image,” “golfer personalities,” and “big names in the event” were important items in golf marketing, suggesting an attendance factor that of improving one’s own play by being near a player. Robinson and Carpenter (2002) reported a clear effect of employment, age, type of tickets purchased,

and frequency of golf rounds played in a year on which day a spectator watched a tournament. They argued that the characteristics of tournament watchers differed by day because most spectators attended only one day of a four-day tournament. They also reported that spectators on Thursday attended so they could enjoy playing golf themselves on Saturday, and that most of the spectators on Sunday did not play golf. Robinson et al. (2004) reported that aesthetics, drama/stress, and an appreciation of physical skill had an interactive effect on gender by tour, and that social interaction was different among tours.

Thus, although the characteristics of the golf spectator in North America have been identified, there are still fewer studies of the professional golf spectator when compared with spectators of team sports. Moreover, there is no study on the situation in Japan.

Therefore, the main purposes of this study are to ascertain the profile of the gallery at a professional golf tournament in Japan on the basis of the original golf gallery scale. This research study was implemented to identify the needs and wants of people at a professional golf tournament and improve the gallery's satisfaction.

Research Methods and Procedures

Demographics of Golf Galleries in Recent Years

According to the GTPA (Golf Tournament Promotion Association of Japan [Inc.]) (2003–2006), the sex ratio of galleries of the JGTO (Japan Golf Tour Association) is 68.7% males and 31.3% females. By age group, approximately 90% are over 30 and approximately 50% over 50. In addition, approximately 85% are actually amateur golfers, and approximately 60% attend tournaments with complimentary tickets. For the LPGA (Ladies' Professional Golfer's Association) of Japan, 67.4% were male and 32.6% were female. Approximately 40% of people in these galleries are over 40 years old,

approximately 82% are golf players, and approximately 50% attended on freebee.

Participants

The research subjects in this study were selected from galleries at the 34th Suntory Open Golf Tournament 2006 and the 22nd Ito-En Ladies Golf Tournament 2006. Using a stratified sampling method, the sex composition of the sample subjects was set at 7 men to 3 women. The subjects were limited to over-30-year-olds (GTPA, 2003–2006). A written questionnaire was distributed to golf galleries at the event area and entrance hall by the researchers. Of 991 questionnaires (Suntory, 695, and Ito-En, 296) distributed, 943 usable questionnaires (Suntory, 672 and Ito-En, 271) were collected, for a return rate of 95.1%.

Instruments

The instruments of this study were adapted and modified from previous golf-spectator research and other sports service-quality studies (Gauthier & Hansen, 1993; Hansen & Gauthier, 1993, 1994; Wakefield & Sloan, 1995). The instruments are classified into the four dimensions of purpose of attendance, event operation, desire to stay, and re-patronage. For purpose of attendance, Hansen and Gauthier's original golf spectator scale was utilized; however, some of the instruments were modified. For event operation, based on Wakefield and Sloan (1995), the physical-environment instruments were adapted and modified. In addition, subscales of desire to stay and re-patronage were constituted by a combination of the items of Hansen and Gauthier (1993) and Wakefield and Sloan (1995).

The content validity of the initial survey was assessed beforehand by a panel of sport management experts consisting of two tournament producers, sponsor personnel, and association officers, who were asked to examine the

content relevance, representativeness, and clarity of the items. The experts were invited to provide suggestions for remaking the questionnaire. The wording of the questionnaire was checked by experienced golf gallery members ($n = 10$). Finally, 21 items were used to predict gallery profiles. The subscales of purpose of attendance, desire to stay, and re-patronage were measured on a 6-point Likert-type scale ranging from "strongly disagree" (1) to "strongly agree" (6), whereas the subscales of event operation were measured on a 6-point Likert-type scale ranging from very dissatisfied (1) to very satisfied (6).

Data Analysis

The analysis was performed using SPSS 16.0 and Amos 16.0. With SPSS 16.0, cluster analysis, cross-tabulation and a univariate analysis of variance (ANOVA) were employed. On the basis of Amos 16.0, confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) was employed to identify the construct validity for all latent dimensions. The instruments used composed seven factors: "affection to player," "game of golf," "course setting," "hospitality and service management," "accessibility," "desire to stay," and "re-patronage." The CFA results revealed the key factors of construct validity in some model fit indices. Comparative Fit Index (CFI; .925), Goodness of Fit Index (GFI; .923), Normed Fit Index (NFI; .905), Tucker–Lewis Index (TLI; .903), and Root Mean Square Error of Approximation (RMSEA; .077) were all acceptable (CFI, GFI, NFI, TLI > .90, RMSEA < .08) (Kline, 2005). In addition, the Average Variance Extracted (AVE) ranged from .512 to .669, and for seven factor values exceeded the recommended .50 cutoff (Fornell & Larcker, 1981). According to the CFA result, the latent constructs examined in this study were satisfactory in terms of construct validity. Furthermore, the factor loadings ranged from .524 to .882, and the individual subscale reliability ranged from .668 to .891, indicating adequate internal consistency, with the exception of accessibility, which was a benchmark at the value of .70 (Nunnally & Bernstein, 1994). Analysis of the data suggested that

the overall reliability of the factors was acceptable (Table 1). Table 2 shows the means, standard deviations, and correlations among the constructs. The means ranged from 3.81 (1.12) to 5.13 (.85), and the inter-correlations values ranged from .251 to .681.

Table 1 The result of confirmatory factor analysis

<i>Factors</i>	<i>Items</i>	<i>Factor loadings</i>	<i>t-values</i>	<i>Reliability</i>	<i>AVE</i>
Affection to player	To cheer for famous (big names) players	.78	20.27	.72	.57
	To cheer for specific players	.69	15.57		
Purpose of attendance	Golf is my favorite sports	.71	18.22	.82	.53
	To see live action - to be close to golfers, feel presence	.82	25.07		
	To see live action – players' practice close to golfers	.77	24.65		
	Pick up tips on shot making or others - to learn players' skills	.72	15.41		
Course setting	To enjoy fitness benefits of walking golf course	.77	25.00	.79	.61
	To enjoy the scenery of golf course	.88	29.19		
Event operation	To interested in the food service, the shop and so on	.76	21.58	.89	.63
	To interested in the charity event (e.g. talking show, autograph session and so on)	.67	18.46		
	Event guidance (setting place of signboard, high quality scoreboard, fan control) is appropriate	.88	33.24		
	Event staff and volunteer staff treat us hospitably	.88	32.72		
	The number of restrooms and cleanliness are maintained	.78	27.33		
Accessibility	Easy access to golf course (parking area)	.65	14.52	.68	.51
	A lot of pick-up shuttle buses to golf course	.78	19.62		
Desire to stay	I enjoy spending time at the tour tournament	.84	18.76	.77	.58
	I like to stay at the tour tournament as long as possible	.71	18.48		
Re-patronage	I want to attend from a preliminary round the next time	.72	20.12	.86	.67
	I want to attend from a final round the next time	.52	10.35		
	I want to repatronage this tour tournament next year	.74	21.75		
	I want to attend other tour tournaments in the future	.71	22.58		

Table 2 The result of correlations among factors

<i>factors</i>	<i>1</i>	<i>2</i>	<i>3</i>	<i>4</i>	<i>5</i>	<i>6</i>	<i>Mean</i>	<i>SD</i>
1 Affection to player	—						4.89	1.11
2 Game of golf	.477***	—					5.13	.85
3 Course setting	.402***	.407***	—				4.17	1.08
4 Hospitality and service management	.378***	.334***	.681***	—			3.81	1.12
5 Accessibility	.256***	.265***	.509***	.469***	—		3.83	1.41
6 Desire to stay	.322***	.452***	.458***	.456***	.251***	—	4.83	1.11
7 Re-patronage	.457***	.548***	.452***	.453***	.309***	.542***	4.70	.89

*** p < .001

Procedure of Cluster Analysis

Cluster analysis has become a common tool for the marketer. Most researchers rely on this technique for developing empirical groupings of people, products, or occasions that may serve as the basis for further analysis (Punj & Stewart, 1983). This study used the two-stage cluster analysis methods, both hierarchical (Ward's) and nonhierarchical (k-means), that Punj and Stewart (1983), Kim and Kim (1998), and Ross (2007) recommended. The two-stage cluster analysis can determine both a candidate number of clusters and a starting point for the interactive partitioning analysis. Ward's method was used to identify the number of clusters within the sample, based on each factor's mean score. The next step, the k-means method, was used to classify respondents into homogeneous groups based on their scores on the dimensions of each factor. Therefore, the k-means method with the initial seeds provided by Ward's method was conducted to obtain the final clusters.

Results

The results of the agglomeration schedule reveal that going from four or three cluster produces the largest increase in the clustering coefficients. Because of this, the four-cluster solution was selected as having the appropriate number of clusters. The k-means procedure was then carried out by specifying the desired number of clusters to four, resulting in the respondents being assigned into the four clusters. Cluster 1 (n = 253) made up about 27% of the sample, Cluster 2 (n = 187) made up 20%, Cluster 3 (n = 220) made up 23%,

and Cluster 4 (n = 283) made up 30% (Table 3).

Table 3 Socio-demographic profile of market segmentation

		Cluster 1		Cluster 2		Cluster 3		Cluster 4	
Sex** $\chi^2=12.738$ df=3	Male	58.5%	(148)	74.9%	(140)	64.5%	(142)	64.7%	(183)
	Female	41.5%	(105)	25.1%	(47)	35.5%	(78)	35.3%	(100)
		100%	(253)	100%	(187)	100%	(220)	100%	(283)
Marital status	Married	87.8%	(215)	81.3%	(148)	82.3%	(177)	87.9%	(247)
	Single	12.2%	(30)	18.7%	(34)	17.7%	(38)	12.1%	(34)
		100%	(245)	100%	(182)	100%	(215)	100%	(281)
Age*** $\chi^2=62.520$ df=9	30-39 years	12.3%	(31)	24.1%	(45)	26.8%	(59)	12.0%	(34)
	40-49 years	17.8%	(45)	21.9%	(41)	26.4%	(58)	18.0%	(51)
	50-59 years	30.0%	(76)	27.3%	(51)	31.4%	(69)	29.0%	(82)
	60 years or older	39.9%	(101)	26.7%	(50)	15.5%	(34)	41.0%	(116)
		100%	(253)	100%	(187)	100%	(220)	100%	(283)
Companion	alone	19.2%	(48)	16.6%	(30)	12.4%	(27)	18.5%	(52)
	family	37.6%	(94)	41.4%	(75)	35.9%	(78)	43.1%	(121)
	friend/acquaintance	43.2%	(108)	42.0%	(76)	51.6%	(112)	38.4%	(108)
		100%	(250)	100%	(181)	100%	(217)	100%	(281)
Access	car	80.4%	(201)	84.5%	(158)	84.1%	(185)	77.7%	(220)
	train/bus	18.8%	(47)	12.3%	(23)	14.5%	(32)	20.5%	(58)
	other	.8%	(2)	3.2%	(6)	1.4%	(3)	1.8%	(5)
		100%	(250)	100%	(187)	100%	(220)	100%	(283)
Time required to the place*** $\chi^2=31.672$ df=9	<30	29.0%	(73)	29.4%	(55)	25.0%	(55)	34.3%	(97)
	31 - 60	42.5%	(107)	29.4%	(55)	28.2%	(62)	37.5%	(106)
	61 - 90	13.9%	(35)	20.3%	(38)	21.4%	(47)	15.5%	(44)
	90 or more	14.7%	(37)	20.9%	(39)	25.5%	(56)	12.7%	(36)
		100%	(252)	100%	(187)	100%	(220)	100%	(283)
Job** $\chi^2=27.690$ df=12	office worker	38.6%	(97)	47.6%	(89)	45.5%	(100)	34.2%	(95)
	public employee	2.4%	(6)	4.8%	(9)	6.8%	(15)	4.0%	(11)
	independent	11.6%	(29)	10.7%	(20)	12.7%	(28)	11.9%	(33)
	homemaker	21.1%	(53)	16.6%	(31)	20.9%	(46)	20.9%	(58)
	other	26.3%	(66)	20.3%	(38)	14.1%	(31)	29.1%	(81)
		100%	(251)	100%	(187)	100%	(220)	100%	(278)
Years attending event	1 - 3	77.3%	(184)	84.9%	(129)	82.0%	(164)	87.2%	(211)
	4 - 6	16.0%	(38)	11.8%	(18)	13.0%	(26)	8.7%	(21)
	7 - 9	1.3%	(3)	.7%	(1)	1.5%	(3)	.8%	(2)
	10 or more	5.5%	(13)	2.6%	(4)	3.5%	(7)	3.3%	(8)
		100%	(238)	100%	(152)	100%	(200)	100%	(242)
Rounds played per year*	0	11.4%	(28)	15.6%	(29)	13.4%	(29)	20.4%	(56)
	1 - 10	29.7%	(73)	26.9%	(50)	32.7%	(71)	26.3%	(72)
	11 - 25	31.3%	(77)	23.1%	(43)	31.3%	(68)	25.5%	(70)
	26 or more	27.6%	(68)	34.4%	(64)	22.6%	(49)	27.7%	(76)
		100%	(246)	100%	(186)	100%	(217)	100%	(274)
Ticket	complimentary	58.1%	(133)	61.8%	(107)	63.1%	(128)	62.7%	(160)
	advance	19.7%	(45)	15.6%	(27)	16.7%	(34)	16.9%	(43)
	daily	22.3%	(51)	22.5%	(39)	20.2%	(41)	20.4%	(52)
		100%	(229)	100%	(173)	100%	(203)	100%	(255)

*** p < .001 ** p < .01 * p < .05

Cluster 1 ($n = 253$) made up 26.8% of the sample. In this cluster, 58.5% of the gallery was male, while 41.5% was female. About 40% of Cluster 1 were 60 years old or older, and 30.0% were 50–59 years old. The majority (69.9%) were over 50. Classified by golf-playing habits, the cluster was made up of infrequent golfers (29.7%, 1–10 rounds) and frequent golfers (31.3%, 11–25 rounds). With regard to ticket type, 19.7% had advance tickets. Most of this cluster were office workers, and 42.5% took 31–60 minutes to get to the place. For mean factor scores, all factors were higher for “attachment to tourney” than for the other clusters. In particular, this cluster had the highest scores in desire to stay at the tourney.

Cluster 2 ($n = 187$) made up 20% of the sample. Three-quarters of Cluster 2 were male. The largest single group of them (27.3%) was 50–59 years old, but all age groups were close to the same. A significant minority were avid golfers (34.4%, 26+ rounds) and office workers (47.6%). Those who had taken less than 60 minutes to get there accounted for 58.8%, with the same ratio for spectators under 30 and 30–60. For mean factor scores, all factors were lower on affection for the tourney than in the other clusters. In particular, this group had the lowest scores for accessibility (2.63).

Cluster 3 ($n = 220$) made up 23.3% of the sample. Of this cluster, 64.5% were male and 35.5% were female. This cluster was younger (mostly in the 40–49 and 30–39 age groups) than other clusters. More of the participants attended with friends/acquaintance than in other clusters. The cluster was composed of infrequent golfers (32.7%, 1–10 rounds) and frequent golfers (31.3%, 11–25 rounds), and they worked as office workers (45.5%) and homemakers (20.9%). Time required to get there could be largely divided into 31–60 minutes (28.2%) and 90 minutes or more (25.5%). For mean factor scores, affection to player (5.28), game of golf (5.37), hospitality and service management (3.82), desire to stay (5.43), and re-patronage (5.05) had high scores.

Cluster 4 ($n = 283$) made up 30.0% of the sample. Of this cluster, 64.7% were male and 35.3% were female. The plurality (41.0%) was 60 or over. More attended with family (43.1%) than another clusters. Responses on golf-playing were classified in about the usual ratio. There were more non-golfers (0 rounds, 20.4) than in the other clusters. The group was composed of office workers (34.2%) and other (29.1%). It overwhelmingly took less than 60 minutes (71.8%) to get to the event. For mean factor scores, course setting (4.46) and accessibility (4.54) had the second-highest scores among the clusters.

Discriminant Analysis

The results of the ANOVA indicated that all seven golf-gallery scale dimensions contributed to the cluster formation (Table 4, Figure 1). Discriminant analysis showed that the results of the analysis (Wilk's lambda = .117, $df = 21$, $p < .001$, canonical correlation = .880) revealed that the four clusters do indeed demonstrate demographic variables and golf-gallery behavior factors. Finally, 97.3% of the original grouped cases were correctly classified and 97.1% of cross-validation was correctly classified.

Table 4 The result of ANOVA

	Cluster 1 (n=253)		Cluster 2 (n=187)		Cluster 3 (n=220)		Cluster 4 (n=283)		F	prob	Paired Comparison
	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	Mean	SD			
Affection to player	5.59	1.02	4.15	1.27	5.28	1.07	4.54	1.08	121.89	.000	C1>C2,C3,C4 C3>C2,C4 C4>C2
Game of golf	5.64	.61	4.65	1.10	5.37	.80	4.87	.89	81.28	.000	C1>C2,C3,C4 C3>C2,C4 C4>C2
Course setting	5.37	.90	2.88	1.26	3.96	1.18	4.46	.98	250.90	.000	C1>C2,C3,C4 C3>C2 C4>C2,C3
Hospitality and service management	4.88	1.10	2.75	1.14	3.82	1.16	3.79	1.08	384.80	.000	C1>C2,C3,C4 C3>C2 C4>C2
Accessibility	5.11	1.32	2.63	1.53	3.04	1.41	4.54	1.38	254.68	.000	C1>C2,C3,C4 C3>C2 C4>C2,C3
Desire to stay	5.74	1.04	3.85	1.26	5.43	1.10	4.30	1.05	268.25	.000	C1>C2,C3,C4 C3>C2,C4 C4>C2
Re-patronage	5.38	.75	3.92	1.11	5.05	.80	4.45	.90	204.96	.000	C1>C2,C3,C4 C3>C2,C4 C4>C2

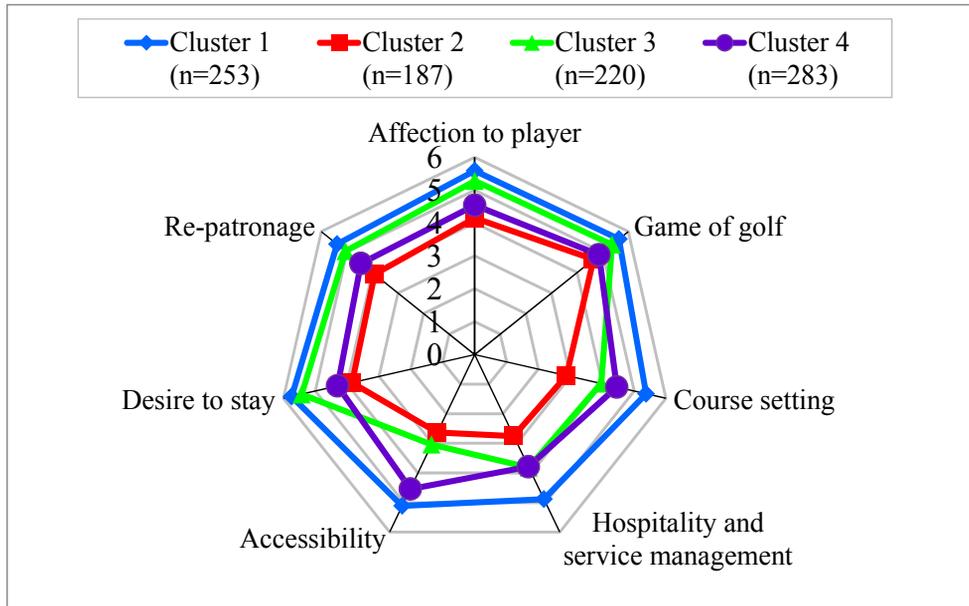


Figure 1 The means of golf spectator behavior factors

Discussion

While the statistical method employed (the two-stage cluster analysis) in this study has been used for some time in other fields and was previously validated in those studies (Ross, 2007), it has never been used in the study of golf spectators. This sport spectator study confirms that by using this statistical approach (Ross, 2007), it is possible to use a traditional large-scale consumer survey to identify viable segments in the sport event market based on attendance motivation of golf galleries. Market segmentation enables several major factors of strategic importance.

This study was conducted in an attempt to segment golf galleries into homogeneous groups on the basis of motivational factors. Four separate segments were revealed through the use of factor analysis and cluster analysis. Golf galleries are indeed a heterogeneous group when considering their motivations for watching the tourney. There are several marketing implications that emerge from this analysis of the demographic and motivational profiles of

tour attendees and why these spectators attend tour tournaments. Based on the results of this research, each distinct segment had its own particular characteristics. A brief description of each cluster will more clearly demonstrate the various types of golf galleries groups by motivations. The following section details some of the key discoveries and provides insight for marketing strategies of tour tournament.

Cluster1: The salient characteristic of this group was love of golf tournaments. In short, if organizers are able to provide galleries with attractive events, they may be able to increase gallery satisfaction levels for attendees who belong to this group. Hansen and Gauthier (1994) explain that "Unique spectator reasons, such as making one's own decision as to who and where to watch, being close to golfers, can differentiate golf events from virtually all other spectator sport events." These unique conditions impact attendance motives and further reveal their influence on the desire to stay (Hansen & Gauthier, 1993, 1994; Robinson & Carpenter, 2002). Because there are more women in this group than other clusters, organizers may wish to look at the possibility of developing infrastructure to make watching the game more comfortable by providing spectator space for the exclusive use of the female.

Cluster2: Organizers must think of ways to attract the interest of this group in golf tourneys. Because this group has highest ratio of males and of avid golfers, the organizers should provide them the opportunity to play one round on the tournament course (e.g., supply discount tickets).

Cluster3: This cluster is younger than the other groups, and tends to look for the big swings and the well-known personalities. In addition, many of them came from relatively distant places. Therefore, organizers may need to make efforts to organize events such as skill clinics and interviews with players. Then, this cluster will be satisfied and may re-attend.

For cluster2 and cluster3, golf galleries are "players," they visit tour tournaments in order to help their own skills (McDonald et al., 2002). In addition,

Hansen and Gauthier (1993) reported that this was an important feature of watching tour tournaments. From the above-mentioned argument about "players," watching tour tournaments may be a more important factor than a specific characteristic of golf in fascinating the gallery. These opinions were supported in cluste2 and cluster3 of this study.

Cluster4: Because this cluster group is the largest of all, organizers should make an effort to attract people that fit into this group. Compared to other sports, golf offers the gallery the uniqueness of local scenery and fitness benefits from walking the course. The results of this study determined these aspects for golf galleries, and support the results of prior studies (Gauthier & Hansen, 1993). Organizers should think not only in terms of providing a golf tourney for spectators, but other attractions. For example, if you achieve a set number of steps, you could have a photograph taken with a player.

Conclusion

This study was designed to provide Japanese golf-gallery profiles and marketing information. Four distinct segments were identified as a result of multiple analytical steps. Golf tourney organizers can use the results provided in this study to assist them in their development of a systematic marketing plan that efficiently satisfies the needs and desires of their target markets. However, this study also had some limitations. The sample of this study was intended as only several tour tournaments of a particular area among the dozens of tourneys that take place each year. So as Robinson et al. (2004) point out, differences of the site of the tournament may result in differences in spectator motives and attachment of the spectator. In addition, the development of spectator studies of further tour tournaments should understand that we chose focus group interviews and specific individuals as well as quantitative data and examination of qualitative data. We want to propose it as a future research theme.

References

- Fornell, C., & Larcker, D.F. (1981). Evaluating structural equation models with unobservable variables and measurement error. *Journal of Marketing Research*, 18, 39-50.
- Funk, D. C., Mahony, D. L., Nakazawa, M., & Hirakawa, S. (2001). Development of the Sport Interest Inventory (SII): Implications for Measuring Unique Consumer Motives at Team Sporting Events. *International Journal of Sport Marketing & Sponsorship*, September/October, 291-316.
- Funk, D. C., Filo, K., Beaton, A. A., & Pritchard, M. (2009). Measuring the motives of sport event attendance: Bridging the academic-practitioner divide to understanding behavior. *Sport Marketing Quarterly*, 18, 126-138.
- Gauthier, R., & Hansen, H. (1993). Female Spectators: Marketing implications for Professional Golf Events. *Sport Marketing Quarterly*, 2(4), 21-28.
- Greenwell, T.C., Fink, J.S., & Pastore, D.L. (2002). Assessing the Influence of the Physical Sports Facility on Customer Satisfaction within the Context of the Service Experience. *Sport Management Review*, 5, 129-148.
- Hansen, H., & Gauthier, R. (1993). Spectators' Views of LPGA Golf Events. *Sport Marketing Quarterly*, 2(1), 17-25.
- Hansen, H., & Gauthier, R. (1994). The Professional Golf Product: Spectators' Views. *Sport Marketing Quarterly*, 3(4), 9-16.
- Hill, B., & Green, B.C. (2000). Repeat attendance as a function of involvement, loyalty, and the sportscape across three football contexts. *Sport Management Review*, 3, 145-162.
- Kim, C., & Kim, S. Y. (1998). Segmentation of sport center members in Seoul based on attitudes toward service quality. *Journal of Sport Management*, 12, 273-287.
- Kline, R. B. (2005). *Principles and practice of structural equation modeling* (2nd ed.). New York, NY: Guilford Press.

- Luna-Arocas, R. & Tang, T. L. P. (2005). The Use of Cluster Analysis to Segment Clients of a Sport Center in Spain. *European Sport Management Quarterly*, 5, 4, 381-413.
- McDonald, M.A., Milne, R., & Hong, J.B. (2002). Motivational Factors for Evaluating Sport Spectator and participant Markets. *Sport Marketing Quarterly*, 11(2), 100-113.
- Mullin, B. J., Hardy S., & Sutton, W. A. (2007). *Sport marketing* (3rd ed.). Champaign IL: Human Kinetics.
- Nunnally, J. C., & Bernstein, I. H. (1994). *Psychometric theory* (3rd ed.). New York, NY: McGraw-Hill,.
- Punj, G. & Stewart, D.W. (1983). Cluster analysis in marketing research: review and suggestions for application. *Journal of Marketing Research*, 20, 134-148.
- Robinson, M.J., Trail, G.T., & Kwon, H. (2004). Motives and Points of Attachment of Professional Golf Spectators. *Sport Management Review*, 7, 167-192.
- Robinson, M.J., & Carpenter, J.R. (2002). The Day of the Week's Impact on Selected Socio-demographic Characteristics and Consumption Patterns of Spectators at a LPGA Event. *Sport Marketing Quarterly*, 11(4), 242-247.
- Ross, S. (2007). Segmenting Sport Fans Using Brand Associations: Cluster Analysis. *Sport Marketing Quarterly*, 16, 15-24.
- The Golf Tournament Promotion Association of Japan Inc. (2003-2006). *Tour tournament research*.
- Trail, G. T., & James, J. D. (2001). The motivation scale for sport consumption: Assessment of the scale's psychometric properties. *Journal of Sport Behavior*, 24(1), 108-127.
- Wakefield, K.L., & Sloan, H. (1995). The Effects of Team Loyalty and Selected Stadium Factors on Spectator Attendance. *Journal of Sport Management*, 9, 153-172.

- Wann, D.L. (1995). Preliminary Validation of the sport fan motivation scale. *Journal of Sport and Social Issues*, 19, 377-396.
- Wann, D. L., Grieve, F. G., Zapalac, R. K., & Pease, D. G. (2008). Motivational profiles of sport fans of different sports. *Sport Marketing Quarterly*, Vol. 17, No. 1, 6-19.
- Watanabe, Y., Matsumoto, K., & Nogawa. H. (2011). Market segmentation of professional golf tour tournament in Japan: an analysis of professional golf spectators. *Inaugural International Academy of Sportology, Program & Abstract*, 54.

The Relationship between the Month of Birth (in quartiles) and Participation in Elite Under 18 Soccer Players in Asia

Lee Kok Sonk¹

Ministry of Education, Singapore

Abstract

The purpose of this study was to investigate the relationship between the month of birth (in quartiles) and participation in elite Under 18 soccer players in Asia. Participants were 192 boys from 10 participating countries in the 30th Asian Schools Championship held in Singapore. The data were analysed according to the competition results. The elite category comprised the top five teams in the competition while the non-elite category comprised of the bottom five teams in the competition. The participants' month of birth were classified into four different birth quartiles. Using a logistic regression, with team status (elite vs non-elite team) as the dependent variable, the analysis provided evidence that the quartile of the year in which a player is born is a significant predictor of membership to the elite team ($\chi^2(3) = 12.66$; $p = 0.0054$). Odds ratio was also calculated. The odds of belonging to the elite team gets better as the soccer player is born earlier compared to when a player is born in the last quarter. The

¹Dr Lee Kok Sonk
Head and Senior Specialist Talent Development
Education Programmes Division
Co-Curricular Activities Branch
Ministry of Education, Singapore
Tel: 6460 9859
Email: lee_kok_sonk@moe.gov.sg

odds were 4.4 to 1, 4.2 to 1 and 2.01 to 1 for the first, second and third quarter compared to those born in the last quarter. The results of this analysis were consistent with the hypotheses that boys born early in the year are more successful in soccer in later adolescence. Soccer coaches and physical education teachers must be aware that many of the “talented” soccer players may be overlooked because they were born late in the selection year. They should provide equal opportunities for success for all children.

Key words: talent, talent development. soccer, birthdates

Introduction

Success in youth sport is highly dependent on the provision of learning opportunities and conducive environment for development (Cote, Macdonald, Baker, & Abernethy, 2006). One factor likely to influence the provision of learning opportunities is the talent identification and selection programme. The belief that early talent identification leads to early talent development has resulted in talent identification and selection beginning even at an earlier age. This can be problematic as during adolescence, boys who are advanced in physical maturity status could perform a variety of motor tasks and skills more proficiently than do less mature boys (Malina, Bouchard, & Bar-Or, 2004).

A great deal of research has indicated that the talent identification and selection procedures may be biased by those born early in the eligibility year for youth entry into sport (Helsen, Winckel & Williams, 2005; Vaeyens, Philippaerts & Malina, 2005; Sherar et al., 2007). They have advantages in power, speed and strength, and are perceived as being more “talented” at a selection camp and are usually the players selected to represent the school.

Studies that have investigated this relative age effect demonstrate that this effect generalises across many sports such as American football (Glamser & Marciani, 1990), baseball (Thompson et al., 1991), cricket (Edwards, 1994), ice

hockey (Boucher & Mutimer, 1994), hockey (Barnsley et al., 1985) and tennis (Edgar & O'Donoghue, 2005). Furthermore, the same trend was also observed in young elite Portuguese soccer players age 11 to 16 years old (Malina et al., 2000) and other age groups (Barnley et al., 1992, Verhulst, 1992, Helsen et al., 1998).

One limitation of the existing research is the lack of data from the Asian youth population. Extensive research has thus far been conducted with youths in America, Australia and Europe, yet none has examined data from Asia. Therefore, the purpose of this study was to examine the relationship between birth quarter and participation in an Asian under-18 soccer competition. This study would add to the knowledge base in the sports literature regarding the effect of date of birth and talent development in soccer. This study was conducted during the 30th Asian Schools Championship held in Singapore between 15th and 26th August 2002.

Methods

The study consisted of 192 boys from the ten participating countries in the championship, which included South Korea, Thailand, Singapore, China, Vietnam, Malaysia, Indonesia, Brunei, Sri Lanka and India. Their mean age was 17.5 ± 0.7 years. Data was obtained from the participating boy's registration form. These were verified by the competition officials. Consent from the participating teams and organisers were obtained prior to the study.

The data were analysed according to the competition results. The teams were divided into two categories. The elite category comprised teams in the top half of the competition ($n=5$) and the non-elite category comprised teams in the bottom half of the competition ($n=5$) in terms of ranking. In addition, the participants' months of birth were classified into four different birth quarters i.e. Quarter 1: Jan – Mar; Quarter 2: Apr – Jun; Quarter 3: Jul – Sep; Quarter 4: Oct

– Dec).

Stata version 7 (Stata Corporation, Texas) was used to run a logistic regression to explore the relationship between team status (elite vs. non-elite team) and birth quarter. The independent variable was the participant's month of birth classified into four different birth quarters. The dependent variable was team status (elite versus non-elite team). Odds ratio and 95% confidence intervals were computed, relative to a reference group for birth quarter. The reference group for this analysis is the players born in the fourth quarter. The level of significance was set at $p < 0.05$.

Results

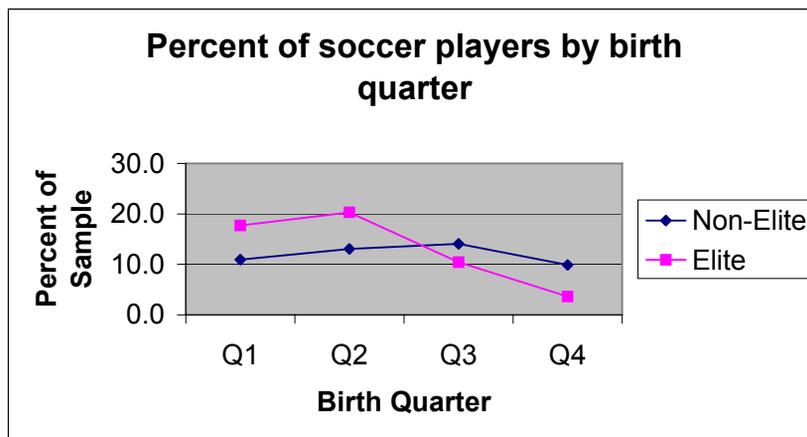


Figure 1 Percent of elite and non-elite soccer players by birth quarter

Figure 1 shows the distributions of birth quarters for the elite and non-elite soccer teams. The figure shows that majority of the elite soccer players were born in the first and second quarters of the year. The non-elite soccer players were born in all quarters of the year with quarter 3 being the highest. In addition, there were approximately five times more elite players who were born in the first quarter compared to those born in the last quarter. However, in the non-elite group this ratio was approximately the same. This finding suggested that elite

soccer players in Asia tended to be born early in the selection year, while non-elite soccer players in Asia were born all quarters of the year.

Logistic regression was used to analyse the relationship between birth distribution and status of soccer teams. The dependent variable is the status of the teams (elite or non-elite) with birth quarter as the independent variable. Logistic regression was used because the dependent variable is a dichotomous outcome variable. The logistic regression also provides estimates of odds ratio, which is a measure of association.

The logistic regression provided evidence that the quarter of the year in which a player is born is a significant predictor of membership to the elite team ($\chi^2(3) = 12.66$; $p = 0.0054$). Those that were born in the first and second quarters tend to belong to the elite team. It also provided additional information about their odds ratio (Table 1). Players born in the last quarter is used as the reference group. The odds of belonging to the elite team gets better as the soccer player is born earlier compared to when a player is born in the last quarter. The odds were 4.4 to 1, 4.2 to 1 and 2.01 to 1 for the first, second and third quarter compared to those born in the last quarter. The confidence interval for the odds ratio revealed that those born in the third quarter to fourth quarter are not significantly different ($p > 0.05$). The odds ratio of the first quarter and second quarter compared to the last quarter is significant ($p < 0.05$).

Table 1 Results of the logistic regression with the last quarter used as a comparison

Elite	Odds Ratio	SE	z	P > Z	95% CI
Q3	2.01	1.07	1.31	0.189	0.71-5.70
Q2	4.23	2.16	2.82	0.005	1.56-11.53
Q1	4.39	2.29	2.84	0.005	1.58-12.23

Discussion

The results from our study were consistent to previous studies (Dudink, 1994; Baxter-Jones et al, 1996; Malina et al., 2000; Brewer, et al., 1995; Richardson & Stratton, 1999) in that elite Asian soccer players were born early in the competition year. The odds ratio also provided the information (those born in the first quarter has a 4.4 odds compared to those born in the last quarter) that those players belonging to the elite team were born earlier in the year compared players born in the last quarter. Our results also show that those born in the first quarter are approximately five times more than those born in the last quarter. This is supported by Barnsley's et al. (1985) study in which they reported approximately four times more when those born earlier in the competition year were compared to players born later. Therefore this finding suggested that there is an advantage in selecting soccer players to form the best team based on the months they were born. They have a distinct advantage of being selected as having talent over those born later in the year. The data also suggested that soccer players born early in the year have presumably more experience, thus they dominate youth soccer. These players might be associated with larger body size, greater muscular power and strength (Helsen et al., 2000). Unfortunately such data were not collected in this study.

This finding has particular relevance to coaches, physical education teachers and sports administrators. The evidence is quite strong that those born later in the year may not have an advantage in soccer team selection. They might have missed the opportunity for training at a critical time (Reilly et al., 2000). This might result in the possible exclusion of this group of children. The result also reflected the need for coaches and physical education teachers to be familiar with the basic principles of growth and maturation. Most importantly they should provide equal opportunities for success for all children.

From the present study, it appears that selection of soccer favours those born early in the selection year. In view of this, a possible way to counter this

bias is to have two soccer competitions one starting early in the year and the other in the middle of the year. This approach would not unfairly bias those born later in the competition year. Another possible method is the closer matching of players into groups based on maturation rather than chronological age (Helsen et al., 2000). As pointed out by Williams and Reilly (2000), players should be selected on skill and ability rather than on physical size. A third method is to concentrate more on physical and technical skills rather than physical precocity. Those born later in the competition year may appear to be physically incapable of coping with the high level of soccer. They can be included in development squads and introduced into the competitive situation more gradually (Hammond, 2001).

In conclusion, the result of our study suggests that those born early in the year of selection enjoy greater exposure to soccer. Those born early have already accrued the effects of better coaching, better facilities, better competitions and more playing experience. This significantly increases their chance to become elite players and thus be chosen to play in the elite team. The notion is that as long as the standard competition in soccer remains unchanged, this bias towards those born early in the selection years will persist.

Acknowledgement

The author would like to thank the colleagues from the Psychological Assessment and Research Branch, Ministry of Education, Singapore for their helpful comments on this paper.

References

- Barnsley, R.H., Thompson, A.H., & Barnsley, P.E. (1985). Hockey success and birthdate: The relative age effect. *Canadian Association for Health, Physical Education, and Recreation Journal*, 51, 23-28.
- Barnsley, R.H., Thompson, A.H., & Legault, P. (1992). Family planning: Football

- style. The relative effect in football. *International Review for the Sociology of Sport*, 27, 77-87.
- Baxter-Jones, A.D.G. & Helms, P.J. (1996). Effects of training at a young age: A review of the training of young athletes (TOYA) study. *Pediatric Exercise Science*, 8, 310-327.
- Boucher, J., & Mutimer, B. (1994). The relative age phenomenon in sport: A replication and extension with ice hockey. *Research Quarterly for Exercise and Sport*, 65, 377-381.
- Brewer, J., Balsom, P., & Davis, J. (1995). Seasonal birth distribution amongst European soccer players. *Sports Exercise Injury*, 1, 154-157.
- Cote, J., Macdonald, D.J., Baker, J., & Abernethy, B. (2006). When “where” is more important than “when”: Birthplace and birthdate effects on the achievement of sporting expertise. *Journal of Sports Science*, 24(10), 1065-1073.
- Dudink, A. (1994). Birth date and sporting success. *Nature*, 368, 592.
- Edgar, S., & O'Donoghue, P. (2005). Season of birth distribution of elite tennis players. *Journal of Sports Science*, 23(10), 1013-1020.
- Edwards, S. (1994). Born too late to win? *Nature*, 370, 186.
- Galmser, F.D., & Marciani, L.M. (1990). The importance of relative age to college football participation. *Communication to the Annual Meeting of the Mid-South Sociological Association*, Hot Springs, AR.
- Hammond, J. (2001). Talent Identification and development in Indian Football. In P. Dimeo & Mills, J. (Eds), *Soccer in South Asia*. 146-161. London: Frank Cass Publishers.
- Helsen, W.F., Starkes, J.L., & Van Winckel, J. (1998). The influence of relative age on success and dropout in male soccer players. *American Journal of Human Biology*, 10, 791-798.
- Helsen, W.F., Hodges, N.J., Van Winckel, J., & Starkes, J.L. (2000). The roles of talent, physical precocity and practice in the development soccer

- expertise. *Journal of Sports Sciences*, 18, 727-736.
- Helsen, W.F., Winckel., Jan Van., & Williams, A.M. (2005). The relative age effect in youth soccer across Europe. *Journal of Sports Science*, 23 (6): 629 – 636.
- Malina, R.M., Pena Reyes, M.E., Eisenmann, J.C., Horta, L., Rodrigues, J., & Miller, R. (2000). Height, mass and skeletal maturity of elite Portuguese soccer players aged 11-16 years. *Journal of Sports Sciences*, 18, 685-693.
- Malina, R.M., Bouchard, C., & Bar-Or, O. (2004). *Growth, maturation, and physical activity* (2nd edn.). Champaign, IL: Human Kinetics.
- Reilly, T., Bangsbo, J., & Franks, A. (2000). Anthropometric and physiological predispositions for elite soccer. *Journal of Sports Sciences*, 18, 669-683.
- Richardson, D.J., & Stratton, G. (1999). Preliminary investigation into the season birth distribution of England World Cup campaign players. *Journal of Sports Sciences*, 17, 821-822.
- Sherar, L.B., Baxter-Jones, A.D.G., Faulkner, R.A., & Russell, K.W. (2007). Do physical maturity and birth date predict talent in male youth ice hockey players? *Journal of Sports Science*, 25 (8), 879 – 886.
- Thompson, A.H., Barnsley, R.H., & Stebelsky, G. (1991). Born to play ball: The relative age and major league baseball. *Sociology of Sport Journal*, 8, 146-151.
- Vaeyens, R., Philippaerts, R.M., & Malina, R. M. (2005). The relative age effect in soccer : A match-related perspective.
- Verhulst, J. (1992). Seasonal birth distribution of West European soccer players: A possible explanation. *Medical Hypotheses*, 38, 346-348.
- Williams, A.M., & Reilly, T. (2000). Talent Identification and development in soccer. *Journal of Sports Sciences*, 18, 657-667.

The Americanization of Japanese Professional Baseball Fans: The Case of Bobby Valentine and the Chiba Lotte Marines

Eiji Ito¹, Gordon J. Walker¹

University of Education, Canada

Haruo Nogawa²

Juntendo University, Japan

Abstract

Bobby Valentine, former manager of the Chiba Lotte Marines (CLM), is sometimes considered to have introduced the Japanese to a more “Americanized” style of baseball fandom. The purpose of this study was to examine the influence of Americanization on CLM fans by investigating their satisfaction with this form of entertainment. By determining who was the most satisfied, it was then possible to determine who was the most susceptible to Americanization. A convenience sample ($N = 805$) of CLM fans attending two home games was obtained. Results from a series of stepwise regression analyses indicated that females, older fans, and fans accompanied by their

¹Faculty of Physical Education and Recreation, University of Alberta, Canada

Eiji Ito is a PhD candidate at the University of Alberta.

Correspondence: Eiji Ito, Faculty of Physical Education and Recreation, University of Alberta, E-488 Van Vliet Centre, Edmonton, Alberta T6G 2H9, Canada. E-mail: eiji@ualberta.ca

²Graduate School of Health and Sports Science, Juntendo University, Japan

families were more susceptible to the Americanization of baseball than their counterparts.

Key Words: Americanization, baseball, fan, Japan, leisure

Introduction

Watching professional sports is one of the most common leisure activities around the world (Madrigal, 1995). In North America, there are a variety of professional sports, including baseball, football, basketball, soccer, and ice hockey. Of all of these sports, baseball is most often claimed to embody something centrally expressive about America (Kelly, 1998; Szymanski & Zimbalist, 2005). Perhaps this is why, according to the U.S. Census Bureau (2008), attendance at Major League Baseball games reached 79.9 million people in 2008.

In Japan, baseball is also popular and, in fact, “remains in its century-long position as that country’s most watched and most played sport” (Kelly, 1998, p. 96). One of the most remarked about features of Japanese baseball is the presence of foreign players (Kelly, 1998) and managers (Kanai & Takahashi, 2007). The first American manager was Joe Lutz, in 1975. He has since been followed by seven other Americans (i.e., Don Blazer, Marty Brown, Terry Collins, Trey Hillman, Leon Lee, and Bobby Valentine), most of whom have managed in the last decade.

During the 2005 season, manager Bobby Valentine led his team—the Chiba Lotte Marines—to the Japanese and Asian championships. More importantly for this paper, he introduced American-style entertainment to Japanese fans. In fact, Valentine is sometimes considered to have been the first to introduce the Japanese to a more “Americanized” style of baseball fandom. Thus, the purpose of this study is to examine the influence of Americanization on Japanese professional baseball spectators.

Literature Review

The Influences of Americanization on Baseball in Japan

A number of researchers have called for greater understanding of the relationship between leisure and globalization (e.g., Rowe, 2006; Valentine, Allison, & Schneider, 1999; Williams, 2002). As Americanization “still powerfully underlies the more critical versions of globalization theory” (Rowe, 2006, p. 426), this perspective may be able to provide valuable insight into the relationship between leisure and globalization.

According to van Elteren (2006), “‘Americanization’—in all of its manifestations and interpretations—refers to the real or purported influence of one or more forms of Americanism on some social entity, material object, or cultural practice” (p. 345). At the organizational level, U.S. Major League Baseball (MLB) is a professional sport exemplar. Klein (1989), for instance held: “baseball has served as a conduit for the penetration of American ideas and values into the Dominican Republic through the powerful influence of Dominican players on their compatriots” (p. 109). In Japan, MLB dominates media sports coverage despite the popularity of the Japanese professional baseball league (Hong, McDonald, Yoon, & Fujimoto, 2005). As Rowe and Gilmour (2010) noted, various forms of Americanization can be found in Japanese baseball, such as the purchase of branded MLB teams merchandise and the broadcast of MLB games. In fact, in 2003, more than 300 MLB games were broadcasted and MLB obtained 18 sponsors and 55 licensees in Japan (Hong et al., 2005).

At the individual level, one U.S. baseball manager appears to have played a particularly prominent role in the Americanization of Japanese baseball: Bobby Valentine. Valentine introduced American-style entertainment to the Chiba Lotte Marines (CLM) by offering a variety of promotions at every home game so fans could enjoy these special events *as well as* enjoying the baseball game itself. Examining the changes Valentine initiated—which still continue

today—provides insight into the Americanization of Japanese baseball spectators specifically and into the Americanization and globalization of leisure more generally.

Satisfaction and Promotions

Researchers have often explored how fans' satisfaction affects their behaviours, especially in terms of attendance. Madrigal (1995), for example, developed a fan attendance model based on a cognition-affect-satisfaction sequencing. This model included expectancy disconfirmation, team identification, and quality of opponent as cognitive dimensions. These variables directly influenced two affective factors, enjoyment and BIRGing (i.e., basking in reflected glory) which, in turn, directly influenced spectator's satisfaction. Madrigal found that "a satisfactory experience resulting from attending sporting events would appear to be an important predictor of a fan's likelihood of attending future events" (p. 206). Similarly, Matsuoka, Chelladurai, and Harada (2003) examined the effects of three satisfaction facets (i.e., satisfaction with the performance of the favorite team, game score [i.e., win/loss], and contest excellence) on Japanese professional soccer fans' intention to return. All three variables significantly predicted intention, although another variable—team identification—was found to be more important than any of the satisfaction facets. Based on these studies' results, it seems clear that satisfaction is an important factor when studying spectator behaviours.

Baseball game promotions have also been found to be a pivotal factor when examining fan behaviour. Hill, Madura, and Zuber (1982), for instance, reported that whether or not there was a special event at a stadium had a significant and positive effect on attendance at MLB games. McDonald and Rascher (2000) also studied the impact of promotions on attendance at MLB games. They concluded that: (a) having a promotion increased average attendance by 14%; (b) having many rather than a few promotions was

beneficial even though a slight “watering-down” effect could occur; and (c) the quality of the promotion was a key factor. Finally, Cebula, Toma, and Carmichael (2009) investigated the effect of various types of promotions on attendance at minor league baseball games. According to these researchers, the enticement of low (e.g., key chain giveaways) and high (e.g., helmet giveaways) value products, fireworks displays, and special-offer food and drink offers, were all directly related to attendance.

Although all of the above studies reported that promotions had a major effect on attendance, none identified in detail which type of fan was most influenced by these special events. This limitation was likely a function of their dependence on secondary data that included only basic socio-demographic information. In addition, little research to date appears to have investigated the association between promotions and satisfaction; that is, the effect satisfaction with promotions has on spectator behaviour. Based on these perceived research gaps, the purpose of this study is to investigate the influence of Americanization on CLM fans by examining their satisfaction with the special events introduced by Valentine and, in doing so, determine who is the most susceptible to Americanization.

Hypotheses

We put forward three hypotheses regarding which Japanese professional baseball fan are likely to report being the most satisfied with the promotions Valentine introduced. First, female fans have been found to have higher levels of family motivation than male fans (Wann, Melnick, Russell, & Pease, 2001; Wann, Schrader, & Wilson, 1999). Because Valentine introduced both female- (e.g., Lady’s Day) and family-focused (e.g., Family Day) special events at CLM games, our first hypothesis is:

H1: Female fans will report being more satisfied with American baseball promotions than male fans.

Second, in respect to age, Li (2009) held that, albeit in China, younger adults were the most susceptible to globalized leisure activities and leisure consumption. Additionally, based on Iso-Ahola's (1980) proposition that younger people have a greater tendency toward wanting novelty in their leisure activities, it follows that they would also be more open to new, in this case American, ideas and experiences than older people. Thus, our second hypothesis is:

H2: Younger fans will report being more satisfied with American baseball promotions than older fans.

Third, in terms of type of companion, while Japanese people prefer going to a stadium to watch a baseball game with their colleagues or coworkers (Ninomiya, 2001), Americans prefer watching with their family members (Reizei, 2005). Once again, because many of the special events Valentine introduced targeted families (Shimada, 2006), our third hypothesis is:

H3: Fans who attend with their families will report being more satisfied with American baseball promotions than those who attend with other people.

Method

American Entertainment

This study focuses on special events performed at CLM home games, which we assumed best reflected American entertainment ideas and values. Table 1 lists and describes the six special event promotions examined in this study.

Table 1 *Descriptions of the six special events*

Event names	Date	Descriptions
Cherry Blossom & Fireworks Night	Apr 1	This event integrated between cherry blossom viewing and firework displays. Fake cherry blossoms were sprinkled above the stadium.
Lady's Day	Apr 8 & 27, Aug 10	Female spectators got discounted tickets.
Beer Garden Night	Jun 28 & 29	The price of beer was half off the regular price, and every seat was unreserved.
Family Day	May 3, Aug 5	Spectators accompanied by their families got discounted tickets.
Businessman Day	Apr 25, Aug 8	Businessmen were given the chance to participate in a lucky draw. A karaoke night was also held for them.
American Day	July 3	The brass band from the University of South California was invited and had a magnificent parade (Valentine graduated from the university).

Study Instrument

Study participants completed a questionnaire consisting of an introductory statement, a single satisfaction item for each special event, and a variety of socio-demographic questions. In terms of satisfaction, participants were asked "To what extent did you rate each of the following special events that you experienced? (Please circle one number)" by using a five-point unipolar scale (1 = *not at all satisfied* to 5 = *very satisfied*).

Study Sample

A convenience sample of CLM fans attending two home games was obtained. According to McDonald and Rascher, (2000), there are a variety of variables that can affect spectators' attendance, such as the day of the week and the opposing team. Thus, two home games were chosen: the first on a

Wednesday when the opposing team (the Fukuoka SoftBank Hawks) was a rival, the second on a Saturday when the opposing team (the Orix Buffaloes) was not a rival¹. Spectators were approached in and outside the stadium before the game started and asked if they would be willing to participate. If they did so, they received a CLM badge. As a result, a total of 854 spectators participated in the current study.

Data Analysis

Data analysis consisted of three steps. First, study participants who were not CLM fans were excluded ($n = 49$). As a result, a total of 805 participants' data remained for further analysis. Second, descriptive data concerning individuals' socio-demographic background was calculated. Third, stepwise regression analyses were conducted, with the probability levels set to $p < .05$ to enter a predictor and $p \leq .10$ to delete a predictor (as per SAS Institute Inc.'s, 1988, recommendation), to determine which socio-demographic variables best predicted participants' level of satisfaction with a special event.

Results

Description of Study Participants

Study participants were mostly male (70.8%), married (51.2%), and age 30 to 39 (45.1%; with 34.5% being age 20 to 29 while 20.5% were age 40 to 49). The majority were also workers (75.5%), with the remainder being housewives and students (14.8% and 9.6%, respectively). Participants attended the game mostly with their families (51.7%), followed by their friends (31.3%), and members of cheering groups (13.0%). The remainder attended alone (9.3%).

¹ During the regular season in 2005, whereas CLM ended up 2nd place, the Fukuoka SoftBank Hawks ended up 1st place. Thus, we considered the Fukuoka SoftBank Hawks as the rival team of CLM.

Stepwise Regressions Results

Table 2 Significant predictors using stepwise regression analyses

Special events (<i>N</i>)	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	Variable	<i>β</i>		
				Model 1	Model 2	Model 3
Cherry (291)	4.52	0.84	Companion	0.25**	0.19**	0.15*
			Age		0.16**	0.17**
			Sex			0.13*
			<i>R</i> ²	0.06**	0.08**	0.09**
			ΔR^2		0.02**	0.02**
Lady's (180)	3.52	1.11	Sex	0.32**	0.27**	
			Companion		0.17*	
			<i>R</i> ²	0.10**	0.12**	
			ΔR^2		0.03*	
			Beer (338)	4.54	0.93	Companion
				0.01*		
Family (232)	3.56	0.87				
Business (226)	3.60	1.05	Sex	-0.15*	-0.16*	
			Age		0.16*	
			<i>R</i> ²	0.02*	0.04**	
			ΔR^2		0.03*	
			America (259)	3.95	0.90	Age
				0.03**		

Note. Sex dummy coded male = 0, female = 1. Age dummy coded 10's = 0, 20's = 1, 30's = 2, 40's = 3, 50's = 4, 60's = 5, 70's and over = 6. Company dummy coded not with family = 0, with family = 1.

p* < .05. *p* < .01.

Table 2 reports the results of the stepwise regression analyses as well as the means and standard deviations of all the predictors for the six special events. Results indicated that at least one independent variable had a significant effect on satisfaction level for all of the special events except Family Day. Specifically, in terms of satisfaction with the Cherry Blossom and Fireworks

Night, sex, age, and type of companion were statistically significant, $F(3, 287) = 10.88, p < .01, R^2 = .09$. Of these three predictors, type of companion was the most important variable. In terms of satisfaction with Lady's Day, sex and type of companion were both statistically significant, $F(2, 177) = 13.24, p < .01, R^2 = .12$. In this case sex was more important than type of companion. Only type of companion predicted satisfaction with Beer Garden Night, $F(1, 336) = 5.19, p < .05, R^2 = .01$, whereas sex and age predicted satisfaction with Businessman Day, $F(2, 223) = 5.49, p < .01, R^2 = .04$. Of the latter two predictors, sex was more important than age. Lastly, only age predicted satisfaction with American Day, $F(1, 257) = 7.89, p < .01, R^2 = .03$. It should be noted that all effect sizes were in the small range, although Lady's Day was just below Cohen's (1988) medium effect size cut-off point.

In terms of our three hypotheses, female fans were significantly more satisfied than male fans with Cherry Blossom and Fireworks Night ($\beta = .13, p < .05$) and Lady's Day ($\beta = .27, p < .01$). In contrast, male fans were significantly more satisfied with Businessman Day ($\beta = -.16, p < .05$). Older fans were found to be significantly more satisfied than younger fans with Cherry Blossom and Fireworks Night ($\beta = .17, p < .05$); Businessman Day ($\beta = .16, p < .05$); and American Day ($\beta = .17, p < .01$). Lastly, fans who accompanied their families were found to be significantly more satisfied than those who did not with Cherry Blossom and Fireworks Night ($\beta = .15, p < .01$); Lady's Day ($\beta = .17, p < .05$); and Beer Garden Night ($\beta = .12, p < .05$).

Discussion

Three hypotheses were put forward in this study, and each is discussed separately below in light of the results of the data analyses.

Sex

In regard to our first hypothesis (i.e., female fans would report being more

satisfied with American baseball promotions than male fans), our results are partially supportive. Sex is one of the most important socio-demographic variables when studying sport fans, with Wann et al. (2001) reporting that various aspects of spectators' behaviours (e.g., level of fandom and motivation) differ between male and female fans. Similarly, this study found sex differences in level of satisfaction across three events. Specifically, whereas female fans were more satisfied with Cherry Blossom and Fireworks Night and Lady's Day than male fans, male fans were more satisfied with Businessman Day. Given the characteristics of Lady's Day and Businessman Day, this is not too surprising as at Lady's Day female fans were able to get discounted tickets, while at Businessman Day male fans were able to participate in karaoke and a lucky draw.

With respect to the special events that were thought to be neutral in regard to sex, we also found slight variability. As we expected, female fans were more satisfied than male fans with Cherry Blossom and Fireworks Night. However, there were no significant sex differences in the other three special events (i.e., Beer Garden Night, Family Day, and American Day). Given that females have been found to emphasize a family motive (Wann et al., 2001; Wann et al., 1999), it was surprising to discover that females were not satisfied with such special events more than males even though most of these special events involved some family aspects. A possible explanation for this finding is that Japanese females do not emphasize a family motive as much as American females.

Age

In regard to our second hypothesis (i.e., younger fans would report being more satisfied with American baseball promotions than older fans), our results are unsupportive. Age is regarded as another important social context affecting leisure (Kleiber, Walker, & Mannell, 2011). This is also true among Japanese professional baseball spectators. Whiting (2006) reported that their average age

is around 50, although the age group of participants in this study was much younger.

Contrary to our expectations, our results indicated that older fans appeared to be more satisfied with three events, specifically the Cherry Blossom and Fireworks Night, Businessman Day, and American Day, than younger fans. This suggests that older people tend to be susceptible to Americanization more than younger fans. This finding is inconsistent with Li's (2009) proposition that young adults have been exposed to globalization regarding leisure activities and leisure consumption. Because younger fans appear to seek novelty (Iso-Ahola, 1980) more, perhaps they already are accustomed to American entertainment in other leisure opportunities; therefore, American entertainment at a baseball game might not be new for them. On the other hand, older fans who have less tendency toward novelty experienced Americanization firsthand at the stadium. Given this, it is not too surprising that Americanization had a greater influence on older than younger people. Another possible explanation for this finding is that these three events met older people's desires or tastes rather than those of younger people. For example, with respect to American Day, the brass band might not have been interesting for younger spectators.

Type of Companion

In regard to our third hypothesis (i.e., fans who attend with their families will report being more satisfied with American baseball promotions than those who attend with other people), our results are partially supportive. According to Wann et al. (2001), one of the primary incentives for attending spectator sports is social incentive. As mentioned earlier, the family-oriented strategy played an important role in promoting American entertainment in order to expand the range of fans, that is, family (Shimada, 2006). Perhaps, this strategy reflected Japanese spectator behaviour. According to Ninomiya (2001), most Japanese people appear to go to the stadium to watch baseball with their colleagues or

coworkers rather than with family members. In contrast, Americans usually do the opposite (Reizei, 2005). As Cebula et al. (2009) stated “the demand for minor league game tickets might reflect various marketing efforts directed at attracting fans by making attendance a more pleasurable family experience” (p. 3210).

Results show that type of companion has a significant impact on the satisfaction of three events: Cherry Blossom and Fireworks Night, Lady’s Day, and Beer Garden Night. More specifically, fans who accompanied their family appeared to be more satisfied than fans who did not do so at these events, suggesting that fans who accompany their family are more susceptible to Americanization. Given CLM’s family-oriented strategy, this result is not too surprising as they offered not only special events targeted at families but also other kinds of family targeted promotions at other times and on a more regular basis (e.g., Walk in the Park, Kids Base Running). As a result, it seems that these pleasurable family experiences attracted and influenced CLM fans.

Surprisingly, however, no significant impact on satisfaction with Family Day was found, even though this special event focused on fans accompanied by their families. Similarly, whether spectators accompanied their family or not did not influence their satisfaction with Businessman Day and American Day. These results are consistent with previous findings about sex differences, in that Japanese female fans might not emphasize a family motive as much as American female fans. Furthermore, as Ninomiya (2001) noted, Japanese fans may prefer to go with their colleagues and coworkers rather than their family regardless of what promotions are being offered.

Conclusion

The purpose of this study was to investigate the influence of Americanization on CLM fans by examining their satisfaction with the special events introduced by Bobby Valentine and, in doing so, determine who was the most susceptible to Americanization. Given that the culture of baseball is inherently American

(Kelly, 1998; Szymanski & Zimbalist, 2005), it is no wonder that, when a U.S. manager is in charge, it can be a vehicle for Americanization. Adding this unique perspective of knowledge to the foundation of leisure research provides further insight into leisure in the current global era. Furthermore, this study also examined the effect of satisfaction with promotions on spectator behaviour that is understudied in sport marketing. Considering these noteworthy contributions to the leisure and sport science fields, this study affords to advance the understanding and practice of leisure and sport.

As with any research, this study has limitations. For example, on the basis of Boyd and Krehbiel's (2003) findings, future research should take into account different types of promotion (e.g., special events, giveaways, price discount) to more fully understand the effects of Americanization. More importantly, because this study's design was cross-sectional, cause-and-effect are not clearly determinable. A longitudinal study could resolve this issue. Finally, further research on Americanization of other sports, in other countries, or both, could be enlightening. For instance, researching Americanization in China by examining the role of a Chinese basketball player, such as Yao Ming, could be a topic worthy of further study.

Having acknowledged these limitations, we still believe that this paper contributes to the growing, yet still understudied, area of leisure research in a global world (Rowe, 2006; Valentine, Allison, & Schneider, 1999; Williams, 2002), and that it provides a unique perspective by examining the Americanization of Japanese professional baseball.

References

- Boyd, T. C., & Krehbiel, T. C. (2003) Promotion timing in major league baseball and the stacking effects of factors that increase game attractiveness. *Sport Marketing Quarterly* 12(3), 173-183.

- Cebula, R. J., Toma, M., & Carmichael, J. (2009) Attendance and promotions in minor league baseball: the Carolina League. *Applied Economics* 41(25), 3209-3214.
- Cohen, J. (1988) *Statistical power analysis for the behavioural sciences* (2nd ed.). Hillsdale, NJ: Erlbaum.
- Hill, J. R., Madura, J., & Zuber, R. A. (1982) The short run demand for major league baseball. *Atlantic Economic Journal* 10(2), 31-35.
- Hong, J., McDonald, M. A., Yoon, C., & Fujimoto, J. (2005) Motivation for Japanese baseball fans' interest in Major League Baseball. *International Journal of Sport Management and Marketing* 1(1/2), 141-154.
- Iso-Ahola, S. E. (1980) *The social psychology of leisure and recreation*. Dubuque, IA: Wm. C. Brown.
- Kanai & Takahashi (2007) Is a foreign manager really "a good leader?" *Sport Management Review* 4, 74-77. (in Japanese)
- Kelly, W. W. (1998) Blood and guts in Japanese professional baseball, in S. Linhart & S. Frühstück (eds.). *The culture of Japan as seen through its leisure*. Albany: State University of New York Press.
- Kleiber, D. A., Walker, G. J., & Mannell, R. C. (2011) *A social psychology of leisure* (2nd ed.). State College, PA: Venture.
- Klein, A. (1989) Baseball as underdevelopment: The political-economy of sport in the Dominican Republic, *Sociology of Sport Journal* 6(2), 95-112.
- Li, M. Z. (2009) Leisure and tourism in the changing China. *World Leisure* 51(4), 229-236.
- Madrigal, R. (1995) Cognitive and affective determinants of fan satisfaction. *Journal of Leisure Research* 27(3), 205-227.
- Matsuoka, H., Chelladurai, P., & Harada, M. (2003) Direct and interaction effects of team identification and satisfaction on intention to attend games. *Sport Marketing Quarterly* 12(4), 244-253.
- McDonald, M., & Rascher, D. (2000) Does bat day make cents? The effect of

- promotions on the demand for Major League Baseball. *Journal of Sport Management* 14, 8-27.
- Ninomiya, S. (2001) *How to enjoy the Major League*. Tokyo: Best Sellers. (in Japanese)
- Reizei, A. (2005). *The way in which the Major League is loved*. Tokyo: Broadcast Publishing. (in Japanese)
- Rowe, D. (2006) Coming to terms with leisure and globalization. *Leisure Studies* 25(4), 423-436.
- Rowe, D., & Gilmour, C. (2010) Sport, Media, and Consumption in Asia: A Merchandised Milieu. *American Behavioral Scientist* 53(10), 1530 -1548.
- SAS Institute Inc. (1988) *SAS/STAT User's Guide, Release 6.03 Edition*. Cary, NC: SAS Institute.
- Shimada, T. (2006) *Strategy of obtaining and keeping kids fan by professional baseball teams*. In Morooka, F. (Chair), A plan of sport activation in Keiyou bay area. Symposium conducted at the meeting of Japanese Society of Lifelong Sports, Chiba.
- Szymanski, S. & Zimbalist, A. (2005) *National pastime: How Americans play baseball and the rest of the world plays soccer*. Washington, D.C.: Brookings Institution Press.
- United States Census Bureau. (2008) Selected Spectator Sports: 1990 to 2008. Retrieved December 19, 2009.
- van Elteren, M. (2006) Rethinking Americanization abroad: Toward a critical alternative to prevailing paradigms. *Journal of American Culture* 29(3), 345-367.
- Valentine, K., Allison, M. T., & Schneider, I. (1999) The one-way mirror of leisure research: A need for cross-national social scientific perspectives. *Leisure Sciences* 21(3), 241-246.
- Wann, D. L., Melnick, M. J., Russell, G. W., & Pease, D. G. (2001) Sport fans:

- The psychology and social impact of spectators. New York: Routledge.
- Wann, D. L., Schrader, M. P., & Wilson, A. M. (1999) Sport fan motivation: Questionnaire validation, comparisons by sport, and relationship to athletic motivation. *Journal of Sport Behavior* 22(1), 114-139.
- Whiting, R. (2006) Was yakyuu beyond baseball? Tokyo: Chikuma Shobo. (in Japanese)
- Williams, D. R. (2002) Leisure identities, globalization, and the politics of place. *Journal of Leisure Research* 34(4), 351.

Guidelines for Contributors

Language and types of contribution

The Journal of Asiana Sport for All contains several forms of contributions: articles (8-15 pages), reports (3-8 pages), congress/event reports (2-3 pages), and keynote lecture (8-15pages) including tables figures, and photographs). All manuscripts must contribute to the development of Sport for All and must be submitted in English.

Abstract

An abstract of 100-200 words and 5 key words maximum must also be supplied, typed on a separate sheet, together with a biographical note of 25 to words.

Quotations

All direct quotations of 35-40 words or more should be displayed as indent text, but still double-spaced.

Notes

Try to avoid using too many notes. Where they are necessary, they must be brief and should appear at the bottom of the page.

Submission

All manuscripts are reviewed by the editorial board of ASFAA. When revisions are requested by the journal's editorial board, authors must resubmit the revised manuscript within 3 weeks. If resubmission takes more than 3 weeks, the manuscript will be treated as a new submission. Manuscripts should be submitted in Word format (40 lines), and the file should not exceed 4 MB. For

figures, tables and photographs, up to 10MB of PDF, Word, and Excel files can be uploaded.

Top and bottom margins: 2cm

Left margins: 3cm

Right margins: 2cm

Page numbers: bottom center

Full name, organization of authors and contact details (postal address, e-mail address)

Figures, tables, maps and photographs

Photographs are classified in the same category as figures. Figures and tables should be numbered separately and consecutively (e.g., Figure 1, Table 1). Capitalize only the first word of the caption.

Format for reference list

List all entries cited in the text, or any other items used to prepare the manuscript, alphabetically by author and year of publication in a separate, headed, reference section.

Please refer the examples given:

McPherson, B.D. (1990) Ageing as a social process: An introduction to individual and population ageing. Toronto: Butterworths.

Kidd, B. (1987) Sports and masculinity, in M. Kaufman (ed.) *Beyond patriarchy: essays by men*. Toronto: Oxford.

Laura, R. & White, S., Eds.(1991) Drug controversy in sport: The socio-ethical and medical issues. Sydney: Allen & Unwin.

Tsai, M.J. & Jwo, H. (2004) Self-determination perspectives on exercise behavior regulations. Paper presented at the 8th ASFAA Congress, Taipei, Taiwan.

Yamaguchi, Y. (2002) Sport, tourism, sport volunteers and Sport for All. *Journal of Asiana Sport for All* 3(1), 29-36.

Deadlines for the 11th edition ASFAA Journal:

August 31st, 2012.

Correspondence

ASFAA Secretariat

asfaa@sport.gov.cn

Address: No.2 Tiyuguan Road, Chongwen District, Beijing 100763, China

Website: <http://www.asfaa.org>

Publisher:

Asiana Sport for All Association

asfaa@sport.gov.cn

Address: No.2 Tiyuguan Road, Dongcheng District, Beijing 100763, China

Website: <http://www.asfaa.org>

Editorial Board

Chief Editor

Yasuo Yamaguchi, Ph.D.

Kobe University, Japan
Board of Director, ASFAA

Associate Editors

Hai Ren, Ph.D.,

Beijing Sport University, China

Zeyi Yang, M.D.,

Beijing Sport University, China

Sho Nishizawa, Ph.D.,

Nagasaki University, Japan

Makoto Chogahara, Ph.D.

Kobe University, Japan

President

Mr. Feng Jianzhong

Vice Minister for the General Administration of Sports
Vice President, Chinese Olympic Committee
Vice President, All-China Sports Federation

China

Vice President

Mr. Sarjit Singh

Secretary General, MARFIMA

Malaysia

Vice President

Mr. Hon. Brian Dixon

Chairman, Life Be in It International

Australia

Secretary General

Mr. Herzel Hagay

Chairman, Israel Sport for All Association

Israel

Treasurer

Mr. Liu Guoyong

Deputy General, Sport for All Department of the General Administration of Sports

China

Director

Dr. Min-Soo Kim

Department of Sports and Science Yonginn University

Korea

Director

Mr. Thomas Chengwei Tsai

President, Chinese Taipei Olympic Committee

Chinese Taipei

Director

Mr. Vong Iao Lek

President, Macau Sport Development Board

Macau, China

Director

Dr. Yasuo Yamaguchi

Kobe University Sasakawa Sports Foundation

Japan

Director

Dr. Anita Ghosh

President, All India Association of Sports for All

India

Director

Ms. Mitra Rouhi Dehkordi

Vice President of Sport For All Federation

Iran

Commissioner

Mr. A. K. Saha

Managing Director, Sport For All Association, India

India

Honorary President

Dr. Ju Ho CHANG

President, Korean Pierre de Coubertin Committee

Korea

Honorary President

Dr. Shang-Hi Rhee

President of SABA

Korea

Honorary member

Dr. Kang-Too LEE

President of TAFISA

Korea

E-mail: asfaa@sport.gov.cn



URL: <http://www.asfaa.org>