

ABSTRACT

MENEFEE, WILLIAM CHADWICK. Globalization in Professional Sport: A Comparison of Chinese and American Basketball Spectators. (Under the direction of Jonathan M. Casper.)

The purpose of this research was to develop a model for cross-cultural sport spectatorship, and then to compare American and Chinese basketball spectators. Means-end theory guided the development of a conceptual framework, and structural equation modeling was used to test the relationship between focal attributes and expected consequences. Focal attributes referred to the concrete features of basketball games, while expected consequences referred to abstract motives for watching sporting events. Participants were National Basketball Association spectators in the United States and Chinese Basketball Association spectators in China. Spectators in the two countries were compared on their preferences for: Kahle's List of Values, individualism/collectivism dimensions, attributes, consequences, consequence-attribute paths, and behavioral intentions. Self-administered questionnaires were administered at games in the two countries. Significant findings included cross-cultural similarities and differences in the spectators' reasons for attending games. Spectators in China were collectivistic, while the Americans were individualistic. Spectators in the two cultures differed on their preferred consequences and attributes, consequence-attribute paths, and future intentions. Recommendations for the field and future research are included, as well as limitations of the study. This study provides a new methodology for testing means-end theory and a new model for analyzing sport spectatorship. This study also contributes to the growing body of literature in cross-cultural sport marketing.

Globalization in Professional Sport: A Comparison of
Chinese and American Basketball Spectators

by
William Chadwick Menefee

A dissertation submitted to the Graduate Faculty of
North Carolina State University
in partial fulfillment of the
requirements for the Degree of
Doctor of Philosophy

Parks, Recreation and Tourism Management

Raleigh, North Carolina

2009

APPROVED BY:

Jonathan Casper
Chair of Advisory Committee

Judy Peel
Co-Chair of Advisory Committee

Deepak Sirdeshmukh

Michael Kanters

DEDICATION

Inheriting my Mom's creativity and my Dad's analytical ability is both a blessing and a curse. I may not know exactly what I want to do, but thank you for providing me with the confidence to believe that I can achieve whatever I set my mind to.

BIOGRAPHY

Chad Menefee was born in Camp Hill, Pennsylvania, and still refers to Houston as his hometown even though he hasn't lived there in years. In Houston, Chad developed a lifelong love of sports while playing alongside future college basketball head coaches and NFL washouts in the Kingwood Competitive Basketball League. After moving to Virginia and then North Carolina, Chad graduated from Wake Forest University with a degree in Business. He then embarked on a series of odd jobs across the United States. The odd jobs managed to: 1) help pay the bills while he pursued a career in the sports industry, and 2) keep his parents on their toes. After traveling around the country, Chad returned to North Carolina to pursue a Master of Science degree in Parks, Recreation & Tourism Management at NC State. After completing the degree in 2006, he decided to return to school and complete both his PhD and MBA at NC State.

One of Chad's main reasons for returning to school was to gain international experience and become an expert on global sport marketing. He has always had a strong interest in exploring new cultures and experiencing new adventures. In 2007, Chad was presented with the opportunity to travel to China, and then worked on research projects with Chinese sports organizations for the next two years. In 2008, he was able to complete an MBA study abroad program in Vienna, Austria, and traveled to seven different countries during the semester. Family and friends know that Chad tends to change his career interests and ambitions on a weekly basis. After quickly abandoning the career intentions from the Biography section of his Master's Thesis, he knows better than to make predictions about his future in his dissertation.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

There is a huge sense of relief when you finish a dissertation. I worked on this project literally all over the world, and 80-hour weeks were standard for the past three years. It would have been impossible to complete this project in three years without the help of a number of influential people in my life.

First of all, I want to thank my parents, Ann and Neal, and sister, Claire. I know you are grateful that I'm completely finished (and no longer complaining about schoolwork.) My grandparents also provided me with an incredible amount of support over the past five years as well. I know my grandmother, who was also a teacher, would probably appreciate this accomplishment more than anyone else.

My advisor, Dr. Jonathan Casper, was a great mentor to me during my graduate school experience. During his first week at NC State, I insisted that he join my Master's committee even though he had never met me. Over the past four years, we've worked on numerous research projects, taught five classes together, and I've even cut down tree branches outside his house and taken care of his dog. He has been an incredible advisor and a great friend. I appreciate all of the help that you provided during graduate school!

I was fortunate to have Dr. Deepak Sirdeshmukh as my marketing professor in two different MBA classes at NC State. Aside from being one of the best professors that I had at any level in school, Deepak has an incredible knowledge of marketing and was instrumental in helping me formulate the ideas for this research project from the earliest stages.

I would also like to thank my two other committee members, Dr. Judy Peel and Dr. Michael Kanters. Thank you for all of the guidance that you have provided me over the past few years during both my Master's and PhD programs.

The global nature of this study required me to pursue assistance outside of the university. I owe a great debt to my colleagues at Zhejiang University in Hangzhou, China. Thank you to Cong Hu-ping, Fang Zheng, and the Zhejiang University graduate students who hosted me while I was in China and helped with data collection over the past two years.

I also appreciate the tremendous help from Dr. Beth Wilson and the Hofmann Foundation. My Hofmann Fellowship provided me with an incredible opportunity to pursue international research projects, and made it possible for me to concentrate on my academic work without having to pick up another odd job during graduate school.

The faculty and students in the PRT program helped me during the past three years in many different ways. I would especially like to thank: Dr. Doug Wellman, Dr. Dorothy Anderson, Dr. Candace Goode-Vick, Dr. Michelle Harrolle, Dr. Jason Bocarro, Dr. Karla Henderson, Dr. Robb Wade, Dr. Heidi Grappendorf, Dr. Ed Lindsay, Dr. Aram Attarian, Dr. Chrystos Siderelis, Dr. Yu-Fai Leung, Dr. Stacy Tomas, Dr. Mike Edwards, Dr. Ben Hickerson, Dr. Holly Bosley, Dr. Jason Swanson, Linda Oakleaf, Penny James, Annette Moore, Jessica Robinson, AC Cox, Timia Thompson, Ines Palacios, Tony Patterson, Jay Jeon, Weijia Wang, Dick Whitman, Debbie Hurst, Felicia Mangum, and Anju Singh. Finally, I would like to thank Dean Steve Allen and the College of Management for allowing me the unique opportunity to complete my MBA at the same time that I was working on my PhD.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

List of Tables	ix
List of Figures	xii
Chapter 1: Introduction	1
Significance	3
Research Purpose	7
Research Questions	8
Summary	9
Terms	10
Chapter 2: Review of the Literature.....	12
Globalization.....	13
Globalization in Sport.....	14
Glocalization in Sport.....	15
Culture	17
Values	18
List of Values	19
Individualism/Collectivism.....	20
Cross-Cultural Sport Studies	23
International Team Identification.....	23
International Motivations.....	24
International Brand Equity.....	25
Means-End Theory	26
Conceptual Framework	31
Values	34
Individualism / Collectivism.....	36
Expected Consequences.....	37
Focal Attributes	43
Research Questions & Hypotheses	47
Summary.....	57
Chapter 3: Methods	60
Participants.....	60
Procedures.....	62
Study Design.....	62
Means-End Methodology	63
Pilot Studies	63
Self-Administered Paper & Pencil Questionnaire.....	65
Measures	68
Values	68

Focal Attributes.....	73
Expected Consequences.....	76
Behavioral Intentions.....	80
Method of Data Analysis.....	82
Internal Consistency.....	82
List of Values.....	82
Individualism & Collectivism.....	83
Structural Equation Modeling.....	83
Measurement Invariance.....	85
Mean Structure Analysis.....	87
Structural Analysis.....	88
Behavioral Intentions.....	89
Goodness of Fit Testing.....	89
Summary.....	91
Chapter 4: Results.....	93
Demographic Summary.....	93
Data Analysis for Research Question One.....	96
Development of an American Measurement Model.....	103
Testing of Assumptions.....	103
Development of a Chinese Measurement Model.....	114
Testing of Assumptions.....	114
Data Analysis for Research Question Two.....	123
Development of a Comparison Measurement Model.....	123
Mean Structure Analysis.....	131
Structural Analysis.....	132
Data Analysis for Research Question Three.....	139
Mean Structure Analysis.....	139
Structural Equation Modeling.....	140
Summary.....	147
Chapter 5: Discussion.....	148
Summary of findings.....	148
Interpretation of Findings.....	152
Values.....	152
Cross-Cultural Similarities.....	154
Unique Findings in USA.....	157
Unique Findings in China.....	158
Recommendations for the Field.....	161
Recommendations for Future Research.....	168
Limitations of the Research.....	171
Conclusion.....	176

References	178
Appendices	190
Appendix A.....	191
Appendix B.....	195
Appendix C.....	199

LIST OF TABLES

Table 3.1	Items Measuring Independent/Interdependent Self-Construal.....	72
Table 3.2	Items Measuring Focal Attributes	75
Table 3.3	Items Measuring Expected Consequences	78
Table 3.4	Items Measuring Behavioral Intentions.....	81
Table 4.1	Demographic Summary of Participants Completing the Questionnaire (U.S. Sample).....	94
Table 4.2	Demographic Summary of Participants Completing the Questionnaire (Chinese Sample).....	95
Table 4.3	Distribution & Frequencies for List of Values.....	99
Table 4.4	Invariance Test of Individualism (Independent Self-Construals) by Country ...	100
Table 4.5	Invariance Test of Collectivism (Interdependent Self-Construals) by Country.	100
Table 4.6	Individual Items for Individualism & Collectivism Constructs (U.S. Sample).	102
Table 4.7	Latent Mean Structure Analysis for Individualism & Collectivism.....	103
Table 4.8	Means, Standard Deviations, Skewness, and Kurtosis for Focal Attributes & Expected Consequences (U.S. sample)	105
Table 4.9	Fit Indices of Hypothesized Measurement Model Versus Competing Models for Focal Attributes (U.S. Sample).....	110
Table 4.10	Fit Indices of Hypothesized Measurement Model Versus Competing Models for Expected Consequences (U.S. Sample).....	110
Table 4.11	Internal Consistency of Constructs (Final U.S. Measurement Model).....	111
Table 4.12	Means, Standard Deviations, Skewness, and Kurtosis for Focal Attributes & Expected Consequences (China Sample)	115
Table 4.13	Fit Indices of Hypothesized Measurement Model Versus Competing Models for Focal Attributes (China Sample).....	119

Table 4.14	Fit Indices of Hypothesized Measurement Model Versus Competing Models for Expected Consequences (China Sample)	119
Table 4.15	Internal Consistency of Constructs (Final China Measurement Model)	120
Table 4.16	Invariance Test for Multi-Group Focal Attributes Model	126
Table 4.17	Invariance Test for Multi-Group Expected Consequences Model	126
Table 4.18	Fit Indices of Comparison Model (U.S. Sample)	127
Table 4.19	Fit Indices of Comparison Model (China Sample).....	127
Table 4.20	Means and Internal Consistency for Focal Attributes in “Comparison” Model	128
Table 4.21	Means and Internal Consistency for Expected Consequences in “Comparison” Model.....	129
Table 4.22	Intercorrelation Matrix for “Comparison” Model (U.S. sample).....	130
Table 4.23	Intercorrelation Matrix for “Comparison” Model (China sample).....	131
Table 4.24	Latent Mean Structure Analysis for Focal Attributes & Expected Consequences	132
Table 4.25	Paths for U.S. Structural Model	134
Table 4.26	Paths for Chinese Structural Model.....	135
Table 4.27	Fit Indices of Structural Model (U.S. sample)	135
Table 4.28	Fit Indices of Structural Model (China Sample)	136
Table 4.29	Testing of Differences Between Structural Paths.....	136
Table 4.30	Invariance Test for Behavioral Intentions.....	141
Table 4.31	Means and Internal Consistency for Behavioral Intentions	141
Table 4.32	Latent Mean Structure Analysis for Behavioral Intentions.....	142
Table 4.33	Fit Indices of Structural Intentions Model (U.S. sample).....	142

Table 4.34 Fit Indices of Structural Intentions Model (China Sample).....	143
Table 4.35 Coefficients of Model Paths for Structural Intentions Model (U.S. Sample)....	143
Table 4.36 Coefficients of Model Paths for Structural Intentions Model (China Sample)..	144
Table 4.37 Testing of Differences Between Structural Paths.....	144

LIST OF FIGURES

Figure 2.1. Proposed Means-End Model.....	33
Figure 4.1. Individualism and Collectivism Constructs (USA).....	101
Figure 4.2. Individualism and Collectivism Constructs (China)	101
Figure 4.3. Final Measurement Model for Focal Attributes (USA)	112
Figure 4.4. Final Measurement Model for Expected Consequences (USA)	113
Figure 4.5. Final Measurement Model for Focal Attributes (China).....	121
Figure 4.6. Final Measurement Model for Expected Consequences (China).....	122
Figure 4.7. Structural Model (USA)	137
Figure 4.8. Structural Model (China).....	138
Figure 4.9. Structural Intentions Model (U.S.).....	145
Figure 4.10. Structural Intentions Model (China).....	146

CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION

The effect of globalization has significantly impacted individuals' lives over the past century. Nearly everywhere in the world, citizens engage in activities or purchase products from other cultures. In sports, interaction between cultures is evident in the global popularity of Olympic and World Cup competitions, the global power of brands like Nike and athletes like Michael Jordan, and the growing ethnic diversity of professional leagues. NASCAR placed an annual Busch Series race in Mexico City in 2005, Major League Baseball opened the 2002 and 2008 regular seasons in Japan, the National Football League played a regular season game in London in 2007, and the National Hockey League opened the 2008-09 season in Prague and Stockholm (Stern predicts, 2008). The perceived saturation of American markets and rapid growth of income in international markets have made international expansion a lucrative option for American sports organizations.

These examples all provide evidence of globalization in sports. Rapid international growth is especially apparent for the sport of basketball though. Basketball is beginning to compete with soccer as the most popular sport in the world (e.g. Polumbaum, 2002), and markets in Europe and Asia are booming for both the American-based National Basketball Association and other domestic leagues. Because of its global power and popularity, the NBA is the league most likely to attempt international expansion in the future (Euchner, 2008; Whittell, 2008). In particular, China may present the most promising market for professional basketball organizations. Both the NBA and the Chinese-based Chinese Basketball Association (CBA) operate in China. In fact, the NBA estimates that it has 500 million fans in China, and over 1 billion Chinese viewers watched NBA games during the

2006 season (Thompson & Fong, 2006). More than 50,000 retailers carried NBA merchandise in China, and 51 Chinese networks and TV stations broadcast games during the 2007-08 season (Balfour, 2007). The NBA also estimates that there are approximately 300 million basketball participants in China (Balfour, 2007), and 83% of Chinese citizens between 15 and 24 years old are basketball fans (Kobe Bryant, 2007). The market for professional basketball is growing rapidly around the world, and future growth could be substantial for the NBA and the CBA, as well as basketball merchandisers in China. There is no guarantee of success for American organizations pursuing business opportunities in China because there may be strong cultural differences between individuals from a Western culture with a developed economy (such as the U.S.) and individuals from an Eastern culture with an emerging economy (such as China). For these reasons, the United States and China may offer an ideal case for a cross-cultural comparison between sport spectators.

Sport fans throughout the world can now watch international leagues on television, read about their favorite teams and communicate with other fans on the Internet, and play video games featuring international sports, leagues, and players. International markets already provide a significant portion of revenue from media broadcasting and merchandise sales for American sport leagues (Eisenberg, Thomas, Baker, Gregory, Locke, & Pitluk, 2003), but these leagues are now considering brand extensions and international expansion teams as well (Thompson, 2007).

At the same time, other countries witness the financial success of American sports, and they assume that “Americanization” or “McDonaldization” of their domestic sports will increase the profitability of their national leagues (Donnelly, 1996; Gruneau & Whitson,

2001; Larmer, 2005). American sports leagues must determine if it is optimal to market a homogenized “product” to the rest of the world or alter the product to meet the interests of consumers in each country. Although cross-cultural marketing research has proliferated over the past 25 years, sport marketing researchers are only now beginning to compare spectators across cultures (e.g. Won & Kitamura, 2007). Cross-cultural research is limited in sport marketing, so researchers do not yet understand the similarities and differences between spectators around the world. Sport consumers may exhibit differences from general consumers. General consumer behavior and psychology studies illustrate general patterns between consumers, but a cross-cultural comparison of sport spectators will be necessary to compare the specific factors that drive consumers to watch sports in different countries. This should provide sport marketers with a better understanding of the process needed to attract fans in new markets, in addition to improving marketing efforts across these countries. A better understanding of similarities and differences between cultures may allow leagues to determine whether a global marketing strategy could be standardized around the world. As American sports leagues continue to expand their businesses into international markets, it will be necessary to compare international consumer behavior with American consumers.

Significance

Early sport marketing researchers attempted to determine the psychological drivers of sport spectatorship (e.g. Wann, 1995), and often used motivations to explain sport consumption. Prominent studies found that psychological commitment was correlated with behavioral commitment (e.g. Wann, 1995; Trail & James, 2001). While motivations have provided insight into the psychology behind sport spectatorship, there remains great potential

for future growth in analysis of the consumer behavior of sport fans. In particular, the sport marketing discipline lacks cross-cultural research and insight on the drivers of interest in international sports and leagues. Funk, Mahony, and Havitz (2003) specifically called for the sport management field to look at sport consumers outside of the United States. An extensive review of the literature revealed only one comparison of sport consumers in two different countries (Won & Kitamura, 2007), and no studies that compared American fans with international fans. Sport marketers must begin to pursue cross-cultural projects in order to determine the similarities and differences between spectators around the world. This will become increasingly important as globalization continues to influence sport spectators in all markets over the next decade.

This study will enhance the body of knowledge on international sport consumer behavior. An improved understanding of international consumers would allow sport organizations to determine appropriate marketing strategies for individual markets. Previous sport marketing studies have ignored the influence of culture on consumer behavior decisions. Although culture may not be important in explaining why Americans watch an American sport like basketball, culture becomes an important variable for comparing the reasons why international spectators and American spectators watch the same sport, league, team or event. Spectators in cultures outside of the U.S. may watch a sport for different reasons than Americans, but it is unclear why those fans watch a particular sport. A cross-cultural study could show whether culture leads consumers to watch the same sport for different reasons. Therefore, this study attempts to develop an improved model for describing cross-cultural sport consumption.

Constructs like motivation and team identification have been used to explain sport spectatorship. Spectators watch sporting events because of abstract motives like drama, vicarious achievement and aesthetics. Spectators also watch sporting events because they identify with more concrete elements like individual players and teams. However, there is a need for more complex models to explain the behavior of sport spectators. Models such as the Psychological Continuum Model (Trail & James, 2001) have proven to be too complex to test empirically at one time, while other models like the Model for Sport Spectator Consumption Behavior (Trail, Anderson, & Fink, 2000) have not been validated (Trail, Fink, & Anderson, 2003). This study suggests that psychological motivations and concrete features are both important to sport spectators around the world. This model will introduce a new concept in sport marketing by emphasizing the importance of the linkages between abstract motivations and concrete features. This added complexity should significantly improve the understanding of cross-cultural sport spectatorship in the discipline of sport management.

Theories such as consumer innovativeness and diffusion of innovations are relevant to cross-cultural marketing studies, while motivations have proven to be useful in describing sport spectators. However, means-end theory was used to develop a more appropriate framework for explaining cross-cultural sport spectatorship. Researchers have applied means-end theory to studies in consumer behavior (e.g. Ter Hofstede, Steenkamp, & Wedel, 1999b) and leisure (e.g. Klenosky, Gengler, & Mulvey, 1993). Means-end theory is also a useful for comparing consumer behavior in different cultures (Vriens & Ter Hofstede, 2000). The theory suggests that consumers purchase a product or engage in an activity because the product or activity satisfies important personal values (Gutman, 1982). There may be many

products in a specific category that satisfy these values. Consumers may then purchase a particular brand from that product category because they believe it will provide greater benefits than other brands. Sport spectators may make decisions in the same way. Spectators may choose to watch sporting events because the unique elements of sports provide more important benefits (e.g. eustress, community pride, vicarious achievement, social interaction) than other competing activities. However, spectators may watch a particular sport because they believe that the features of that sport (e.g. individual players, teams, entertainment) are more likely to produce their desired benefits than other sports. For example, spectators may watch sporting events because they believe that sports provide a way to demonstrate pride in their local community. These spectators may then choose to become basketball fans because they believe the local team is representative of their local community. This “means-end chain” relationship shows the connection between the abstract values and concrete features that are important in a purchasing decision. In this case, the selection of a concrete attribute (the team) leads a spectator to watch a specific sport (basketball) because they believe their spectatorship will result in an important abstract consequence (community pride). It is unclear whether spectators in different cultures watch the same sport for the same reasons. Means-end theory should help in comparing the behavior of spectators cross-culturally.

Finally, this study focused on a research problem that is especially relevant in sport marketing at this time. The recent economic crisis in the United States has raised concerns over the potential for American professional leagues to sustain their growth in the U.S. Global expansion may provide American leagues with the opportunity to diversify their risk in the future (Whittell, 2008). A key target for these leagues will be Chinese sport fans. The

study attempted to compare professional basketball spectators in China and the United States. The number of basketball fans in China is large and growing, but it is unclear why these Chinese citizens become fans of professional basketball. Individuals may possess unique reasons for becoming basketball spectators in their specific cultures. Therefore, this project attempted to compare the consumption of professional basketball in China with consumption in the U.S. This may help marketers develop marketing campaigns to increase the consumption of existing fans in both cultures, and may also allow marketers to determine better ways to attract new fans in the two cultures. International marketers may then decide if it will be more effective to create homogenized marketing strategies to attract basketball fans around the world or to develop unique marketing strategies for individual markets.

Research Purpose

The purpose of this study was to develop a model for comparing sport spectators in different cultures, and then to compare basketball spectators in two cultures. China and the U.S. were selected for comparison because they were believed to represent contrasting cultures. Chinese citizens are typically viewed as highly collectivistic, while American citizens are viewed as highly individualistic. Consumers in the two countries may also embrace unique values in their lives. Various research questions were addressed to assess sport spectators in both countries. Consumers in both countries purchase the same product (professional basketball tickets), so it was possible to compare their drivers of consumption. Although consumers in both countries are purchasing the same product, they may intend to consume the same product at different levels in the future. This research project attempted to

show the similarities and differences between spectators of the same sport in these two cultures.

Research Questions

A review of the literature helped guide the creation of a conceptual means-end framework. Pilot studies were employed in both China and the U.S. to determine the specific constructs of the framework. A final quantitative instrument was then created for distribution with both American and Chinese basketball spectators. The following research questions aided the development of the instrument:

RQ1: Do sport consumers in China and the United States represent distinct cultures?

Values are often used as a basis for defining cultures. Therefore, if consumers from the two countries embrace contrasting values, then they should represent two different cultures. Kahle's List of Values and Singelis's independent/interdependent self-construals will be used to test this research question.

Although means-end theory has not yet been applied to sport spectatorship, the model in this study incorporates elements from prominent sport marketing frameworks. Means-end theory has also been used to model cross-cultural consumer behavior and participation in leisure activities. Basketball spectators may choose to attend games because they believe that concrete features of the basketball games will result in important consequences. These spectators watch sporting events because they believe that the consequences or benefits of watching sports satisfy their most coveted values. These proposed means-end relationships will also be tested.

RQ2: Do consumers in different cultures watch professional basketball for different reasons?

Basketball spectators in this study are consumers of the same product. However, it is unclear whether they consume the same product for the same reasons. Specific attributes or consequences may be more important to consumers in one of these two cultures, but the means-end relationships may be different for these consumers as well. The means-end relationships for basketball spectators in both cultures will be tested.

RQ3: Do basketball spectators differ in their intentions to consume professional basketball cross-culturally?

Although there may be differences in the means-end paths that drive consumers to become basketball spectators in each country, there may also be differences in the behavioral intentions for those spectators. Behavioral intentions measure spectators' intentions to attend games in the future. There may be differences in the intentions between Chinese and American spectators. Unique attributes may also be important predictors of intentions in the two countries.

The findings from these research questions will contribute significantly to the development of professional sports in a global market.

Summary

Professional sports leagues around the world have rapidly expanded into international markets in recent years. Marketers must gain a better understanding of sport spectators outside of the U.S. in this emerging global marketplace. Therefore marketing researchers should begin to analyze cross-cultural consumer behavior and develop models that are

appropriate for cross-cultural studies. This study attempted to develop a new model for illustrating sport consumption. A means-end framework suggests that personal values lead individuals to watch sporting events instead of participating in other activities, and that the specific features of a sport lead individuals to watch a particular sport. Means-end theory was selected for this study because of its previous contributions to cross-cultural marketing research. This new model should also be able to explain sport consumption in different cultures. Specific research questions were developed to guide the project. Professional basketball spectators in China and the U.S. were selected as the samples. The findings should illustrate the similarities between basketball spectators in two cultures, and help marketers determine appropriate strategies to develop the sport in each country.

Terms

Collectivism: A cultural trait in which individuals care more about their group's interests than their own personal interests.

Culture: A group of individuals who follow a similar set of value and belief systems.

Focal Attribute: A concrete feature of a product or service. These features are related to choices of a specific brand or product.

Expected Consequence: An abstract reason for consuming a product or service. These features are related to choices of a particular product category.

Globalization: A theory in which consumers exhibit homogenized preferences around the world.

Glocalization: A theory in which consumers exhibit preferences that are influenced by both their own culture as well as international cultures.

Individualism: A cultural trait in which individuals care more about their own personal interests than the interests of their larger group.

Localization: A theory in which consumers exhibit unique preferences in each individual culture.

Means-End Chain: The hierarchical relationship between a product's attributes and consequences, and a consumer's values. Consumers purchase a product because its attributes provide benefits, which satisfy the consumer's most coveted values.

Value: Desired end-states that individuals attempt to reach through their behavior or consumption.

CHAPTER 2: REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

The purpose of this literature review was to develop a conceptual model to explain cross-cultural sport spectatorship. There are few studies in the sport management field that have looked at spectators from a cross-cultural perspective, so it was necessary to review pertinent topics in other areas to build a framework. First of all, the research on globalization suggests that consumers may have either unique, homogenous, or shared preferences around the world. Even though consumers around the world may have an interest in the same product or service, they may have different reasons for their interest in this product or service. Related to this study, the reasons for watching professional basketball games may be globalized, localized, or glocalized. Interests may be considered to be *globalized* if consumers in different parts of the world watch basketball for the same reasons (Levitt, 1983). Interests would be considered *localized* if consumers in different parts of the world watch basketball for different reasons (Alden, Steenkamp, & Batra, 2006). Finally, interests would be considered *glocalized* if consumers exhibit both similarities and differences in their reasons for watching basketball (Ritzer, 2003).

This study provides a cross-cultural comparison of sport spectators, so it is important to review the literature on culture in the marketing discipline. Values are a key element of culture (Sojka & Tansuhaj, 1995), which guide the patterning of behavior within a society (Craig & Douglas, 2006). For this reason, a comparison of values will be ideal for identifying two suitable countries for cross-cultural comparison. If consumers within the two countries differ on the values that guide their lives, then these differences will show that the consumers represent two different cultures. However, a comparison of values between

cultures does not provide suitable depth for consumer analysis. Kamakura and Novak (1992) noted that it is insufficient to segment consumers based only on value systems because product attributes, benefits and preferences also play a role in consumer decisions. Kahle, Duncan, Dalakas, and Aiken (2001) believe that researchers can provide more detailed analysis of consumers by linking values to product attributes, benefits, and preferences. Therefore, a “means-end” framework should provide a greater understanding of consumers’ interest in sport spectatorship because it links values to attributes and benefits for consumers. Marketing researchers have effectively used means-end theory for cross-cultural studies in recent years (Vriens & Ter Hofstede, 2000). While means-end theory is applicable to consumer behavior, the elements of the means-end chain must be clearly defined for the topic of analysis. The means-end framework for this study will utilize existing sport marketing concepts from the motivation literature to form the conceptual model. Sport marketing researchers have studied motivations extensively and have shown that individual motives predict sport consumption behavior in a variety of sports and contexts (e.g. Wann, 1995; Funk, Mahony, Nakazawa, & Hirakawa, 2001; Trail & James, 2001). Because of these reasons, the literature review was organized in the following order: globalization, culture, values, cross-cultural sport studies, means-end theory, and the conceptual framework.

Globalization

International cultures are influencing consumer behavior in countries around the world because of increased exposure through the Internet, the growth of cable and satellite television, and expanded travel opportunities. In sport, the international influence can be viewed through: greater access to international sporting events on television; a larger number

of international athletes in domestic leagues; and increased merchandise sales in foreign markets (e.g. Law, Harvey, & Kemp, 2002; Andrews & Ritzer, 2007). While researchers may agree that cross-cultural exchanges are occurring, they often disagree on the appropriate way to describe this process of communication and exchange. In fact, a review of the literature uncovered a wide variety of terms for this process: globalization (Levitt, 1983); glocalization, grobalization (Ritzer, 2003); localization, marginalization/cultural alienation (Alden et al., 2006); creolization, homogenization, Americanization, fragmentation, modernization, imperialism (Harvey, Rail, & Thibault, 1996); McDonalidization (Ritzer, 1993; Turner, 2003); Disneyization (Andrews, 2006), polarization, cosmopolitanism, cultural hybridization, Westernization (Holton, 2000); commodification (Horne & Manzenreiter, 2004); mundialization (Wagner, 1990), deterritorialization (Appadurai, 1990); and prolympism (Donnelly, 1996). Although there are a large number of terms for the phenomena, globalization and localization are both extreme views that suggest consumers embrace products and services that are either globally homogeneous or completely localized, respectively. Glocalization, which is a hybrid of globalization and localization, falls in between the two extreme views. However, localization is highly unlikely in this modern connected era, so most researchers now advocate one of two views, globalization or glocalization. Before undertaking a cross-cultural study, it is necessary to note the differences between globalization and glocalization, as well as their relationship to sport.

Globalization in Sport

‘Globalization’ has traditionally been conceptualized as the presence of homogeneous consumer needs in markets throughout the world. This view suggests that

national and regional preferences no longer exist, and a global market is emerging where consumers embrace standardized products (Levitt, 1983). Geographic borders become irrelevant, so corporations may develop global advertising campaigns or global products for multiple markets at the same time. Standardization allows managers to save money (Zhou & Belk, 2004), and global marketing images may increase sales and brand equity for a company (Alden, Steenkamp, & Batra, 1999). Harvey and Houle (1994) viewed globalization at the cultural level as shared values between consumers in different countries. Research on modernization and cultural imperialism also indicates that globalization is occurring in sport (Maguire, 1999). Globalization is apparent in the movement of players, sporting goods, media images, and other aspects of sport between countries; the mixing of Western and non-Western cultures; and the “spectacularization” of sport coverage in the media (Maguire, 1999). If consumers in contrasting cultures embrace similar preferences in their sport consumption, then this would support the notion of globalization in sport. True globalization in sport would lead to the development of homogenized sport experiences and marketing tactics that ignore the needs of local cultures.

Glocalization in Sport

A homogenized view of globalization neglects the importance of local culture in consumer preferences, so researchers often find theories of pure homogenization to be unsatisfactory (e.g. Horne & Manzenreiter, 2004). It is difficult to imagine consumers exhibiting homogeneous tastes with the differences that are apparent in cultures around the world. In reality, Harvey et al.’s (1996) model of global sport as a combination of local and global levels is more representative of globalization. Andrews and Ritzer (2007) suggested

that there are few places in the world untouched by globalization, so glocalization is now a more viable alternative to the globalization view.

Consumers may prefer their local values, attitudes or lifestyles to more cosmopolitan or global ones (Alden et al., 2006). However, international consumers cannot escape the impact of globalization in sports. In particular, professional sports are embracing the business practices of American sports leagues (Gruneau & Whitson, 2001). Donnelly (1996) described this movement toward entertainment, sponsorships, superstar athletes, and marketable television product in sport as 'prolympism.' This application of American business practices has influenced Australian cricket, British soccer, Canadian football (Donnelly, 1996), the European Cup (Gruneau & Whitson, 2001), and Chinese basketball (Larmer, 2005). Consumers in certain cultures may welcome the addition of entertainment elements and showmanship to their professional leagues, while other cultures may possess negative opinions toward these changes.

Major sporting good manufacturers maintain a global presence through their brands, but select their sponsorships and endorsements to match the needs of consumers in regional markets (Andrews & Ritzer, 2007). Nike utilizes glocalized advertising campaigns that feature a global brand with localized imagery, themes, and athletes (Andrews & Ritzer, 2007). These strategies show that consumers in international markets may enjoy globalized sports or brands, but prefer to follow their local athletes or teams. If consumer preferences prove to be distinct in contrasting cultures, then this would provide evidence of glocalization in sport.

Culture

Globalization and glocalization views suggest that consumers from different cultures exhibit either shared or distinct preferences. If sport spectators in different cultures exhibit the same preferences, this would provide evidence for globalization and support the development of homogenized sports and leagues. If consumers in different cultures exhibit unique preferences, this would provide evidence for glocalization and the development of culturally unique sports and leagues. Therefore, it is necessary to define culture and describe the process for selecting two unique cultures for comparison in this study.

Sojka and Tansuhaj (1995) defined culture as “a dynamic set of socially acquired behavior patterns and meanings common to the members of a particular society or human group, including the key elements of language, artifacts, beliefs, and values.” Culture is not stagnant, but it is constantly evolving (McCort & Malhotra, 1993; Craig & Douglas, 2006). Marketing and psychology researchers have noted that a country’s culture underlies systematic differences in behavior between countries, and commonalities within countries (Steenkamp, 2001). Culture influences value systems, normative forces and symbols in society, but antecedents of culture also influence and change the cognitive processes of those individuals within a society (McCort & Malhotra, 1993).

Craig and Douglas (2006) suggested that culture “is evident in the values and norms that govern society” (p. 323). Sojka and Tansuhaj (1995) described three different conceptualizations of culture: (1) abstract elements like value or belief systems; (2) material elements such as artifacts or rituals; and (3) communication links that bind a culture (Craig & Douglas, 2006). The three conceptualizations are not necessarily mutually exclusive, but

value and belief systems are most often used in studies of cultural orientation, which are common in the social sciences to study cognitive processes between countries (Oyserman, Coon, & Kemmelmeier, 2002; Craig & Douglas, 2006). Value and belief systems “characterize a society or culture and guide the patterning of behavior in that society” (Craig & Douglas, 2006; p. 325). Value systems have been examined for societies, sub-groups within a society, and individuals. These studies assume that value and belief systems guide behavior within a society, and cultural orientation has often been used to classify consumers into specific groups (Craig & Douglas, 2006). For the purpose of this study, culture refers to this particular conceptualization. Value and belief systems guide the sport consumption of individuals, and unique value and belief systems may create distinct behavior in consumers from contrasting cultures. Cultural value systems develop over time as individuals mature; and familial culture, regional culture and societal culture all play a role in the formation of an individual’s cultural value system (Luna & Gupta, 2001). Fan (2000) argued that national culture is best embodied in its citizens’ values. Values have been viewed as the outcomes of culture in a society, and certain values may be more important to consumers in specific markets because of differences in culture (Kim, Forsyth, Gu, & Moon, 2002). Therefore, values represent an ideal method for classifying cultures.

Values

Values refer to “centrally held, enduring beliefs or end-states of existence that consumers seek to achieve through their purchase and consumption behavior” (Klenosky et al., 1993). Values transcend specific objects (Ter Hofstede et al., 1999b), and motivate

individuals to engage in activities that will lead to their preferred end-states (Vinson, Scott, & Lamont, 1977).

List of Values

Kahle's list of values (LOV), which is similar to social distinction theory (Wedel, Ter Hofstede, & Steenkamp, 1998), is the most applicable value scale for cross-cultural consumer behavior research. The LOV refers to a global set of values that are believed to be relevant to individuals around the world. Therefore, the LOV is more appropriate for consumer behavior than either the Rokeach Value Survey or Hofstede's dimensions because its values relate more to life's major roles (Kahle, Beatty, & Homer, 1986). Kahle et al. (2001) applied the LOV to spectators for both men's and women's basketball. They determined that *warm relationships with others*, *self-respect*, and *sense of accomplishment* were the most important values for men's basketball spectators, while *self-respect*, *warm relationships with others*, and *fun and enjoyment in life* were the most important values for women's basketball spectators. Researchers have also frequently used the LOV to compare the values of consumers in different countries (e.g. Kahle, Rose, & Shoham, 2000). The cross-cultural research on the LOV has shown that cultures typically emphasize different values around the world (Kahle et al., 2000). Values play a significant role in driving consumer behavior within a culture, so they are ideal for comparing consumers between cultures. The LOV has also been linked to the more concrete elements in the means-end chain (e.g. Ter Hofstede et al., 1999b).

Values can be considered a snapshot of a culture because they are constantly changing. This was evident in Kahle, Poulos, and Sukhdial's (1988) longitudinal comparison

of the LOV in the U.S. between 1976 and 1986. Kahle et al. (1988) found that Americans' most important values remained stable over this 10-year period, but they also noticed changes that corresponded with major social changes in the U.S. For example, more females entered the American workforce during this period, so females placed a greater emphasis on self-respect and a lower emphasis on security in 1986 than they did in 1976. Changes in values will be even greater in countries that are undergoing dramatic social or economic reforms. Consumer values are changing rapidly because of the impact of globalization and the growth of the economy in countries like India and China (Kim et al., 2002). For this reason, values are believed to represent a culture at a specific point in time, but they are likely to change as consumers' beliefs and preferences evolve within a particular country.

Individualism/Collectivism

One common classification of values is individualism/collectivism. Hofstede's individualism/collectivism dimension has been widely used for cross-cultural comparisons (Maheswaran & Shavitt, 2000; Triandis, 2001). In contrast to the LOV, this dimension only relates to a specific facet of culture. A classification of consumers into an individualist or collectivist dimension shows that these consumers embrace contrasting values. Consumers in individualist cultures are more self-centered, independent, and less concerned with the needs, norms or interests of their in-group (Triandis, 2001; Sun, Horn, & Merritt, 2004). Consumers from collectivist cultures place an emphasis on group membership, respect group processes, and choose behavior based on group norms (Triandis, 2001; Sun et al., 2004). Oyserman et al. (2002) provided a meta-analysis of individualism/collectivism studies since 1980.

According to Oyserman et al., individualists believe that individuals are independent of each

other, while collectivists believe that groups bind and mutually obligate individuals. Individualists make decisions based on whether an action will lead to personal gain, while collectivists are more concerned about the impact on others (Hui & Triandis, 1986). Collectivists are more prone to loaning, borrowing, and giving in order to benefit their larger group (Hui & Triandis, 1986). Collectivists are also likely to conform because they are more susceptible to social influence. Overall, Oyserman et al.'s meta-analysis revealed that the U.S. is a more individualistic culture than other nations.

Researchers have used Hofstede's cultural dimensions for comparisons on humor in advertisements, response style tendencies, responses to market signals of quality, tipping decisions, new product development, and brand market share (Steenkamp, 2001). Often these studies compared respondents on a particular attitude or behavior based on their prior classification on one of Hofstede's specific dimensions. Other studies (e.g. Triandis, Chen, & Chan, 1998) attempted to classify a specific group of consumers into one or more of Hofstede's dimensions. Triandis et al. (1998) compared American and Chinese students, and determined that students in the U.S. rated highly on the horizontal individualism dimension while students in Hong Kong rated highest on horizontal collectivism. Prior classification on certain dimensions has led researchers to select specific countries for comparison (e.g. Aaker, Benet-Martinez, & Garolera, 2001). Researchers have indicated that China and the U.S. are suitable for cross-cultural comparisons because China has traditionally ranked high on the collectivistic dimension while the U.S. has traditionally ranked high on the individualistic dimension (Sun et al., 2004).

Sun et al. (2004) compared consumers in China, the United States, Great Britain and Japan, and found that Americans were highly individualistic while the Chinese were highly collectivistic. This finding supports other studies, which often place Americans on the extreme pole of individualism and Chinese on the extreme pole of collectivism (Aaker & Maheswaran, 1997). Sun et al. also noted that individualists are more brand-savvy and travel-oriented, while collectivists are more family-oriented and care about saving face with their in-group. Chen, Brockner, and Katz (1998) studied individuals in China and the U.S. Chen et al. found that the U.S. was higher on vertical individualism and vertical collectivism than China, while China was higher on horizontal individualism and horizontal collectivism than the U.S.

Wang, Bristol, Mowen, and Cakraborty (2000) compared American and Chinese consumers' reactions to "separate" and "connected" advertising appeals. Wang et al. (2000) found that Chinese consumers reported more favorable brand attitudes when advertisements used connected appeals. On the other hand, American consumers identified more closely with separated appeals, which emphasized individual achievement, personal goals, and the differences between consumers versus others. In a later study, Zhou and Belk (2004) studied the effects of both Western and traditional Chinese advertising messages on Chinese consumers. Chinese consumers believed that beauty and fashion products were more beautiful and fashionable when their ads used Western models. Global brands and models were also more closely associated with cosmopolitan sophistication, status, and modernity. Chinese consumers were more accepting of non-traditional Chinese values when they were associated with foreign brands or models. However, Chinese consumers reacted negatively

when Western brands attempted to use Chinese traditions and symbols in their ads (e.g. Chinese imagery in a Marlboro ad). Although it has not yet been studied, the differences between the United States and China on Hofstede's individualism/collectivism dimension may also apply to sport consumer behavior.

Cross-Cultural Sport Studies

After more than two decades of cross-cultural research in marketing, sport management researchers have finally recognized the need to develop new models and apply existing sport models to global sport management. To date, these studies have been limited, but they provide a basis for developing future cross-cultural projects in sport marketing.

International Team Identification

Researchers have rarely studied team identification with international sports and teams, but Uemukai, Takenouchi, Okuda, Matsumoto, & Yamanaka (1995) analyzed team identification with professional soccer spectators in Japan. The most influential factors to identification were: close proximity to the team, membership in a team's support group, and the duration of their fandom. Team location was associated with identification of less successful teams, but was not related to identification with the more successful franchises. In a later study, Matsuoka, Chelladurai, and Harada (2003) also analyzed team identification with Japanese soccer fans. They found that team identification and satisfaction influenced spectators' intentions to attend games in the future. Fans with low levels of identification were more likely than highly identified fans to abandon the team or reduce spectatorship if the team's performance declined. It is also possible that nationalism or other aspects of social

identity are important in team and sport identification. Harrolle and Trail (2007) proposed that ethnic identification and acculturation may influence an individual's sport identification.

International Motivations

A number of studies have also analyzed motivations in international sports. Mahony, Nakazawa, Funk, James, and Gladden (2002) examined motivational factors for spectatorship of professional soccer in Japan. Vicarious achievement, team attachment, and community pride were the strongest factors among J. League spectators. In another study, Mehus (2005) included motives for social affiliation and excitement in his Entertainment Sport Motivation Scale, which measured motivations at Norwegian soccer and ski jumping events.

Hong, McDonald, Yoon, and Fujimoto (2005) analyzed the motivations of Japanese baseball fans for watching an international league: Major League Baseball. The researchers analyzed four motives that were adapted from the SII: baseball interest, interest in individual players, national pride, and quality of games. Three of the motives (baseball interest, player interest, and quality of games) predicted emotional attachment, attitudinal loyalty, and behavioral loyalty for Japanese fans in an international sport.

Only one previous study has compared the motivations of sport spectators in different countries. Won and Kitamura (2007) compared motives for soccer fans in South Korea and Japan. They found significant differences between Japanese and Korean fans on six factors: skill, drama, entertainment, player, achievement, and family. The two countries exhibited similar ratings for the social interaction, escape, and community motives. Drama, player, and family were more important to Korean fans, while vicarious achievement, skill and

entertainment were more important to Japanese fans. Overall, spectators in both countries were motivated by drama, achievement, and entertainment. The motivations for Koreans were also associated with low attendance frequency and team identification, while the Japanese displayed higher attendance frequency and team identification.

International Brand Equity

Growing international television ratings and merchandise sales for American franchises and leagues show that many sport organizations now possess global appeal. Because distant fans may only be able to watch the team's games on television, Kerr and Gladden (2008) described these international fans as "satellite fans." Kerr and Gladden believed that the large number of fans in international markets present great opportunities for growth of domestic leagues and teams. The authors presented a conceptual model of international brand equity with market-related, team-related, and organization-related antecedents. The antecedents lead to brand equity, which includes brand awareness, brand associations, perceived quality, and brand loyalty. Brand equity then produces marketplace consequences, including benefits like international media exposure, merchandise sales, global corporate partnerships, and other revenues (Kerr & Gladden, 2008). Antecedents in the international brand equity model are attributes of the team or sport. These attributes include the success of the team, superstar athletes, the head coach, reputation of the team, the stadium, competition, or geographic location. The antecedents may initially attract or "motivate" individuals to follow an international team or sport.

Kerr and Gladden's model was the first model designed specifically for measuring international sport spectatorship, but their model was designed to measure *team* brand equity

in an international environment. The authors believed that their framework was appropriate for measuring the brand equity of teams, athletes, or sporting events, but it was not developed for analysis of a league or sport. Their model is also not suitable for describing the drivers of interest in a sport for domestic markets (e.g. professional basketball in China and the United States).

Means-End Theory

Means-end theory was selected because of its ability to explain consumer behavior in a cross-cultural context. Craig and Douglas (2006) stated that it is important to select a theory that is applicable to all of the cultures in a study for cross-cultural projects. Researchers have validated means-end theory through global research projects, so the concepts should be applicable to sport consumers in both China and the U.S.

Means-end theory is particularly relevant for cross-cultural research studies. Ter Hofstede et al. (1999b) adopted means-end theory in order to segment consumers in European countries. Respondents provided their perceptions of yogurt, and individuals were placed into segments according to similarities in their means-end chains. Since its publication, researchers have advocated the usage of means-end theory to model similarities and differences in consumer behavior across countries (Vriens & Ter Hofstede, 2000; Steenkamp & Ter Hofstede, 2002; Kaciak & Cullen, 2006). International consumers may differ in their attitudes and behavior, and an understanding of these characteristics would lead to improvements in international segmentation for both researchers and practitioners.

Values can help identify cultures for comparison, but they are not sufficient for comparing the drivers of consumption between cultures. Kahle et al. (2001) noted that the

most effective method for consumer segmentation is to develop value chains that link values to attitudes, beliefs, activities, and purchasing habits. Means-end theory provides a framework for connecting values to these other elements. According to the theory, psychological motivations drive consumer behavior. Values drive consumers' selection of important consequences and attributes in their means-end chains (e.g. Gutman, 1982). Consumers seek out product attributes because they provide benefits, and thereby satisfy their coveted personal values. In means-end research, studies have typically classified these values into the nine categories denoted by Kahle's List of Values: sense of belonging, excitement, warm relationships with others, self-fulfillment, being well respected, fun and enjoyment of life, security, self-respect, and sense of accomplishment (e.g. Kahle, 1983; Goldenberg, Klenosky, O'Leary, & Templin, 2000).

Researchers have advocated that attributes of sporting events are important in consumers' decisions to watch games (Funk & James, 2004; Kerr & Gladden, 2008). Means-end theory also suggests that these attributes impact consumer decisions, but goes further by explaining *why* these attributes are important to individuals (Klenosky et al., 1993). In this way, means-end theory can effectively link these attributes to motivations. Motives, in turn, have been proven to be important in explaining consumers' reasons for watching sporting events. Researchers in sport management have frequently analyzed the motivations behind sport involvement, but values and attributes can provide an even greater understanding of these motivations (Thyne, 2000). An individual's motivations are nested in the personal values and attributes that drive their actions. Therefore, means-end theory will provide

greater insight into the decision-making process than simple isolated studies of values (McIntosh & Prentice, 2004) or motivations and identification.

Means-End Studies in Leisure

Means-end theory has not yet been applied to sport spectatorship, and has rarely been applied to the larger body of leisure research. Because of the difficulty of data collection, the few leisure means-end studies have typically contained small, unrepresentative samples. Leisure and sport researchers have not yet compared means-end chains in different regions of the United States, for different leisure activities, or between different countries, but the theory offers great potential for future research.

Klenosky et al. (1993) first applied means-end theory to study destination choice behavior with skiers at a Canadian resort. Klenosky et al. discovered the attributes, consequences, and values associated with the skiers' selection of the resort. Based on the results, skiers were classified into six distinct segments. The most prominent values for the entire group were: sense of belonging, achievement, safety, and fun and excitement. Means-end theory illustrated the reasons for consumers' selection of one particular resort. In comparison, a study on motivations would have neglected the important attributes that consumers consider in their resort choices.

Klenosky (2002) also used means-end theory to explain students' selection of spring break destinations. In this case, the means-end chain represented a "push-pull" framework, where the decision to go on a vacation served as a push factor, and the specific choice of a destination acted as a pull factor. Higher-level benefits and values initially motivate a person to take a vacation, while the lower-level attributes are more likely to guide the person to a

specific location. Klenosky found that a single pull factor led to multiple ends for an individual. For example, respondents linked the attribute “beaches” to fun and enjoyment, self-esteem, and accomplishment.

Goldenberg et al. (2000) applied means-end theory to uncover consumers’ reasons for using ropes courses. Researchers found prominent linkages *between* consequences, in addition to the typical consequence-value connections. The benefit “task accomplishment” linked all other consequences to the three main values: fun and enjoyment, self-fulfillment, and accomplishment.

In order to compare means-end chains among stratified groups, Mulvey, Olson, Celsi, and Walker (1994) analyzed tennis racket purchasing decisions between groups classified by their level of involvement. Mulvey et al. found that high-, medium-, and low-involvement groups all revealed the same number of values and attributes. However, high-involvement participants mentioned a greater number of consequences in their means-end chains. Therefore, more experienced players possessed a better understanding of how specific product attributes affected their playing ability. Experienced players connected these consequences to their personal values more than less experienced players (Mulvey et al., 1994). The *types* of attributes and values also differed among all three groups, and low-involvement players were more likely to view a brand name as a cue for product quality, supporting Zeithaml’s (1988) conclusions.

Frauman and Cunningham (2001) utilized means-end theory to explain the behavior of greenway users. One of their prominent findings was that the majority of the chains ended with the attribute “amenities,” indicating its important role in greenway usage. In contrast to

the traditional qualitative laddering methodology, Frauman and Cunningham employed a quantitative study. While the quantitative measures limited the number of chains, researchers were able to compare the relative importance of specific attributes. The results showed that scenic nature and history were less important factors in greenway usage than amenities. This initial study showed that means-end theory may be able to provide an understanding of the attributes, consequences, and values that consumers do *not* consider in their decisions. One of the most prominent weaknesses of means-end studies has been the inability to model unimportant factors for individual consumers, but Frauman and Cunningham's work indicates that it may be possible to analyze these characteristics as well.

In the only application of means-end theory to entertainment spectatorship, Deeter-Schmelz and Sojka (2004) analyzed the viewership patterns of pro wrestling fans. They found that wrestling was an important social medium (attribute) for viewers, which led to group association (consequence), thereby satisfying their sense of belonging (value). Therefore, televised wrestling events play a significant role in the social experience of wrestling fans. Another prominent chain linked drama (attribute) with vicarious living (consequence) and self-respect (value). Wrestling fans also identified fantasy adventure, excitement, and small indulgences as other important personal values. While the study showed that means-end theory could provide new insight into reasons for entertainment viewership, researchers have not yet applied the theory to spectatorship in other sports.

Means-End Methodology

Means-end studies have traditionally incorporated qualitative laddering methodology, but means-end theory should not be confused with laddering (e.g. Reynolds & Gutman,

1988). The extensive use of the laddering technique has resulted in few means-end studies that progressed beyond the exploratory stage (Kaciak & Cullen, 2006). In fact, the repeated questioning of “why?” in laddering interviews may lead respondents to search for abstract values to explain their behavior, even though those values may be unimportant (Botschen, Thelen, & Pieters, 1999). Researchers can correct these methodological problems through quantitative large-scale studies. Quantitative means-end studies have been limited, but two projects applied the Association Pattern Technique (APT) to uncover means-end chains (Ter Hofstede et al., 1999b; Ter Hofstede, Audenaert, Steenkamp, & Wedel, 1999a). These two published APT articles both focused on food choices (yogurt and beef). However, the APT method involves complicated probabilistic statistics and forces consumers to link attributes with consequences, and consequences with values even if the connections are not important.

Conceptual Framework

The purpose of this research project is to compare the drivers of sport consumption in two different cultures. This research would help leagues develop more effective marketing programs and improve the ability of leagues to increase their fan bases in unique markets. First, two distinct cultures will be selected for comparison. Previous researchers have selected countries for cross-cultural comparisons based on their expected differences on specific dimensions. For example, Sirdeshmukh, Lentz, Nijssen, Singh, and Holzmuller (2005) compared consumer judgments of satisfaction, value and trust based on differences in market milieus between the U.S., Germany, and the Netherlands. Because of the stark contrast in individualism and collectivism (e.g. Wang et al., 2000; Sun et al., 2004) and their unique sport histories, China and the U.S. should provide an ideal comparison for a cross-

cultural study of sport consumer behavior. It is believed that Chinese consumers and American consumers will embrace different values. Researchers have shown that consumers in China are highly collectivistic, while consumers in the U.S. are highly individualistic (Hofstede, 1980; Sun et al., 2004). Values are ideal for cross-cultural segmentation because individuals within a culture typically agree on a set of values, while individuals from other cultures often embrace contrasting values (Li, Chick, Zinn, Absher, & Graefe, 2007).

Values in this model will include Kahle's List of Values and Singelis's interdependent and independent self-construals. Value and belief systems are closely identified with culture, so significant differences in the most important values between China and the U.S. would show that the two countries represent different cultures. Consumers in the two countries should embrace unique values from the LOV scale and differ in their self-construals.

Once it is determined that the two countries represent different cultures, it will be possible to determine the drivers of sport consumption within the two cultures. The drivers of sport consumption will be modeled after the concrete elements in the means-end framework. Consumers in the two countries may share both similarities and differences in the relationships between attributes and consequences. This would indicate that preferences are globalized in the two countries. If consumers exhibit the same paths in both countries, then this would suggest that preferences are globalized or homogenized. Finally, if consumers exhibit significant differences in all paths, then this would suggest that preferences for sport are purely localized.

The next step will be to compare the intentions of consumers in the two different cultures. Consumers may have different reasons for becoming spectators of professional basketball in each country, but the link to intentions will determine if those differences result in similar intentions for consumption. This will illustrate the connection between psychological commitment and intentions for consumers of professional basketball.

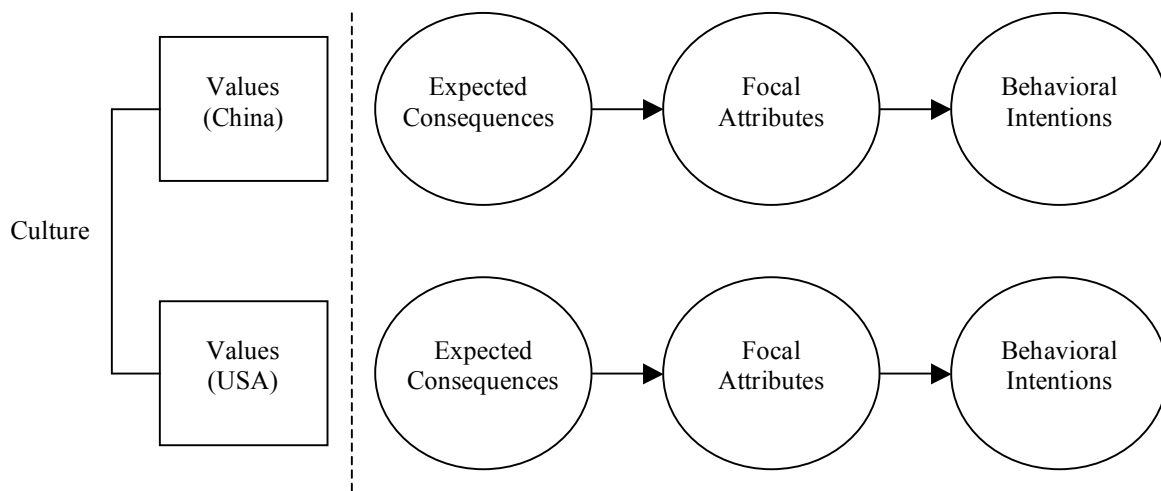


Figure 2.1. Proposed Means-End Model

The factors included in the model were selected after an extensive review of the literature and two pilot studies. The values were comprised of Kahle’s List of Values and Singelis’s independent and interdependent self-construals. It is hypothesized that these values represent end states that drive consumers to pursue specific products or services. Previous studies have compared consumers in different countries on the LOV and Singelis’s self-construals. A description of each of the values and results from previous cross-cultural studies follows.

Values

Self-Respect. Individuals who emphasize self-respect exhibit high levels of health consciousness. Self-respect is the most frequently selected value in the U.S. (Kahle et al., 2001). In a comparison of LOV studies from around the world, Kahle et al. (1999) also found that consumers in Denmark and Venezuela most frequently identified self-respect as their most important value.

Security. Consumers who do not possess psychological or financial security embrace this value (Kahle et al., 2001). Because of military concerns, security was the most important value to citizens in Israel, and was also important to consumers in Germany, the U.S., and Japan (Kahle et al., 1999). However, Kahle et al. (2001) showed that security was among the least important values for both men's and women's basketball spectators in the U.S.

Warm Relationships with Others. Individuals who value warm relationships with others often purchase products for "patriotism, deal proneness, and the belief that ads are informative" (Kahle et al., 2001). Warm relationships with others are particularly important to women (Kahle et al., 2001), and individuals in Japan, Russia, the U.S., and France (Kahle et al., 1999). Warm relationships with others were also highly valued by American sport spectators (Kahle et al., 2001).

Sense of Accomplishment. This value is typically more important to men than women, and is important to individuals who have made significant accomplishments in their lives (Kahle et al., 2001). These consumers are typically associated with conspicuous consumption, purchasing for sex appeal, and self-indulgence (Kahle et al., 2001). Individuals

in the U.S., France, Russia, and Venezuela embrace the sense of accomplishment value (Kahle et al., 1999).

Self-Fulfillment. Consumers who embrace this value purchase products for quality, self-indulgence, convenience, patriotism, entertainment, conspicuous consumption, and brand loyalty (Kahle et al., 2001). Self-fulfillment is the most important value to consumers in France and Japan, and also important to consumers in Israel and Venezuela (Kahle et al., 1999).

Being Well-Respected. Individuals who value being well-respected place great emphasis on gaining the respect of other individuals. These consumers are associated with a desire for quality, company reputation, patriotism, social identity, health consciousness, and brand loyalty (Kahle et al., 2001). This value was rated lowly by consumers in all of the countries in Kahle et al.'s (1999) global LOV review.

Sense of Belonging. Sense of belonging is a "home- and family-oriented value" embraced by consumers who emphasize voluntary simplicity, company reputation, patriotism, nostalgia, brand consciousness, brand loyalty, deal proneness, and health consciousness (Kahle et al., 2001). Sense of belonging was the highest rated value for consumers in Germany, Russia and Norway, but was the lowest rated value for consumers in the U.S. and France (Kahle et al., 1999).

Fun and Enjoyment in Life. Researchers occasionally include excitement as a value in LOV studies (e.g. Ter Hofstede et al., 1999b), but Kahle's LOV studies have subsumed excitement into the fun and enjoyment value (Kahle et al., 1986). Fun and enjoyment in life is important to consumers who emphasize leisure activities, and is associated with purchasing

for elegance, convenience, nostalgia, patriotism, authenticity, and brand consciousness (Kahle et al., 2001). Although fun and enjoyment was not the most important value to consumers in any of the global LOV studies, it was especially important to consumers in Denmark and France (Kahle et al., 1999). Kim et al. (2002) found that Chinese consumers rated excitement as a much less important value than consumers in both the U.S. and U.K.

Individualism / Collectivism

Singelis (1994) developed an alternative framework for analyzing individualism and collectivism. While cultures can be described as individualistic or collectivistic, the individuals within a culture may hold independent or interdependent self-construals. Cultures where individuals are likely to hold independent views of self are more likely to be individualistic, while cultures where individuals are likely to hold interdependent views of self are more likely to be collectivistic (Singelis, 1994). Singelis conceptualized self-construal as a “constellation of thoughts, feelings, and actions concerning one’s relationship to others, and the self as distinct from others” (p. 581). Individuals with independent self-construals emphasize internal abilities, being unique, recognizing internal attributes, and directness in communicating with others (Singelis, 1994). Individuals with interdependent self-construals emphasize status, roles, relationships, belonging, occupying “one’s proper place”, and indirectness in communication (Singelis, 1994). Markus and Kitayama (1991) hypothesized that the independent self was represented in Western (individualist) cultures, while the interdependent self was represented in Asian (collectivist) cultures (Singelis, 1994). Singelis further developed a scale to measure the degree of independent and interdependent self-construals in a person.

Value comparisons will provide a basis for justifying that China and the U.S. are distinct cultures, but further analysis will examine the drivers of sport consumption for basketball spectators. In this specific context, it was necessary to determine the concrete attributes and consequences that drive consumers to watch sporting events and attend professional basketball games. The factors were selected after reviewing the sport marketing literature and conducting a qualitative pilot study to determine the appropriate elements and their hierarchy.

Consequences, which refer to the features of the broader product category, drive a consumer to select certain attributes (Gutman, 1982; Klenosky et al., 1993). In this context, “expected consequences” refer to the benefits of watching sporting events; consumers select product attributes that will maximize their benefits or minimize their costs (Fruaman & Cunningham, 2001). Consequences help explain why consumers select specific attributes of a product or service. In this model, consequences refer to the abstract motives frequently identified in the motivation literature.

Expected Consequences

Because means-end theory has never been applied to a sport marketing study, there are no generally accepted consequences that have been tested in means-end chains with sport consumers. It was necessary to determine the benefits that drive consumers to watch sports for inclusion in this study. The motivation literature in sport marketing provided a solid basis for selecting these elements for the conceptual model. Motivations reveal the factors that drive consumers to select a particular type of behavior (e.g. watching sports) within that culture, and researchers have used motives to explain why spectators watch sporting events.

Motivation research has provided an extensive body of literature in sport marketing. Wann (1995) first proposed eight motives of sport spectatorship in his Sport Fan Motivation Scale (SFMS). Although researchers have widely adopted the SFMS, Trail and James (2001) identified a number of validity problems with the scale. Based on these concerns, Trail and James (2001; Trail, Fink, & Anderson, 2000) developed the Motivation Scale for Sport Consumption (MSSC). Funk et al. (2001) also created the Sport Interest Inventory (SII). These three instruments are the most widely used in sport marketing, and a number of the motives were shared in all three scales. However, Funk et al. (2001) advocated the selection of motives that are specific to the research context. Therefore, the six expected consequences in this framework were selected because of their hypothesized relevance to both Chinese and American basketball spectators.

In a means-end model, expected consequences represent choices at the broader category level. In this study, consequences refer to the reasons why consumers choose to watch sporting events instead of other activities that would satisfy coveted values. The motivation literature suggests that a large number of motives drive consumers to watch sporting events. The consequences in this study were selected for three different reasons. First, each of the consequences had been tested in previous motivation studies (e.g. Wann, 1995; Trail & James, 2001; Funk, Mahony, Nakazawa, & Hirakawa, 2001). Second, the consequences were relevant to both Chinese and American sport spectators, so they could be validated in both countries and used for cross-cultural comparisons. Finally, there was no existing comparison of Chinese and American basketball spectators in the literature, so the researcher's beliefs also played a role in their selection.

Vicarious Achievement. Vicarious achievement is a key motive in sport spectatorship, as evidenced by its inclusion in the scales by Wann (1995), Trail and James (2001), and Funk et al. (2001). Individuals express high levels of vicarious achievement when they feel a sense of accomplishment when their favorite teams win. Increased self-esteem results from these feelings of “identification and belongingness” (Wann, 1995). Fans with high ratings on vicarious achievement clearly want to see their favorite teams win so that they can improve their self-esteem. While individuals may watch sporting events to “bask in the reflected glory” of their favorite teams, vicarious achievement could also be linked to other attributes as well. In this model, vicarious achievement offers a potential connection between concrete focal attributes (e.g. players and teams) and abstract values (e.g. sense of accomplishment). Certain spectators may watch basketball because they identify with successful teams and players in the sport. Kerr and Gladden (2008) identified success as an antecedent of brand equity. Both the SII (Funk et al., 2001) and MSSC (Trail & James, 2001) focused on vicarious achievement related to the success of the team. Although spectators may identify with successful teams, they may also identify with successful athletes. Researchers (e.g. Brownell, 2000; Sun et al., 2004) have shown that success is especially important to Chinese fans. Vicarious achievement is also a driver of attendance in the United States as teams can easily boost attendance by improving their win-loss record (e.g. Clapp & Hakes, 2005). Because of the importance of face in China, vicarious achievement may provide stronger linkages for Chinese consumers than American consumers.

Social Interaction. Individuals may watch sporting events because they provide an opportunity to interact with other fans. Social interaction was included as a motive in the

SFMS, MSSC and SII. Both Trail and James (2001) and Funk et al. (2001) conceptualized the factor as socialization with other fans at games, while Wann (1995) viewed the factor as identification or group affiliation with other individuals. Social interaction has been shown to predict behaviors including team identification, sport viewership, game attendance, and other media consumption (Trail et al., 2000). The importance of pre-game tailgates, online fan communities, and sports bars all suggest that social interaction is an important expected consequence of sport spectatorship. In this model, social interaction refers to the benefits that occur when an individual watches games together with other fans. The factor is similar to the conceptualizations in the three major motivation research lines.

Community Pride. Spectators may watch sporting events because the team represents their local community, spectators may support players because they are from the local community, or spectators may watch a specific sport because it is a popular local pastime. The SFMS and MSSC did not include a motive for community pride, but Funk, Ridinger, and Moorman (2004) included the factor in an application of the SII with WNBA spectators. Funk et al. (2004) believed that WNBA fans watched their local team in order to support the community. While teams may provide local citizens with a means to become involved in the community, individuals may also follow specific players, visit stadiums, or watch specific sports because of their connection to the local area. In the qualitative pilot study, respondents frequently indicated that they selected their favorite sport because it was representative of their hometown. Armstrong (2003) showed that cultural affiliation was an important motive for African-American spectators; close proximity to the team was the top factor in the team identification of Japanese soccer spectators (Uemukai et al., 1995); and local fans were more

likely to remain fans during unsuccessful seasons (Wann et al., 2001). Provincial rivalries are prominent in Chinese sports, so it is likely that community pride is a key driver of sport and team interest in China. Local rivalries are also important in American sports, and fans frequently identify with their hometown teams. In this model, community pride refers to the local community, so it is distinguished from pride in the national community.

Nationalism. Spectators may also watch sporting events because they provide an outlet for supporting their home country. Nationalism was only studied as a factor in the SII (Funk, Mahony, & Ridinger, 2002) with U.S. Cup spectators, but cultural affiliation was an important motive for African-American spectators (Armstrong, 2003). It is likely that nationalism is a more important motive for spectators watching international competition than domestic league games. However, nationalism could play a larger role in more ethnocentric countries or countries attempting to boost their international recognition. Nationalism is also likely to be more important in China because of the Chinese government's emphasis on success in international competition. In the pilot study, Chinese citizens indicated strongly that they preferred to watch basketball games with Chinese players and national team players. Nationalism may be a less important consequence in sport spectatorship in the U.S. because of the American emphasis on success in domestic leagues rather than international competition. Individuals with a high rating on this consequence watch sporting events in order to show support for their home country.

Family Interaction. Family was included as a motive in both the MSSC and SFMS. Individuals may watch sporting events because of the interaction these events provide with family members (Wann et al., 2001). Researchers have shown that family members are key

socialization agents who influence the sport behavior of their children, siblings, parents, and spouses (e.g. James, 2001; Yoh, 2005). Individuals may attend games because their spouse or child has an interest in the sport; and sporting events may provide entertainment for the entire family (Trail et al., 2000). In this model, family interaction is different from the effect of family members as socialization agents. Family members act as socialization agents and influence the specific sports or teams that individuals watch. However, individuals may watch sports because they provide an opportunity to spend time with their parents, children or siblings. The MSSC (Trail & James, 2001; James & Ridinger, 2002) originally included items related to the overall family, spouse, and children in the family factor, but James and Ross (2004) later focused on spending time with the family in general. This model will also focus on the overall family because not all individuals have parents, siblings, children, or a spouse. Means-end relationships to family interaction may be more important to American consumers because of the intergenerational influence of sport involvement in the U.S. and the prevalence of the one-child policy in China.

Drama. Another important consequence of sporting events is the drama or competition of the games. Drama can be defined as a desire to watch sports for excitement and stimulation (Wann et al., 2001). Spectators with a strong desire for drama enjoy watching close games and exciting plays. Sporting events are different from other forms of entertainment because the outcome is undecided before the start of the event. The MSSC (Trail & James, 2001), SFMS (Wann, 1995), and SII (Funk et al., 2001) all included a motive for drama or eustress in their motivation scales. Wann's eustress motive measured stimulation, interest in competition, and interest in watching favorite teams. Mahony et al.'s

(2002) conceptualization of drama combined close games with interest in watching a favorite team. Both the drama motives of the SII (Funk et al., 2001; 2002; 2004) and MSSC (Trail & James, 2001; James & Ridinger, 2002; James & Ross, 2004) only focused on interest in watching close games. In this model, the conceptualization of drama is similar to the conceptualizations in the SII and MSSC. Competition and drama could also be considered part of the excitement of sporting events. Excitement was identified as an important factor in the qualitative pilot study, but the SII (Funk et al., 2001; Funk et al., 2002; Funk et al., 2004) was the only motivation scale to include a motive for excitement. In this model, spectators watch sporting events because they have an interest in the competition and drama that sports provide.

Focal Attributes

The focal attributes in a means-end model represent choices at the more defined product level. In this study, the attributes focus on the focal criteria affecting choices between alternatives in the product category (sporting events). These spectators attend basketball games because the focal attributes associated with basketball satisfy their expected consequences. Although a large number of factors could be important at the attribute level, these specific constructs were selected because of their relevance to basketball spectators in both China and the U.S. and their prominence in the literature.

In addition to the research on motivations, other sport management studies have identified drivers of sport consumption that may be appropriate in a means-end framework. In particular, Funk and James's (2004) FAN model identified features that could also represent concrete attributes in this proposed model. The "endearing features" of a sport help

consumers determine whether the sport can satisfy their dispositional needs. Funk and James (2004) described these features as performance outcomes, prior success, competition level, style of play, quality of service, geographic proximity to team, media influence, community solidarity, star players, family entertainment, success, and socialization. Kerr and Gladden (2008) also looked specifically at fans' interest in international sport and suggested that concrete features may act as antecedents of brand equity.

The literature and the researcher's beliefs guided the selection of four focal attributes in this framework. Attributes refer to the features of a specific product. These are the most concrete elements of basketball games, which are similar to antecedents of brand equity (Kerr & Gladden, 2008) or endearing features of sport (Funk & James, 2004). The "focal attributes" included in this model were not exhaustive, but they included the attributes that were believed to be the most important in basketball spectatorship decisions.

Interest in Basketball. Individuals may choose to watch basketball because they have an interest in the sport itself. The sport motive has been used by Funk et al. (2001; 2002; 2004) and Mahony et al. (2002). Kerr and Gladden (2008) also identified interest in the sport as an antecedent of international brand equity. Fans may have a greater interest in the sport itself than the players or teams (Mahony et al., 2002), or fans may attend games because basketball is their favorite sport (Funk et al., 2004). It is important to separate interest in the sport from interest in players and the team, so this model uses the factor's conceptualization in Funk et al.'s (2001) original SII study. James and Ridinger (2002) included a motive for action in their model of sport motivations, and action was one of the most frequently mentioned features in the qualitative pilot study. However, action was considered to be too

similar to the factor measuring interest in the sport, so it was eliminated because of concerns over multicollinearity. Spectators with high ratings on the *Interest in Basketball* construct choose to watch basketball because they consider themselves to be fans of the sport of basketball.

Interest in Team. Spectators may watch basketball because of the specific teams involved in the game. These individuals could watch the game because their favorite team is playing, but they may also have an interest in watching a rival of their favorite team, a local team, a national team, or a highly-rated team. Wann and Branscombe (1993) originally showed that high levels of team identification were associated with high levels of behavioral commitment. Mahony et al. (2002) measured team attachment by combining psychological commitment, team identification, and team importance related to Japanese fans' favorite J. League team. James and Ross (2004) included both team effort and team affiliation as motives for sport spectatorship. Kerr and Gladden (2008) also included the team as an antecedent in their international brand equity model. In the majority of these studies, the team referred to an interest in an individual's favorite team. Mahony et al. (2002), and Funk et al. (2001; 2002) all focused on interest in favorite teams. However, in this conceptualized model, interest in team relates to *any* team. Individuals may attend games because they want to watch a specific team, but they may not necessarily support that team. Although spectators may watch games because they are fans of a particular team, they may also have an interest in watching teams that they do not support. In this factor, spectators choose to watch basketball because of an interest in at least one of the teams playing in the game.

Interest in Players. Just as spectators watch basketball because of their interest in teams, other spectators may also watch basketball because of their interest in individual players. This attribute is especially important in this context because of the NBA's focus on marketing individual athletes. In the pilot study, CBA spectators identified star players as their top reason for watching basketball games. A motive for players was included in studies by Mahony et al. (2002) and Funk et al. (2001; 2002; 2004). Players were included as an antecedent in Kerr and Gladden's (2008) model, and as an endearing feature in Funk and James's (2004) FAN model. Similar to the team factor, the SII and these other studies measured the factor "players" through fans' interest in cheering for favorite players and compared interest in players versus interest in teams. However, spectators may attend games in order to watch their favorite players, but they may also attend games to watch the "best" players, local players, national team players, or other types of players. Because of this, the players factor is conceptualized as a general factor related to players overall.

Entertainment. Professional sporting events often provide entertainment in addition to the sport itself. Although this is widely associated with the "Americanization" or "Disneyization" of sports, entertainment is now a key part of pro sports around the world. In the U.S., basketball games include dance teams, drumlines, in-game contests, giveaways, stadium restaurants, theme parks, lavish introductions and halftime shows, and loud music. Certain spectators may not have an interest in sports, but still attend basketball games because of these entertainment options. Chinese teams have only recently added additional entertainment to their local arenas, so this is still a novel concept in China. Researchers have only rarely studied the importance of this type of entertainment in spectatorship. Funk et al.

(2002) identified entertainment value as a motive of soccer spectatorship, while Wann (1995) identified family entertainment as a motive in the MSSC. This factor refers specifically to entertainment outside of the sporting event. Individuals with a high rating on this factor attend games because there is more entertainment available at basketball games than just the game itself.

Research Questions & Hypotheses

The identification of the preceding constructs and an extensive review of the literature resulted in the development of research questions and hypotheses for this study. A full methodology will later be described for analysis of these research questions.

RQ1: Do sport consumers in China and the United States represent distinct cultures?

The LOV is widely used in consumer behavior, and values are an integral element of culture. Previous research suggests that consumers in China and the U.S. embrace unique values. Previous research also suggests that consumers in China are collectivistic, while consumers in the U.S. are individualistic. If respondents in China and the U.S. acknowledge that different values are more important in their daily lives, then the two countries should represent contrasting cultures that are suitable for further comparison.

H1A: Chinese and American spectators embrace different values on the LOV scale, so the two groups represent two distinct cultures.

H1B: Chinese spectators exhibit interdependent self-construals while American spectators exhibit independent self-construals, so the two groups represent two distinct cultures.

Sport marketing researchers have shown that motives may explain why individuals watch sports (e.g. Wann, 1995; Funk et al., 2001; Trail & James, 2001), and also shown that specific features are important in an individual's selection of a favorite team or sport (e.g. Funk & James, 2004; Kerr & Gladden, 2008). The means-end model in this study proposes that the motives for watching sports (expected consequences) and the features of a particular sport (focal attributes) are both important in sport consumption decisions. Researchers have used means-end frameworks to explain consumer behavior in consumer products, parks, recreation and other industries, so a means-end model should also be suitable for sport spectators. Although a number of constructs have been reconceptualized for this particular study, the hypothesized attributes and consequences should represent strong and distinct constructs for American and Chinese spectators.

RQ2: Do consumers in different cultures watch professional basketball for different reasons?

If the Chinese and American spectators represent two distinct cultures, then it will be possible to compare spectators from the two countries. The focal attributes were selected for this study because they are believed to represent the factors that drive consumers to attend professional basketball games specifically, while the expected consequences were selected because they are believed to represent the factors that drive consumers to watch sporting events in general. In particular, a review of the literature suggests that spectators in different cultures will choose to watch the same sport for different reasons. These reasons include the focal attributes and expected consequences discussed in the previous section. The countries

could be compared through both means and the relationships between focal attributes and expected consequences. After identifying that the two countries represent unique cultures based on their classifications in the LOV and individualism/collectivism dimensions, the study will then compare the drivers of sport consumption within each country. There may be specific expected consequence-focal attribute relationships that are shared by consumers in both cultures. There may also be specific expected consequence-focal attribute relationships that differ significantly between the two cultures. This will provide evidence of whether drivers of interest in professional basketball and professional sports are globalized, localized, or glocalized. The following environmental factors guided the development of hypotheses related to these specific attribute-consequence connections.

H2A: Focal attributes and expected consequences of watching basketball games will differ significantly between basketball spectators in China and the U.S.

Professional Sport Systems

Professional sport systems differ dramatically between China and the U.S. In the U.S., NBA teams have increasingly constructed modern arenas during the past 20 years in order to add luxury suites, large video screens, restaurants and other amenities to boost revenues. In fact, as of 2008, only five of the 30 NBA franchises play in arenas constructed before 1990. NBA games feature additional forms of entertainment in order to target non-basketball fans and stand out from other sports in the crowded American sport landscape. Entertainment has been an important element in American professional sports since their introduction to the U.S. in the 19th century (Whitson, 1998). On the other hand, with the

exception of the Beijing arena constructed for the 2008 Olympics, Chinese basketball arenas are less technologically advanced than American basketball arenas (BWCS, NBA China and AEG..., 2008). Games are often played in unheated arenas with minimal entertainment options, luxury suites, or the concessions that are common at American NBA games (Wolff, 2002; Thompson & Paul, 2008).

Because of these differences, additional entertainment at basketball games may be more important to American consumers. Certain consumers may watch NBA games in the U.S. because they provide extra entertainment options, even though they have little interest in the sport itself. In contrast, Chinese consumers may not view these entertainment options as significant reasons to attend professional basketball games or may have only seen this additional entertainment when they have watched NBA games on television. Chinese consumers may be more likely to be pure fans of the sport of basketball, suggesting that the attribute for the sport will link to more expected consequences in their culture.

H2B: American basketball spectators will exhibit stronger preference for the focal attribute of additional entertainment compared to Chinese basketball spectators.

H2C: Chinese basketball spectators will exhibit stronger preference for the focal attribute for of interest in the sport of basketball compared to American basketball spectators.

Sport Histories

There was minimal organized structure of sport in China until Deng Xiaoping facilitated the development of a modern Chinese sports system in the early 1980s. The government's goal was to instill national pride in Chinese citizens through sports (Larmer, 2005). Therefore, China heavily emphasized success in the Olympics by rewarding its athletes for their performance in international competition. Chinese citizens and athletes embraced Olympic sports that offered little tradition in their country, but provided an opportunity to generate national pride through their athletes' international success. During the 1990s, the Chinese government created professional soccer and basketball leagues that were modeled after the European and American systems. The government adopted a Western structure (e.g. Polumbaum, 2002) with "Chinese characteristics" (Jones, 1999b). The government also developed professional teams like the August First soccer and basketball clubs, which were affiliated with the People's Liberation Army (Jones, 1999b; Polumbaum, 2002).

These differences suggest that nationalism may play a greater role in the sport consumption of Chinese spectators. However, nationalism is likely to be less significant to Americans. With the exception of the Olympics, American fans follow league sports more closely than international competitions, so nationalism may have little impact on American spectators' reasons for watching professional basketball.

H2D: Chinese basketball spectators will exhibit stronger preference for the expected consequence of nationalism compared to American basketball spectators.

Most American professional basketball teams have longer established histories in their local communities than Chinese professional teams. Therefore, many spectators may see the sport of basketball, the teams or individual players as key elements of their community. For this reason, community pride may be a more important factor for American consumers than Chinese consumers. While nationalism may guide sport spectatorship in China, the local community is likely to be more important for Americans.

H2E: American basketball spectators will exhibit stronger preference for the expected consequence of community pride compared to Chinese basketball spectators.

Role of Family

Professional basketball has experienced a recent surge in popularity with younger Chinese consumers, but older Chinese consumers may not have grown up following the sport or local teams because of the government's ban on sports prior to the 1980s (e.g. Larmer, 2005). Although family interaction is an important part of collectivist cultures, the short history of professional sports in China may prevent families from viewing basketball games as a family event. Chinese citizens born after 1979 are also unlikely to have siblings because of their government's inaction of the one-child policy (Wu, 1999). On the other hand, American consumers may have enjoyed watching sports with their parents or other family members (e.g. James, 2001). American spectators may follow their parents' favorite teams or may introduce their own children to a favorite sport. Socialization research suggests that many American spectators learned about a particular sport or their favorite teams through their parents or siblings (James, 2001; Casper & Menefee, 2009). Because basketball is more

popular with children than their parents, and because many children do not have siblings, the expected consequence for family interaction is likely to be less important in China than in the U.S.

H2F: American basketball spectators will exhibit stronger preference for the expected consequence of family interaction compared to Chinese basketball spectators.

Cultural Dimensions

Researchers have consistently rated China as a highly collectivistic culture, while they have rated the U.S. as a highly individualistic culture (e.g. Sun et al., 2000). The NBA traditionally markets its *players* and emphasizes one-on-one or individual efforts in its promotions in the United States. In American basketball, the slam dunk is a symbol of creativity, freedom, and power by individual athletes (Larmer, 2005). On the other hand, Chinese authorities originally denounced the dunk because of its negative impact on opponents' "face". Instead, Chinese basketball embraced the three-point shot because it rewarded teamwork and was better suited to the skills of smaller Chinese athletes (Larmer, 2005). In contrast to the detailed statistics that the NBA uses to track individual player performance, the CBA was initially reluctant to track individual statistics because they feared it might de-emphasize the role of the team (Larmer, 2005). In the past, China has effectively marketed its national teams, including the table tennis, volleyball, and women's basketball teams (Polumbaum, 2002). Chinese consumers may prefer collectivistic elements like teams, while American consumers prefer individualistic elements like players.

H2G: Chinese basketball spectators will exhibit stronger preference for the focal attribute for the team compared to American basketball spectators.

H2H: American basketball spectators will exhibit stronger preference for the focal attribute for individual players compared to Chinese basketball spectators.

The importance of face may also drive other aspects of sport consumption in China. Chinese citizens do not find it easy to accept defeat because of their emphasis on “face” (Brownell, 2000). Popular American teams like the Boston Red Sox and Chicago Cubs developed large followings partly because of their penchant for losing every season (Campbell, Aiken, & Kent, 2004). The media christened the teams as “lovable losers”. On the other hand, the importance of saving face may cause Chinese spectators to ignore less successful professional teams and players. Also, despite the development of domestic leagues, Chinese sport consumers still exhibit a strong interest in watching the NBA and European soccer on television, and purchase merchandise to show their support for their favorite international teams and players (e.g. Hua, 2004; Kobe Bryant..., 2007). This international interest may arise because they view Chinese players and leagues as inferior products (Wolff, 2002). In fact, while the NBA has experienced growth since Yao Ming’s arrival into the league in 2002, Chinese fans have embraced non-Chinese players as well. In 2008, Yao ranked only tenth in NBA jersey sales in China, behind nine American NBA players (Janoff, 2008). Previous research has shown that CBA attendees actually watch more NBA games and identify more strongly with their favorite NBA teams (Menefee & Casper, 2009). The CBA has suffered from decreased attendance and viewership because of the

growing popularity of the NBA, as well as the departure of the country's top basketball stars to the NBA over the past few years (Shortened season, 2007). Therefore, success may be a more significant driver of interest in basketball for Chinese spectators than American spectators.

H2I: Chinese basketball spectators will exhibit stronger preference for the expected consequence of vicarious achievement compared to American basketball spectators.

In addition to comparing the attributes and consequences between the two countries, the means-end chains will be examined by analyzing the relationships between expected consequences and focal attributes. Based on the individualism/collectivism literature and the researcher's opinions about appropriate means-end relationships, a number of relationships were identified for testing. Certain relationships were believed to be invariant across cultures. For example, Drama-Interest in Basketball and Social Interaction-Entertainment relationships should be appropriate in both countries. Global spectators may be drawn to basketball because the sport produces close games and exciting finishes more than other sports. Individuals in both countries should also enjoy the entertainment at basketball games because it leads to opportunities for social interaction. This relationship between social interaction and entertainment should be present for spectators around the world.

H2J: The Drama-Interest in Basketball and Social Interaction-Entertainment relationships will not vary between American basketball spectators and Chinese basketball spectators.

A number of relationships were expected to be strong in the American sample. The individualistic nature of Americans suggests that individual players may be more important to Americans than Chinese. Therefore, relationships between Interest in Players with Community Pride and Vicarious Achievement may be present in the U.S. Because professional sports have a longer history in the U.S. than China, intergenerational and intragenerational socialization are both more likely to influence American spectatorship. The family should be associated with stronger means-end relationships in the U.S. In particular, Family Interaction may be associated with Entertainment, Interest in Basketball, and Interest in Team for Americans. Also, the strength of local communities in the U.S. suggests that relationships to Community Pride will be stronger for Americans than Chinese. Relationships between Community Pride and Interest in Team, Interest in Basketball, and Interest in Players are expected to be strong in the U.S.

H2K: The Community Pride-Interest in Team, Community Pride-Interest in Basketball, Community Pride-Interest in Players, Vicarious Achievement-Interest in Players, Family Interaction-Entertainment, Family Interaction-Interest in Basketball, and Family Interaction-Interest in Team relationships will be present for American basketball spectators

A number of relationships were also hypothesized to be strong with only Chinese spectators. The collectivistic nature of Chinese citizens suggests that they will be more interested in teams than individual players. The relationships between Interest in Team with Vicarious Achievement and Nationalism should be stronger in China than the U.S. In

addition, China's sports have always focused on building national pride among its citizens. Nationalism should be more important in the means-end relationships for Chinese spectators than Americans. Nationalism may be related to Interest in Basketball, Interest in Team, and Interest in Players in China.

H2L: The Vicarious Achievement-Interest in Team, Nationalism-Interest in Basketball, Nationalism-Interest in Team, and Nationalism-Interest in Players relationships will only be present for Chinese basketball spectators

RQ3: Do basketball spectators differ in their intentions to consume professional basketball cross-culturally?

In addition to the attributes and consequences driving spectatorship, basketball spectators may also differ in their intentions to consume professional basketball. Behavioral intentions include future attendance at basketball games and the purchasing of merchandise. There is no basis in the literature to suggest that spectators will differ in the levels of their intentions for consumption or in the focal attributes that drive their intentions.

Summary

The literature review served to develop a model for comparing sport consumption in China and the United States. In order to develop the conceptual framework, it was important to review a number of areas of the literature. Marketing researchers have studied globalization for the past few decades. However, sport management researchers have only

recently studied globalization in sports. This limited number of cross-cultural studies in sport marketing revealed a significant need for international research projects. The first step in developing a cross-cultural model was to review the marketing literature on culture and determine a suitable definition for 'culture'. Because values are an important element of defining culture, the review next discussed the coverage of values in both the marketing and sport management literature. In particular, Kahle's List of Values and the individualism/collectivism dimension were deemed appropriate for classifying consumers into distinct cultures.

There have only been a limited number of international research projects in the sport marketing literature. A number of theories were considered for this cross-cultural study, but means-end theory was selected because of its strength in cross-cultural applications and its ability to model the relationship between concrete and abstract elements of consumer behavior. While sport marketing researchers have not yet applied means-end theory to this discipline, leisure researchers have used means-end theory to explain behavior in parks, recreation activities, and entertainment events like professional wrestling. For these reasons, means-end theory should be ideal for modeling cross-cultural sport consumption. Basketball spectators choose to attend basketball games from the larger category of sporting events overall. Expected consequences refer to the abstract elements of sporting events, so the research on sport motivations provided an extensive body of literature on psychological drivers of spectatorship. Focal attributes are more concrete elements of professional basketball games, so these elements included features that were more applicable to the specific product of choice. Finally, the full conceptual model included expected

consequences, focal attributes, and values. Each of the individual factors in the model was selected after a review of the motivation literature and consideration of the specific research context.

CHAPTER 3: METHODS

The purpose of this study was to compare the drivers of professional basketball spectatorship in China and the United States. The study attempted to determine if there were differences in the reasons why individuals become professional basketball spectators in the two cultures. A means-end framework was developed to test the relationship between spectators' reasons for watching basketball and their reasons for watching sporting events overall. Self-administered questionnaires were distributed to spectators at professional basketball games in both China and the United States. Structural equation modeling was then used to test the relationships between focal attributes and expected consequences in the model. The following sections describe the methodology used in this study: participants, procedures, measures, and method of data analysis.

Participants

Basketball spectators may show their support by attending games in person, watching games on television or purchasing sport merchandise. However, in cross-cultural means-end studies, it is important to ensure that respondents represent consumers of the same product in both countries. In this study, spectators were defined as individuals who attend professional basketball games. This conceptualization ensured that the study was comparing similar consumers in China and the U.S. Basketball spectators choose to attend basketball games from the larger product category of sporting events. Although these spectators were attending games in person, they may also watch games on television and purchase basketball merchandise. Therefore, game attendees provided a representative and comparable sample of basketball spectators in both the U.S. and China.

The participants included game attendees at CBA games in China and NBA games in the United States during the 2008-09 regular season. Data was collected in both countries between January and March 2009. In order to gain access to these basketball spectators, self-administered questionnaires were distributed at games. Approximately an hour before tipoff, researchers walked through the arena and asked spectators if they would complete a survey before the game. The researchers were rarely turned down in their requests. Prior to tipoff, the completed questionnaires were collected in the arena. This process ensured that the samples included season-ticket holders, single-game attendees, multi-game attendees, and complimentary ticket holders. The inclusion of consumers in different ticket categories provided a more representative sample of basketball spectators.

Respondents in the U.S. sample included spectators at three National Basketball Association games during the 2008-09 season. The respondents were spectators for one NBA franchise at three different games. The NBA is the top level of professional basketball in the United States. American basketball spectators may attend games at their local NBA arenas, but they are also able to watch NBA games that are broadcast nationally on ESPN, TNT, and ABC (http://www.nba.com/features/tv_partners.html). American spectators can also watch regional cable broadcasts of local teams, and have the ability to watch all NBA games via subscription on cable and satellite television. Although the respondents in this study purchased tickets to watch a specific basketball game in person, they may also watch other professional basketball games on television.

Respondents in the Chinese sample included spectators at five Chinese Basketball Association teams' games during the 2008-09 season. The CBA is the top level of

professional basketball in China. The respondents included spectators from three different cities within China. The sample was selected because these Chinese consumers purchased the same product (basketball tickets to a local professional game) as their counterpart American spectators. This similarity allowed for cross-cultural comparisons between the two countries.

Procedures

Study Design

The study required approval within both the U.S. and China. Approval was requested from the Internal Review Board at North Carolina State University before data collection. Approval was also granted by the Chinese Sport Council in China. Questionnaires were provided to respondents at games because this provided access to the widest variety of basketball spectators. In addition, web-based questionnaires were not appropriate for the Chinese sample because a large percentage of the population does not have access to the Internet. Because the respondents were game attendees, it was important to develop a questionnaire with a manageable length. Respondents are less likely to complete questionnaires as the length of the instrument increases (Dillman, 2007). The questionnaire administration was most similar to mall intercepts and mail-based questionnaires. Yang (2007) suggests that mail-out questionnaires should take no longer than 15 minutes (147). Based on the researcher's experience, spectators are unlikely to invest more than 15 minutes to fill out a questionnaire at a game. This logistical restriction guided the development of items and scales for the final instrument.

During data collection in the U.S., respondents rarely rejected the researchers' requests for participation. A total of 222 questionnaires were collected at the three games.

During data collection in China, respondents also rarely rejected the researchers' requests for participation. A total of 670 questionnaires were collected at the five games. The sample size was intended to be larger in China because of the larger population in China compared to the United States.

Means-End Methodology

The nature of this study necessitated the adoption of a new methodology to measure means-end relationships. Because of the concerns previously addressed over qualitative laddering studies, a quantitative technique was deemed appropriate. However, previous quantitative instruments were not suitable for a study of basketball spectators. For example, Ter Hofstede et al. (1999a, 1999b) modeled food preferences with the Association Pattern Technique (APT), but the APT requires clear, concrete connections that were not appropriate in this study of sport consumers. The APT forces respondents to connect attributes with consequences and consequences with values, but these forced connections were not desired in this study. For this reason, a new quantitative approach was developed to model decision-making in the U.S. and China. A qualitative pilot study in the U.S. and a quantitative pilot study in China were conducted to determine the items for inclusion in the final study.

Pilot Studies

Two pilot studies were conducted to assist in the development of the conceptual model and the final instrument for this project. The first pilot study was an open-ended questionnaire (modified from Goldenberg et al., 2000), distributed to sport management students at North Carolina State University. A total of 49 respondents completed the questionnaire in December 2007. The students were asked to provide the reasons why they

watched their favorite sports. The results helped identify important focal attributes and expected consequences for the final instrument. The results also helped categorize the focal attributes and expected consequences of sporting events into appropriate levels of abstraction. It was not appropriate to describe the three successive levels of the pilot study as attributes, consequences and values because the individual respondents differed in their levels of abstraction. For example, one respondent may initially identify a more abstract reason for watching their favorite sport than another respondent. However, the results indicated that players, teams, competition, and action represented the more concrete features of sporting events because the students identified those features at earlier levels in their responses. Common motives like escape, vicarious achievement, and family interaction were considered to be more abstract elements of sporting events because they were cited at later levels. This confirmed that motives were appropriate as “expected consequences” in the means-end model.

The second pilot study was conducted with basketball spectators at four different CBA games during the 2007-08 season. The questionnaire consisted of behavioral questions, a team identification instrument, and questions related to motivations. A total of 622 spectators completed the pilot survey at the four games, and the results were then entered into SPSS. After analyzing the responses for missing values, 608 of the surveys (97.7%) were deemed suitable for analysis. The average age of the spectators was 24.38 years old (SD=7.34), and 82.8% of the respondents were male. Eleven motivational factors were selected for the pilot study, based on: their importance in previous studies; their hypothesized importance with Chinese consumers; and their hypothesized importance with basketball

spectators. The motives included: player achievement, team achievement, nationalism, facility, drama, business purposes, family entertainment, gambling, basketball skill development, escape, and social interaction. Reliability analysis showed that the Cronbach's alpha for all of the factors was below the cutoff value of 0.70. However, certain factors achieved the more lenient cutoff value of 0.60. The low reliability showed that there was a need for more stringent review of the items to be included on the final instrument. In particular, certain factors in the pilot study likely tested multiple constructs at the same time. This finding indicated a need for simple constructs that would translate easily in the final model. The results were used to assess the importance of specific motivational factors with Chinese consumers for inclusion in the final instrument. Because there were no previous studies on motivations with Chinese sports fans, the pilot study also tested whether particular motives possessed the same meaning with Chinese spectators as American spectators. Overall, this pilot study showed that certain factors needed to be reconceptualized for the final instrument, and back translation was needed to ensure equivalency in both Chinese and English languages. Finally, the high response rate of the pilot study proved that self-administered questionnaires were viable for data collection at Chinese sporting events.

Self-Administered Paper & Pencil Questionnaire

In the final study, self-administered questionnaires were used at the games to improve the likelihood that respondents included season ticket holders, single-game ticket purchasers, and multi-game ticket purchasers. The researchers also walked through different sections of the arena to gain access to spectators in different ticket pricing levels. In China, two researchers from a local university traveled to each of the five games and distributed paper-

and-pencil questionnaires to individuals in their seats. CBA respondents were provided with small gifts to encourage their participation. In the U.S., researchers asked spectators to complete surveys in their seats in different sections of the arena. The respondents were told that they would be entered into a drawing for autographed team merchandise to encourage their participation. Researchers then walked through the arena and collected the questionnaires.

Back translation was used to ensure that individual items on the questionnaire possessed the same meaning in both countries (Douglas & Craig, 2006). The researchers completed back translation according to Douglas and Craig's (2006) recommendations. A bilingual sport management graduate student at North Carolina State University translated the original English items into Chinese. A bilingual Chinese professor at North Carolina State University then translated the Chinese items back into English. The two versions were compared with each other, and corrections were made to ensure that the items possessed the same meaning in both languages. Finally, professors at Zhejiang University reviewed the Chinese translation with the English version of the survey. Minor corrections were made on the survey to reflect local nuances in that particular Chinese region. The results were tested for measurement invariance (Douglas & Craig, 2006; Garson, 2009b).

A concern with cross-cultural studies is the question of whether theories or constructs are appropriate in all cultures. Concepts are considered to be etic if they have the same meaning in both countries. However, concepts that are specific to an individual culture are considered to be emic (Douglas & Craig, 2006). In this particular study, the theory and constructs used as focal attributes and expected consequences were expected to be

appropriate for both Chinese and American consumers. Means-end theory has been used to explain cross-cultural consumer behavior, motivations have been used in international sport marketing studies, and the focal attributes were basic features that are present in both countries. For these reasons, the conceptual framework was considered etic. The framework was developed from American concepts but was expected to be relevant in different cultures. The researchers discussed the primary motivations of basketball fans with Chinese professors to ensure that the hypothesized constructs were relevant to Chinese fans. This process most closely resembles the adapted etic approach (Douglas & Craig, 2006). The adapted etic approach may remove concepts that are not appropriate cross-culturally, but does not typically add emic concepts for individual cultures. Because of the novelty of sport marketing research in China, this process helped in the identification of relevant constructs for the final model.

The constructs that were selected for focal attributes and expected consequences in the conceptual model represented basic elements of basketball games (the product choice) and motives for attending sporting events (the larger product category choice) respectively. The focal attributes are basic features related to professional basketball, so they should be relevant and possess the same meaning for spectators in both countries. The expected consequences were selected from existing motivation constructs, which previous researchers have tested internationally. The second pilot study results and a thorough review of the literature helped identify the motives that were most important and relevant to this particular study. In particular, the second pilot study results suggested certain sport motivation constructs that have been developed and validated in American studies (e.g. gambling) were

not relevant in China. This helped in the selection of factors for the conceptual model and development of items for this study. Chinese sport economics professors confirmed that the selected factors were appropriate for Chinese basketball spectators.

The questions for the focal attributes and expected consequences were divided into two respective sections. The items were then randomly presented in the questionnaire. The benefit of this procedure was to ensure that respondents read each question and did not mark the exact same response for each item. The disadvantage of mixing the items for separate constructs together was that certain respondents may have been confused by the transition from a question on one construct to a question on a different construct.

Measures

Values

Values were tested using the List of Values (LOV) and independent/interdependent self-construals. Alternative measures of values include the Rokeach Value Scale (RVS) and the Values, Attitudes, and Lifestyles Scale (VALS). However, Li et al. (2007) noted that the RVS was not designed for cross-cultural research. Also, the VALS scale was considered to be too complicated for inclusion in this study. Self-construals were selected as a measure of individualism and collectivism because they are more appropriate for consumer behavior studies, while Hofstede's individualism and collectivism dimensions are more appropriate for studies of organizational behavior. The two types of values included in this study were not redundant. The LOV represent a set of global values that are appropriate in cultures around the world. The individualism/collectivism dimension represents a single facet of culture that

researchers have used to describe China and the United States specifically. These two types of values provide unique perspectives on a culture.

List of Values

Kahle's LOV is the most relevant measure of values for consumer behavior (Kahle et al., 1986), and has been previously tested empirically with sport spectators (Kahle, Kambara, & Rose, 1996; Kahle et al., 2001). Researchers have shown that the LOV is effective in measuring values that result from lifestyles, consumption activities, and product preferences (Kim et al., 2002). The LOV relates more to individuals' daily lives than the RVS, and is also simpler to administer than the RVS (Kahle & Kennedy, 1988). A short list of values is preferred because adults can typically only hold 7 +/- 2 items in their short-term memory (Kahle & Kennedy, 1988).

The LOV has also been validated in large-scale cross-cultural applications (Beatty, Kahle, & Homer, 1991; Goldsmith, Freiden, & Kilsheimer, 1993; Kim et al., 2002). Researchers have used a number of different instruments to study the LOV (Kahle, 2000). The original LOV instrument simply asked respondents to select their most important values from the full set (Kahle, 1983). This nominal method allows for a comparison between samples, but more recent studies have also included an interval measure of the LOV as well (e.g. Kahle & Kennedy, 1988). The simpler nominal method was selected for this study for two reasons. First, values were used to verify that the consumers were members of unique cultures, but values were not the focus of this study. Second, concerns over the length of the questionnaire by the researcher and the basketball franchises precluded the addition of multiple items for each value. The eight values in the instrument included: self-respect,

security, warm relationships with others, sense of accomplishment, self-fulfillment, being well-respected, sense of belonging, and fun & enjoyment in life. Although there are limitations with only asking respondents to select their most important value, this is an accepted method in identifying values in the LOV. Kahle's original LOV study asked individuals to select their first and second most important values from the LOV (Kahle, 1983; Kahle et al., 1988), and subsequent LOV studies asked individuals to identify their most important value in addition to rating each value separately. Kahle et al. (1988) compared the values of American men and women longitudinally by analyzing the frequency of most important values selected in 1976 and 1986. This particular method is most useful in making cross-cultural comparisons because of its invariance (in contrast to Likert-type ratings). In fact, Kahle et al. (1999) used frequencies to compare the LOV for consumers around the world in their cross-cultural comparison of values.

Individualism & Collectivism

In addition to the LOV, a separate instrument measured basketball spectators in both countries on the dimensions of individualism and collectivism. Researchers have applied an extensive array of instruments to measure individualism and collectivism (Oyserman et al., 2002). However, the dimensions in this study were only used to determine if China and the U.S. represented different cultures. For this reason, a large instrument was not feasible. The items were adapted from the work of Triandis and Gelfand (1998), which incorporated Singelis's (1994) conceptualization of self-construals. Four items were selected to represent the individualism dimension, and four items were selected to represent the collectivism dimension.

The individualism and collectivism items were included as a specific measure of cultural difference, rather than the general values associated with the LOV. Classification into distinct dimensions would provide further evidence that China and the U.S. represent unique cultures. Previous research indicates that consumers in the U.S. are highly individualistic while consumers in China are highly collectivistic (Wang et al., 2000; Triandis, 2001; Sun et al., 2004). In fact, Oyserman et al. (2002) suggested that being an individualist is a “quintessentially American thing.” Western societies have typically promoted individual choice, personal freedom, and self-actualization. On the other hand, Eastern societies often embrace collectivism, which suggests that groups bind and mutually obligate citizens.

Singelis (1994) developed a Self-Construal Scale (SCS) to measure independent and interdependent self-construals. He proposed that individuals in Western countries possess independent views of the self, while individuals in Eastern countries possess interdependent views of the self. An independent view is representative of an individualist culture, while an interdependent view is representative of a collectivist culture. In order to compare consumers in the two countries, eight items were selected and modified from the SCS. Four of the items represented independent self-construal, while four of the items represented interdependent self-construal. Independence and interdependence should not be considered bipolar dimensions, as individuals possess elements of both self-construals. However, certain consumers may embrace one dimension more than the other. Therefore cultural groups may be classified along a continuum with interdependence and independence on the two poles (Singelis, 1994). The eight items selected for the instrument appear in Table 3.1.

Table 3.1

Items Measuring Independent/Interdependent Self-Construal

Factor	Symbol	Item
Interdependent Self-Construal (Collectivism)	COLLEC1	My happiness depends on the happiness of those around me
	COLLEC2	It is important that my actions are consistent with those around me
	COLLEC3	It is important for me to respect decisions made by those around me
	COLLEC4	I believe that collective accomplishments are more important than my own accomplishments
Independent Self-Construal (Individualism)	INDIV1	I enjoy being unique and different from others
	INDIV2	My personal identity, independent of others, is very important to me
	INDIV3	I am comfortable with being singled out for praise or rewards
	INDIV4	I prefer to be direct and forthright when dealing with people I've just met

Focal Attributes

The focal attributes in this study refer to choices made at the product level. In this case, the product that consumers selected was *attendance at a basketball game*. For this reason, the focal attributes referred to consumers' choices for attending basketball games over other sporting events. These focal attributes in the study represent the most concrete features of basketball games. The factors were developed after analyzing the results of the two pilot studies and conducting a thorough review in the sport marketing literature.

In particular, a number of constructs were eliminated from the final instrument because of concerns over multicollinearity or because they were deemed less important than other factors. For example, although action was mentioned as one of the top constructs in the qualitative pilot study, action was eliminated because it was too similar to the construct for *Interest in Basketball*. A construct for the facility was also eliminated because it was deemed less important than the other focal attributes included in the model.

The four focal attributes, which have been validated in other studies, included: *Interest in Basketball* ("the sport": Funk et al., 2001, 2002, 2004; Mahony et al., 2002, Kerr & Gladden, 2008), *Interest in Team* (Funk et al., 2001, 2002, 2004; James & Ross, 2004; Kerr & Gladden, 2008), *Interest in Players* (Funk et al., 2001, 2002, 2004; Mahony et al., 2002; Funk & James, 2004; Kerr & Gladden, 2008), and *Entertainment* (Wann, 1995; Funk et al., 2002). Potential items were developed for each of the focal attributes. A panel of three sport management experts was then provided with the list of potential items for each of the focal attribute constructs. Each expert selected the items that they believed were the best for each construct, and also provided feedback on the overall instrument. Items were then

selected for each construct. The items for each focal attribute appear in Table 3.2. The questions were scored on a 5-point Likert-type scale anchored with 1 (“Strongly agree”) and 5 (“Strongly disagree”). Respondents were instructed to complete the items with respect to all of the basketball games that they attend in person. The constructs were then tested for internal consistency. The items were reverse-scored during the data analysis.

Table 3.2

Items Measuring Focal Attributes

Focal Attribute	Symbol	Items
Interest in Basketball	BBALL1	I am a huge fan of basketball in general
	BBALL2	I enjoy watching games because I love basketball
Interest in Team	TEAM1	I enjoy watching basketball because of the teams playing in the game
	TEAM2	I attend games when I am interested in one of the teams playing
	TEAM3	The team is an important factor when I decide to attend basketball games
Interest in Players	PLAYERS1	There are certain players that make me want to attend basketball games
	PLAYERS2	I attend games when there's a player I want to see playing
Entertainment	ENTER1	I want to see more entertainment than just basketball when I watch games
	ENTER2	I enjoy basketball games because there is a lot of entertainment besides the sport

Expected Consequences

Expected consequences in this study refer to choices made at the category level. There are a large number of choices available for consumers in a category, so items were constructed in a more general manner than focal attribute items. In this study, the category choice was considered to be *attendance at sporting events*. At this level of choice, consumers select sporting events over alternative activities (e.g. entertainment) that might also satisfy their important values. The expected consequence constructs were adapted from the extensive body of literature in sport motivations, and refined after the two pilot studies. These expected consequences were selected because of their hypothesized relationship with the focal attributes: a sport spectator chooses to watch a game because he/she believes the focal attributes will satisfy expected consequences, which in turn satisfy a consumer's most important values. Although there are a large number of motives that influence sport consumption, it was not feasible to include an exhaustive list of motives in the final instrument because of concerns over questionnaire length. Funk et al. (2001) suggested that researchers should include motives that are specific to the context of the study. Therefore, the constructs were evaluated and selected because of their hypothesized importance to sports spectators in China and the U.S.

All of the consequences selected for this study have been validated as motives in previous literature. They included: *Vicarious Achievement* (Wann, 1995; Funk et al., 2001; Trail & James, 2001), *Social Interaction* (Wann, 1995; Funk et al., 2001; Trail & James, 2001), *Community Pride* (Funk & James, 2004), *Family Interaction* (Trail & James, 2001; James & Ridinger, 2002; James & Ross, 2004) *Nationalism* (Funk et al., 2002), and *Drama*

(Wann, 1995; Funk et al., 2001; Trail & James, 2001; Mahony et al., 2002). Individual items were developed for each of the expected consequence constructs. A panel of sport management experts helped in the selection of the final individual items for each of the six constructs. The experts were provided with a list of items for each construct and selected the items that they believed to be the best for each one. Based on their recommendations, items were selected for each construct. The questions were scored on a 5-point Likert-type scale anchored with 1 (“Strongly agree”) and 5 (“Strongly disagree”). The individual items for expected consequences appear in Table 3.3. Respondents were instructed to complete the items with respect to all of the sporting events that they watch. The items were reverse-scored during the data analysis.

Table 3.3

Items Measuring Expected Consequences

Expected Consequence	Symbol	Items
Vicarious Achievement	VIC1	I prefer to watch teams and players that are successful
	VIC2	I feel like I have won when my favorite team or player wins
	VIC3	I enjoy sporting events more when my favorite team or player does well
Community Pride	COMM1	I prefer to watch sporting events that involve local players and teams
	COMM2	Watching sports allows me to feel like I'm a part of the community
	COMM3	Sporting events are a great way to show my support for the local community
Social Interaction	SOCIAL1	Interacting with other fans is a very important part of watching sporting events
	SOCIAL2	Sporting events provide great opportunities to socialize with other people
	SOCIAL3	I enjoy watching sports because they allow me to spend time with my friends

Table 3.3 Continued

Family Interaction	FAMILY1	I enjoy watching sports because they are a good family activity
	FAMILY2	An important reason why I attend sporting events is to spend time with my family
	FAMILY3	Sporting events are a great way for my family to spend time together
Nationalism	NAT1	I enjoy watching sports because I can cheer for my home country
	NAT2	Watching sports is a great way to show my patriotism
	NAT3	Sports allow me to show support for my country
Drama	DRAMA1	A game is more enjoyable to me when the outcome is not decided until the very end
	DRAMA2	An important reason why I go to games is the excitement of two teams “battling” to the end
	DRAMA3	I enjoy watching games that I think will be close

Behavioral Intentions

Behavioral intentions measure the intent of an individual to consume a product or service. Certain focal attributes or expected consequences may predict behavioral intentions. There may also be differences in the relationship between the means-end constructs and behavioral intentions in the two cultures. For this reason, the study also analyzed the behavioral intentions of basketball spectators in both China and the U.S.

Liu, Furrer, and Sudharshan (2001) studied the relationship between culture and behavioral intentions for services. Liu et al. found that there were differences in the intentions between consumers from individualistic countries and collectivistic countries. Lee and Green (1991) also compared behavioral intentions between consumers from an individualistic country (United States) and a collectivistic country (Korea). Korean consumers and American consumers exhibited differences in the formation of their behavioral intentions for the same product. Lee and Green believed that the social pressures of group conformity and face-saving in the collectivist culture may have produced these results. Social norms were more important to the purchase intentions of Koreans, while personal attitudes were more important to the purchase intentions of Americans.

Four items were developed to measure the behavioral intentions of professional basketball spectators. These items analyzed expected game attendance for the current season and the next season, expected merchandise consumption, and intent to recommend the purchase of tickets to family and friends. After reviewing Ajzen's (1991) guidelines in the Theory of Planned Behavior (Chan & Lau, 1998), as well as Cunningham and Kwon's (2003) intentions related specifically to sporting events, four items were developed to

measure intentions. These items were scored on a 5-point Likert-type scale anchored with 1 (“Strongly agree”) and 5 (“Strongly disagree”). The items used in the instrument appear in Table 3.4. The items were reverse-scored during the data analysis.

Table 3.4

Items Measuring Behavioral Intentions

Sample	Symbol	Items
China (CBA)	INTENT1	I plan to attend more CBA games this season
	INTENT2	I plan to attend more CBA games next season
	INTENT3	I plan to recommend that friends and family attend CBA games
	INTENT4	I plan to purchase CBA merchandise
United States (NBA)	INTENT1	I plan to attend more NBA games this season
	INTENT2	I plan to attend more NBA games next season
	INTENT3	I plan to recommend that friends and family attend NBA games
	INTENT4	I plan to purchase NBA merchandise

Method of Data Analysis

Internal Consistency

The internal consistency for all of the constructs in this study was measured with composite reliability. While studies have traditionally reported Cronbach's Alpha as a measure of internal consistency, recent researchers have suggested that composite reliability is a stronger measure of reliability for constructs (e.g. Garson, 2009a). Cronbach's Alpha is highly sensitive to sample size, so reliability estimates may be skewed by small or large samples. This was a concern in this study because the researchers attempted to target a larger sample of Chinese spectators in order to reflect the differences between the American and Chinese populations. Composite reliability provided a more accurate measure of internal consistency for comparing the two samples. All results in this study reported composite reliability to measure internal consistency.

A more conservative cutoff value of 0.60 was selected because of the exploratory nature of this study. The constructs in this study were adapted to fit basketball spectators and means-end theory, so they had not been tested empirically in previous studies. Motivation constructs had also never been tested in China before this study. Bagozzi and Yi (1988) and Barclay, Higgins, and Thompson (1995) both stated that a cutoff level of 0.60 was suitable for internal consistency in exploratory studies.

List of Values

After collecting the surveys, the data was entered into a data file and analyzed in SPSS. For the first step in the analysis, values in the two countries were compared. The top selections from the LOV were determined for consumers in each country. Because values

were collected on a nominal scale, the frequencies were analyzed to determine if there was a difference in the particular values that consumers believed were most important in each country (Kahle et al., 1988). A chi-square test was used to compare the distribution of values in the two countries. If unique values were selected as the most important in each country, this would provide evidence that China and the United States represent two distinct cultures.

Individualism & Collectivism

The individualism and collectivism dimensions were tested through ratings of independent and interdependent self-construals. Four items were used for both independent and interdependent self-construals, and the constructs were first tested for internal consistency. The constructs were also tested for cross-national measurement invariance. After confirming their reliability and equivalence, a composite mean value was calculated for both individualism and collectivism for China and the U.S. The latent mean structure was compared for the individualism and collectivism dimensions in the two countries. Significant differences would provide further evidence that China and the United States represent two distinct cultures.

Structural Equation Modeling

Structural equation modeling (SEM) was used to model the expected consequence→focal attribute paths for consumers in each of the two countries. SEM tested the consistency of the individual constructs and the relationships between those constructs. SEM is a confirmatory method of analysis, which tests the relationships between exogenous and endogenous latent variables (Byrne, 2001). SEM assumes that causal processes can be represented by a series of structural equations, and the structural equations can be modeled

graphically (Byrne, 2001). SEM is more powerful than multiple regression, path analysis, factor analysis, time series analysis, and ANCOVA, but requires a large representative sample of respondents (Garson, 2009b).

Modeling involves a two-part process. The first part validates the measurement model, while the second part fits the structural model to the data (Garson, 2009b). Because specific relationships were hypothesized between the expected consequences and attributes in the means-end model, confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) was appropriate in this study. However, a number of constructs were reconceptualized for this study, and none of the constructs had been validated before in China. For this reason, before conducting CFA, exploratory factor analysis (EFA) was used to examine the factor structure for focal attributes and expected consequences in both countries. The EFA results may show that certain constructs are not suitable in each country or if specific items are not strong indicators for a construct. There may be differences in the factor structure between the American and Chinese samples.

The first step involved an EFA with Varimax rotation for focal attributes in the United States. Based on the results of the EFA, modifications were only made to the constructs if there was a logical reason for the change. This included eliminating constructs with weak internal consistency. Items with poor loadings were also eliminated from the measurement model.

After making adjustments to the hypothesized model, the CFA then tested the internal consistency of the indicator variables on their latent constructs. The next step involved testing the goodness of fit for the measurement models. The CFA showed the goodness of fit

for the model as well as the individual constructs. Constructs with poor internal consistency and indicator variables with weak factor loadings were eliminated from the model. After confirming the focal attributes measurement model in the United States, the process was repeated for the expected consequences in the American sample. Then the entire process was repeated for the focal attribute and expected consequence measurement models in China. The goodness of fit was examined for all four measurement models.

Measurement Invariance

In order to conduct cross-cultural comparisons, there must be measurement invariance across cultures. The constructs must contain identical indicators and the factor structure must not differ between the Chinese and American samples. All cross-cultural comparisons in this study required measurement invariance for the constructs.

First of all, it was necessary to test that the focal attribute and consequence constructs were equivalent in both countries. Constructs must contain the same indicators and similar factor loadings on those indicators. Calibration and translation equivalence were ensured through back-translation and the use of a Likert-type scale in the instrument (Mullen, 1995). Douglas and Craig (1983) state that factors should have similar loadings to ensure that the factors are measuring the same construct in both countries.

If unique measurement models are constructed for the two samples, then it will be necessary to develop a “comparison model” that is identical for both the American and Chinese samples. This model will include identical constructs and indicators that are internally consistent in both cultures. CFA will confirm that the constructs show internal consistency for the focal attributes and expected consequences. Goodness of fit may not be as

strong as the unique measurement models, but the comparison model will permit cross-cultural comparisons.

After verifying the internal consistency of the comparison model, it was necessary to confirm the measurement equivalence of the focal attributes and expected consequences. Multiple group structural equation modeling is now accepted for assessing measurement equivalence across cultures in marketing research (Myers, Calantone, Page, & Taylor, 2000).

The multi-group analysis followed the recommendations of Mullen (1995), Steenkamp and Baumgartner (1998), Myers et al. (2000), and Garson (2009b). No constraints are imposed across the groups in order to test configural invariance (Myers et al., 2000). This tests whether the structure of factor loadings is equivalent in both countries (Steenkamp & Baumgartner, 1998). A chi-square difference test evaluated the fit (Myers et al., 2000). Next, factor loadings were constrained to be equal in both groups in order to test metric equivalence (Myers et al., 2000).

Although there are more stringent tests available to validate measurement equivalence, Garson (2009b) states that it is customary to verify invariance by constraining measurement weights and testing for differences. A chi-square test compared the unconstrained model with the model in which factor loadings were constrained to be equal across groups. Goodness of fit tests were also used to evaluate the constrained model. If the chi-square value was not significant, then it was assumed that the two measurement models were invariant cross-culturally. If the chi-square value was significant, then this showed that the models were not significantly different. In this case, the indicator variables must be tested individually through manual constraint-setting (Garson, 2009b). This determines the specific

items that are causing the non-invariance. In this test, factor loadings for one indicator variable are constrained to be equal. A chi-square test is applied, and if the value is not significant, it is assumed that the item does not differ cross-culturally. If the chi-square value is significant, then it is assumed that the indicator variables differ significantly in the two cultures. Each indicator variable was tested, and indicators with significant differences were dropped from the “comparison” model. Goodness of fit tests were then used to evaluate the fit of the “comparison” models in both countries.

Measurement invariance was evaluated for the focal attributes and expected consequences models. Measurement invariance was also evaluated for the individualism and collectivism constructs, as well as the behavioral intentions construct. If non-invariance was detected, individual items were evaluated. The model was then adjusted to and tested again for measurement invariance.

Mean Structure Analysis

A comparison of means in cross-cultural studies may be misleading because of sensitivities to cultural response bias (Mullen, 1995). For this reason, latent mean structure of constructs is only possible once a model is confirmed to be invariant across cultures. Mean structure comparisons test for differences between the means of latent constructs. The factor loadings were constrained equal in both groups, which ensured that the comparison was evaluating the same construct in China and the U.S. (Garson, 2009b). The test revealed if there was a significant difference between the latent means between the two countries. The latent mean structure was compared for each of the focal attribute and expected consequence

constructs in the Chinese and American samples. This showed whether basketball spectators believed that specific constructs were more important in one of the countries.

Structural Analysis

SEM reveals significant relationships, but it also shows the relationships that are not important to consumers. This ability to show both types of relationships was a key factor in the selection of SEM for analysis of means-end chains in this study. In this way, SEM may offer modeling advantages over the qualitative laddering methodology (Frauman & Cunningham, 2001). After confirming the invariance and goodness of fit for the measurement model, the structural models were tested in the two national samples. The structural models show the direct effects between the latent factors. Significant paths between coefficients indicated strong relationships between those constructs. The expected consequence→focal attribute paths were estimated within each country and compared between countries. Regression analysis tested the strength of the path coefficients. Specific structural coefficients were significant in both countries, while other coefficients were significant in only one country. These significant paths provided evidence of globalized preferences.

A number of relationships between the attributes and consequences were described in Chapter 3. These paths were included in an initial structural model in both countries. The goodness of fit was tested for this initial hypothesized model in each country separately. Paths were only removed from the model if they were not significant in both countries. The unstandardized path coefficients were compared for the two samples (Garson, 2009b). The

comparison of unstandardized weights showed whether specific paths were strong in one or both of the countries.

Behavioral Intentions

Four items were used to measure the behavioral intentions of professional basketball spectators. The items were first tested for internal consistency to ensure that they adequately measured the construct of behavioral intentions. The construct was then tested for cross-national measurement invariance. After confirming the reliability and equivalence in both countries, a composite mean score was calculated for overall intentions in both countries. The latent mean structure was then compared for the Chinese and American samples. A significant difference showed that spectators in the two cultures differ in their intentions to consume basketball in the future.

The behavioral intentions construct was then added as an endogenous construct from the focal attributes. Structural equation modeling was used to test for significant paths between focal attributes and behavioral intentions in the two cultures. The paths for the Chinese sample were then compared with the American sample. The results revealed the attributes that best predicted behavioral intentions for spectators in both countries.

Goodness of Fit Testing

The goodness of fit was tested for the measurement models and structural models in this study. Chi-square test statistic (χ^2), relative chi-square (χ^2/df), root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA), comparative fit index (CFI), Tucker-Lewis Index (TLI), and Standardized root mean square error residual (SRMR) were all examined (Garson, 2009b).

Chi-square shows the magnitude of discrepancy between the sample and fitted covariance matrices (Hu & Bentler, 1999). Lower values are indicative of good model fit, but significant values indicate poor fit for a model. However, chi-square depends heavily on sample size. Chi-square is also prone to Type II error, so researchers often use other measures for goodness of fit (Garson, 2009b). Relative chi-square (chi-square/degrees of freedom) adjusts for the effect of sample size. Kline (2005) believes that relative chi-square values below 3.0 are indicative of good model fit. Other researchers suggest that values below 2.0 show excellent model fit (Ullman, 2007, p. 715; Garson, 2009b).

Root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA) shows discrepancy per degrees of freedom (Garson, 2009b) RMSEA takes into account the number of parameters included in the model (Byrne, 2001). Hu and Bentler (1999) believe that values below .06 show good fit and MacCallum, Browne, and Sugawara (1996) believe that values between .08 and .10 show mediocre fit. RMSEA is less affected by sample size than other measures (Garson, 2009b). RMSEA values greater than .10 indicate that the model is a poor fit (Kline, 2005).

Standardized root mean square residual (SRMR) is a measure of the average distance between predicted and observed variances and covariances in the model (Garson, 2009b). Smaller values of SRMR indicate good fit. Similar to RMSEA, values below .08 show adequate fit while values below .05 show good fit (Garson, 2009b). Kline (2005) believes that SRMR values below .10 are “favorable” (p. 141).

The comparative fit index (CFI) compares the current model with a null model in which all of the latent variables are uncorrelated (Garson, 2009b). A CFI value greater than

0.90 indicates good model fit (Kline, 2005). Hu & Bentler (1999) suggest that CFI values greater than 0.95 shows good fit and low incidence of Type II error rates.

The Tucker-Lewis Index (TLI), which is also called the non-normed fit Index (NNFI), is an incremental measure that compares the current model with the baseline model (Hu & Bentler, 1999). The measure is similar to the Normed Fit Index (NFI), but penalizes for model complexity (Garson, 2009b). TLI values should be greater than 0.95 (Hu & Bentler, 1999).

Summary

The participants in the study included spectators at professional basketball games in China and the United States. This ensured that the Chinese respondents and American respondents were consumers of the same product in both countries. The procedures section included a description of the study design, the means-end methodology, the two pilot studies, and the final self-administered paper and pencil questionnaire.

The instrument was described in the measures section. A new quantitative instrument was developed to measure the means-end paths between focal attributes and expected consequences. The items were phrased to illustrate the relationship between choices at the product level (focal attributes) and product category level (expected consequences). Consumer values, individualism and collectivism, and behavioral intentions were also measured in the study. Kahle's LOV, Singelis's independent and interdependent self-construals, and Ajzen's theory of planned behavior were all used in the creation of these items.

The first step of data analysis was to test that the Chinese and American samples represented contrasting cultures. The LOV items were compared for basketball spectators in the two countries. Latent mean structure analysis was used to test for differences on individualism and collectivism. Structural equation modeling was then used as the primary method of data analysis to model the means-end chains. An EFA and CFA produced the best-fitting measurement model for the Chinese and American samples. Measurement invariance was then tested for the measurement models. Adjustments were made to the model to ensure that a “comparison model” was invariant across countries. This allowed for testing of latent mean structure and paths between the attributes and consequences. The differences between the mean structure and the attribute→consequence paths provided evidence of similarities and differences between the two countries. The behavioral intentions construct was then added to the full structural model. This showed the specific focal attributes that significantly affected behavioral intentions. The summary of results appears in Chapter 4.

CHAPTER 4: RESULTS

This research project compared basketball spectators in the United States and China. Based on the research questions and cross-cultural nature of the study, a new methodology was developed and tested. The instrument was administered at professional basketball games in the two countries. The measurement model was tested independently with the samples in the two countries. The model was then tested for measurement invariance. The results include a summary of demographic data, and the quantitative data will be presented in the sequence of the five research questions.

Demographic Summary

Demographic variables were collected for basketball spectators in both countries. These items included: age, gender, estimated yearly household income, and the type of ticket purchased. With the exception of ticket type, all of the questions were open-ended. A descriptive table of the responses for the American spectators appears in Table 4.1. A categorical table of the responses for the Chinese spectators appears in Table 4.2. The American sample was older ($M = 36.8$, $SD = 15.4$) and wealthier ($M = \$114,000$, $SD = \$215,000$) than the Chinese sample (age: $M = 28.8$, $SD = 9.6$; income: $M = \$3,292.83$, $SD = \$8,000.00$). ($\$1US = ¥6.83$ as of May 18, 2009). The gender and ticketholder type of spectators were similar in the two countries.

Table 4.1

Demographic Summary of Participants Completing the Questionnaire (U.S. Sample)

Demographic Variables	Frequency	Percentages
Age (n = 192)		
Under 25	48	25.0
25-34	50	26.0
35-44	25	13.0
45-54	40	20.8
55-64	22	11.5
65 & older	7	3.6
Gender (n = 192)		
Male	126	65.6
Female	66	34.4
Household Income (n = 117)		
\$50,000 & under	40	34.2
\$50,001 – 75,000	14	12.0
\$75,001 – 100,000	30	25.6
\$100,001 – 125,000	9	7.7
\$125,001 – 150,000	7	6.0

Table 4.1 Continued

Ticket Holder Type (n = 166)		
Season	60	31.4
Multi-pack	7	3.7
Single Game	76	39.8
Complimentary	23	12.0

Table 4.2

Demographic Summary of Participants Completing the Questionnaire (Chinese Sample)

Demographic Variables	Frequency	Percentages
Age (n = 587)		
Under 25	222	37.8
25-34	217	37.0
35-44	94	16.0
45-54	46	7.8
55 & older	8	1.4
Gender (n = 660)		
Male	436	68.8
Female	198	31.2

Table 4.2 Continued

Household Income (n = 302)		
¥7,500 & under	69	22.8
¥7,501 – 15,000	149	49.3
¥15,001 – 22,500	35	11.6
¥22,501 – 30,000	16	5.3
More than ¥30,000	33	10.9
Ticket Holder Type (n = 594)		
Season	126	21.2
Multi-Pack	41	6.9
Single Game	279	47.0
Complimentary	148	24.9

Data Analysis for Research Question One

The first research question asked whether the two samples represented distinct cultures. The LOV and individualism/collectivism dimensions were used to determine if there were cultural differences between spectators in China and the U.S. Basketball spectators were asked to select the most important value from Kahle's LOV (Kahle et al., 1986) in both countries. The distribution and frequencies of the LOV in both countries appear in Table 4.3. In the American sample, fun and enjoyment in life was the most

important value, followed by warm relationships with others and self-respect. In the Chinese sample, fun and enjoyment in life was the most important value, followed by self-respect and self-fulfillment. Although it was hypothesized that the two samples would show differences on the LOV, the selection of values showed that the Chinese and American spectators exhibited more similarities than differences. A chi-square test of homogeneity revealed that the two countries did not differ significantly on their selection of values from the LOV ($\chi^2 = 7.01, p = .43$). Therefore, it was concluded that basketball spectators in the two countries embrace similar values from the LOV.

The spectators also completed an 8-item self-construal instrument. Four of the items were hypothesized to represent individualism (independent self-construal), while four of the items were hypothesized to represent collectivism (interdependent self-construal). Regression imputation was used to replace missing values in both samples. In order to ensure that the constructs were appropriate for cross-cultural comparisons, they were first tested for measurement invariance. The individualism construct was tested first. A chi-square test was used to compare the unconstrained model with a model in which the factor loadings for individual items were constrained to be equal (Table 4.4). The chi-square test showed that the difference was not significant ($\chi^2 = 1.53, p > .05$), so the individualism construct was determined to be invariant across cultures.

The collectivism construct was then tested for measurement invariance (Table 4.5). A chi-square test showed that there was a significant difference between the unconstrained model and the model with factor loadings constrained to be equal ($\chi^2 = 6.03, p < .05$). Because of similar wording between items, the disturbance terms were freed between

COLLEC1 and COLLEC3 because of similar wording. The unconstrained model did not differ significantly from the model with factor loadings constrained to be equal ($\chi^2 = 1.89, p > .05$). The non-significant difference showed that the adjusted collectivism construct was invariant across cultures.

After confirming measurement invariance, CFA was used to test the internal consistency of the individualism and collectivism constructs in both countries. In the U.S., composite reliability for the individualism construct was 0.69 and reliability for the collectivism construct was 0.61. Reliability exceeded the cutoff value of 0.60, which was selected because of the exploratory nature of the study. In China, composite reliability for the individualism construct was 0.73 and reliability for the collectivism construct was 0.67 (Table 4.6). The factor loadings were all strong for the indicators on their hypothesized constructs (Figures 4.1 and 4.2).

Mean structure analysis was used to test for differences on the individualism and collectivism constructs between the American and Chinese samples. Because the constructs were invariant, the means could be compared between the two countries. Factor loadings were constrained to be equal in the Chinese and American groups, which ensured that the measurement model functioned the same way in both groups (Garson, 2009b.). The latent mean score for individualism was significantly higher for the American sample than the Chinese sample (Table 4.7). The latent mean score for collectivism was significantly higher for the Chinese sample than the American sample (Table 4.7). This showed that Chinese basketball spectators are more collectivistic than American spectators, while American spectators are more individualistic than Chinese spectators. This also confirmed that the

American and Chinese samples represent unique cultures that are suitable for cross-cultural comparisons.

Table 4.3

Distribution & Frequencies for List of Values (n = 181 for U.S.; n = 466 for China)

LOV Item	U.S. Frequency	U.S. Participants	China Frequency	China Participants
Self-respect	18.8	34	16.3	76
Security	2.2	4	3.0	14
Warm Relationship with Others	21.0	38	14.4	67
Sense of Accomplishment	8.3	15	9.7	45
Self-fulfillment	9.9	18	13.9	65
Being well-respected	3.9	7	5.6	26
Sense of Belonging	1.7	3	1.9	9
Fun & Enjoyment in Life	34.3	62	35.2	164

Table 4.4

Invariance Test of Individualism (Independent Self-Construals) by Country

Model	df	Δ df	χ^2	$\Delta\chi^2$	χ^2/df	RMSEA	TLI	CFI
Unconstrained	4	--	6.94	--	1.74	.029	.985	.995
Fix Factor Loadings	7	3	8.47	1.53*	1.21	.016	.996	.998

Note. RMSEA = Root Mean Square Error of Approximation; TLI = Tucker-Lewis Index; CFI = Comparative Fit Index.

* $p > .05$

Table 4.5

Invariance Test of Collectivism (Interdependent Self-Construals) by Country

Model	df	Δ df	χ^2	$\Delta\chi^2$	χ^2/df	RMSEA	TLI	CFI
Unconstrained	4	--	8.55	--	2.14	.028	.971	.990
Fix Factor Loadings	7	3	14.58	6.03	2.08	.041	.972	.984
Adjusted – Unconstrained	2	--	4.76	--	2.38	.040	.965	.994
Adjusted – Fix Factor Loadings	5	3	6.65	1.89*	1.33	.020	.992	.997

Note. RMSEA = Root Mean Square Error of Approximation; TLI = Tucker-Lewis Index; CFI = Comparative Fit Index.

* $p > .05$

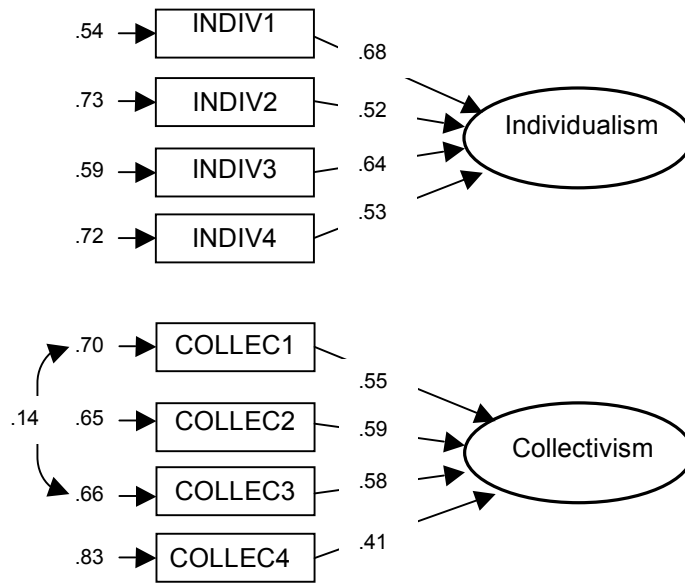


Figure 4.1. Individualism and Collectivism Constructs (USA)

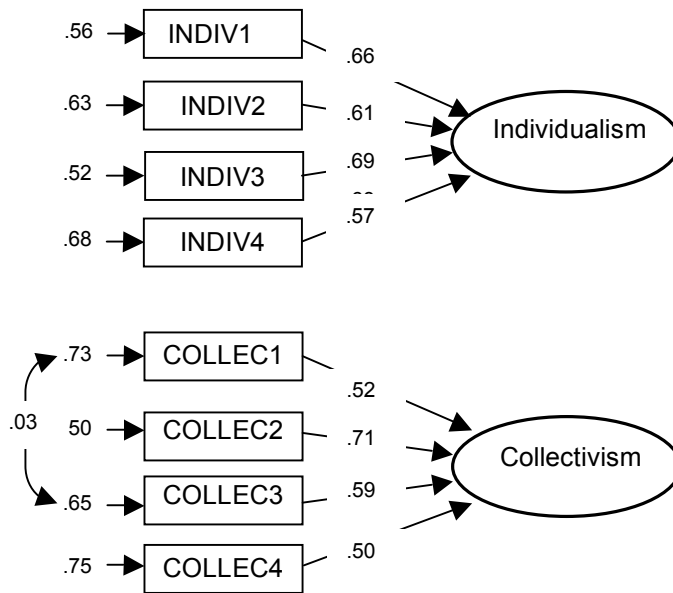


Figure 4.2. Individualism and Collectivism Constructs (China)

Table 4.6

Individual Items for Individualism & Collectivism Constructs (U.S. sample)

Construct and Item	U.S. M	U.S. SD	U.S. CR	China M	China SD	China CR
Independent Self-Construal (Individualism)	3.92		0.69	3.63		0.73
I enjoy being unique and different from others	3.99	0.80		3.59	0.94	
I prefer to be direct and forthright with people I've just met	3.75	0.79		3.57	0.96	
My personal identity, independent of others, is very important to me	4.13	0.73		3.65	0.94	
I am comfortable with being singled out for praise or rewards	3.80	0.94		3.70	1.05	
Interdependent Self-Construal (Collectivism)	3.65		0.61	4.19		0.67
My happiness depends on the happiness of those around me	3.61	1.11		4.12	0.91	
It is important for me to respect decisions made by those around me	3.92	0.80		4.25	0.81	
It is important that my actions are consistent with those around me	3.25	1.08		3.88	0.91	
I believe that collective accomplishments are more important than my own accomplishments	3.83	0.83		4.49	0.75	

Note. M = Mean; SD = Standard Deviation; CR = Composite Reliability

Table 4.7

Latent Mean Structure Analysis for Individualism & Collectivism

Latent Construct	Larger Mean	Difference	SE
Individualism	United States	0.356**	0.053
Collectivism	China	0.526**	0.063

Note. ** $p < .01$

Development of an American Measurement Model

After verifying the cultural differences, cross-cultural comparisons could be conducted for the two samples. The assumptions for structural equation modeling were first tested for both the American sample and Chinese sample separately. For each sample, it was necessary to check if the hypothesized measurement model showed good fit. If the hypothesized measurement model failed to show good fit, post-hoc adjustments were made. Maximum likelihood estimation (MLE) was used to estimate coefficients in the model.

Testing of Assumptions

Structural equation modeling (SEM) was conducted with Amos 16.0. A number of assumptions were first tested before conducting the analysis. First of all, sample size needs to be sufficiently large to conduct SEM. There is no consensus on the minimum sample size for SEM, but the sample should include at least 150 respondents. In fact, Garson (2009b) and Kline (2005) recommend a minimum sample of 200 for conducting SEM because measures overestimate goodness of fit with sample sizes below 200.

The data were first scanned for missing values because SEM cannot be performed with any missing values in the sample. Because the focal attributes and expected consequences were used for all further research questions, these variables were scanned for missing values. Listwise deletion or data imputation may be used. Values may be imputed using regression or the mean of other variables hypothesized to load on the same construct. A total of 222 questionnaires were collected in the U.S. After reviewing the questionnaires, 21 cases were removed from the American sample because they were missing more than 20% of the items in the questionnaire. This resulted in a sample with 201 usable cases. In order to preserve the sample size in the American data, the remaining missing values were imputed. Regression imputation was selected because the use of means lowers the variances of the variables in the model (Garson, 2009b). Therefore, the final American sample included 201 cases, which exceeded the minimum required to conduct structural analysis (Garson, 2009b; Kline, 2005).

In addition, data must exhibit a normal distribution for structural equation modeling. The indicator variables were checked for skewness and kurtosis. Skewness measures the degree that data are distributed toward one side of the normal curve, while kurtosis measures the degree that a data distribution is peaked or flat. A common rule for normality is that skewness and kurtosis for each variable should be within a range of +/- 2.0 (Schumaker & Lomax, 2004: 69; Garson, 2009b).

The means, standard deviations, skewness, and kurtosis were analyzed for each of the indicator variables in the focal attribute and expected consequence constructs (Table 4.8). In each of the tables in this chapter, abbreviations are used for the individual items. A full list of

the items and their abbreviations appeared in Chapter 3. A review of the histograms for each of the 30 items showed that they appeared to be normally distributed. The skewness statistics for all of the focal attribute and expected consequence items were within the recommended range of ± 2.0 . Kurtosis was also within the recommended range of ± 2.0 for each of the focal attribute items in the American sample. Three of the expected consequence items exhibited kurtosis above 2.0, but the kurtosis values were still relatively low for those items. Kurtosis was likely higher for these items because American spectators reported high ratings for both vicarious achievement and drama. It was concluded that the attributes and consequences exhibited a normal distribution for the American sample.

Table 4.8

Means, Standard Deviations, Skewness, and Kurtosis for Focal attributes & Expected consequences (U.S. Sample)

Factor and Item	M	SD	Skewness	Kurtosis
<i>Interest in Basketball</i>				
BBALL1	4.03	0.960	-0.746	-0.091
BBALL2	4.10	0.964	-1.117	1.130
<i>Players</i>				
PLAYERS1	4.19	0.771	-0.874	1.047
PLAYERS2	3.92	0.863	-0.652	0.402

Table 4.8 Continued

The Team

TEAM1	4.10	0.772	-0.897	1.345
TEAM2	3.89	0.946	-0.971	0.918
TEAM3	3.92	0.839	-0.760	0.804

Entertainment

ENTER1	3.27	1.097	-0.141	-0.667
ENTER2	3.19	1.023	-0.016	-0.416

Drama

DRAMA1	4.26	0.850	-1.362	2.345
DRAMA2	4.05	0.820	-0.746	0.551
DRAMA3	4.20	0.856	-1.178	1.531

Community Pride

COMM1	3.87	0.929	-0.382	-0.589
COMM2	3.96	0.836	-1.015	1.898
COMM3	3.92	0.863	-0.697	0.489

Vicarious Achievement

VIC1	3.91	0.816	-0.446	0.071
VIC2	4.27	0.817	-1.495	3.478
VIC3	4.43	0.718	-1.338	2.450

Table 4.8 Continued

Social Interaction

SOCIAL1	3.62	0.988	-0.221	-0.575
SOCIAL2	3.93	0.836	-0.532	0.093
SOCIAL3	4.06	0.740	-0.554	0.236

Nationalism

NAT1	3.78	1.009	-0.614	0.049
NAT2	3.42	1.102	-0.289	-0.501
NAT3	3.35	1.078	-0.212	-0.528

Family Interaction

FAMILY1	4.02	0.875	-0.859	0.929
FAMILY2	3.67	1.036	-0.604	-0.102
FAMILY3	3.88	1.004	-0.933	0.689

Note. M = Mean; SD = Standard Deviation

The hypothesized measurement models for focal attributes and expected consequences were tested separately. Both exploratory and confirmatory factor analysis were used to test the hypothesized factor structure, and post-hoc adjustments were made to create the final measurement models.

Focal Attributes

The focal attributes measurement model was first tested for the American sample. The four hypothesized constructs in the initial measurement model were represented with

two or three indicator variables per construct. The hypothesized indicators were discussed in Chapter 3. A review of the hypothesized measurement model showed poor fit for the data (Table 4.9). The rejection of a hypothesized model signals the end of the confirmatory approach, and the study progressed into exploratory research (Byrne, 2001). Exploratory factor analysis (EFA) was conducted to determine potential causes for the poor fit. Varimax rotation was used for the EFA. The EFA for the focal attributes revealed a three-factor solution. The CFA showed that the constructs for Interest in Players and Interest in Team were highly correlated ($r = .89$), which suggested that multicollinearity could be a concern. There was no theoretical justification for combining the constructs. For this reason, the construct for *Interest in Team* was removed from the model. The constructs for *Entertainment*, *Interest in Basketball*, and *Interest in Players* were retained for the CFA.

The CFA was then conducted on the adjusted measurement model with three focal attribute constructs (Table 4.9). Goodness of fit was good for all measures. The composite reliability was high for each of the constructs (Table 4.11), and factor loadings were also high for each of the indicator variables. The final measurement model with factor loadings appears in Figure 4.3.

Expected Consequences

The expected consequences measurement model was next tested for goodness of fit. The hypothesized model was not a good fit for the data (Table 4.10). Post-hoc analysis was used to determine potential causes of the poor fit. An EFA examined the factor structure for the data. The EFA for the expected consequences showed three strong factors in *Social Interaction*, *Nationalism*, and *Family Interaction*. The EFA also showed two weaker factors

for *Community Pride* and *Drama*. However, the indicators for *Vicarious Achievement* loaded onto separate factors. The *Vicarious Achievement* construct was eliminated from the model. The *Drama* construct exhibited weak reliability, and one indicator variable (COMM1) produced a low factor loading on the *Community Pride* construct. The *Drama* construct and the first *Community Pride* item were eliminated from the model. Finally, the disturbance terms were freed between two pairs of items: SOCIAL3 and FAMILY2, and SOCIAL3 and FAMILY3. These three items all measured the degree that spectators watch sports because they can “spend time” with significant others. The measurement model with four constructs now exhibited adequate fit (Table 4.10). The constructs also showed satisfactory internal consistency as composite reliability was greater than 0.60 for each construct (Table 4.11). All of the factor loadings were high for each of the indicator variables on their constructs. The final measurement model for expected consequences for U.S. basketball spectators appears in Figure 4.4.

Table 4.9

Fit Indices of Hypothesized Measurement Model Versus Competing Models for Focal Attributes (U.S. sample; N = 201)

Model	df	χ^2	Δ df	χ^2/df	RMSEA	TLI	CFI	SRMR
Hypothesized	21	81.92	--	3.90	.120	0.846	0.910	0.088
Final	6	2.91	15	0.48	.000	1.019	1.000	0.016

Note. Δ df = changes in degrees of freedom; RMSEA = Root Mean Square Error of Approximation; TLI = Tucker-Lewis Index; CFI = Comparative Fit Index; SRMR = Standardized Root Mean Square Residual.

* $p < .05$

Table 4.10

Fit Indices of Hypothesized Measurement Model Versus Competing Models for Expected Consequences (U.S. sample; N = 201)

Model	df	χ^2	Δ df	χ^2/df	RMSEA	TLI	CFI	SRMR
Hypothesized	120	244.53	--	2.04	0.072	0.837	0.872	0.070
Final	36	80.42	84	2.23	0.079	0.908	0.940	0.056

Note. Δ df = changes in degrees of freedom; RMSEA = Root Mean Square Error of Approximation; TLI = Tucker-Lewis Index; CFI = Comparative Fit Index; SRMR = Standardized Root Mean Square Residual.

* $p < .05$

Table 4.11

Internal Consistency of Constructs (Final U.S. Measurement Model)

Variable	Number of Items	M	SD	CR
Interest in Basketball	2	4.06	0.91	.89
Interest in Players	2	4.06	0.69	.60
Entertainment	2	3.23	0.99	.85
Community Pride	2	3.94	0.73	.65
Social Interaction	3	3.87	0.64	.62
Nationalism	3	3.52	0.88	.78
Family Interaction	3	3.86	0.81	.79

Note. M = Mean; SD = Standard Deviation; CR = Composite Reliability

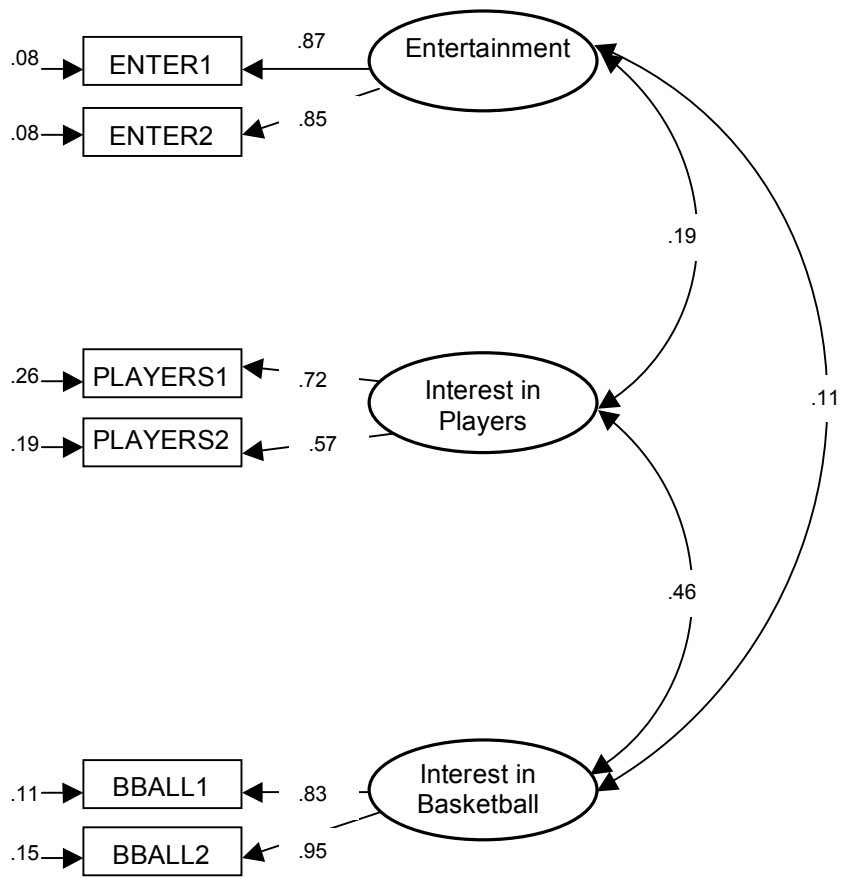


Figure 4.3. Final Measurement Model for Focal Attributes (USA)

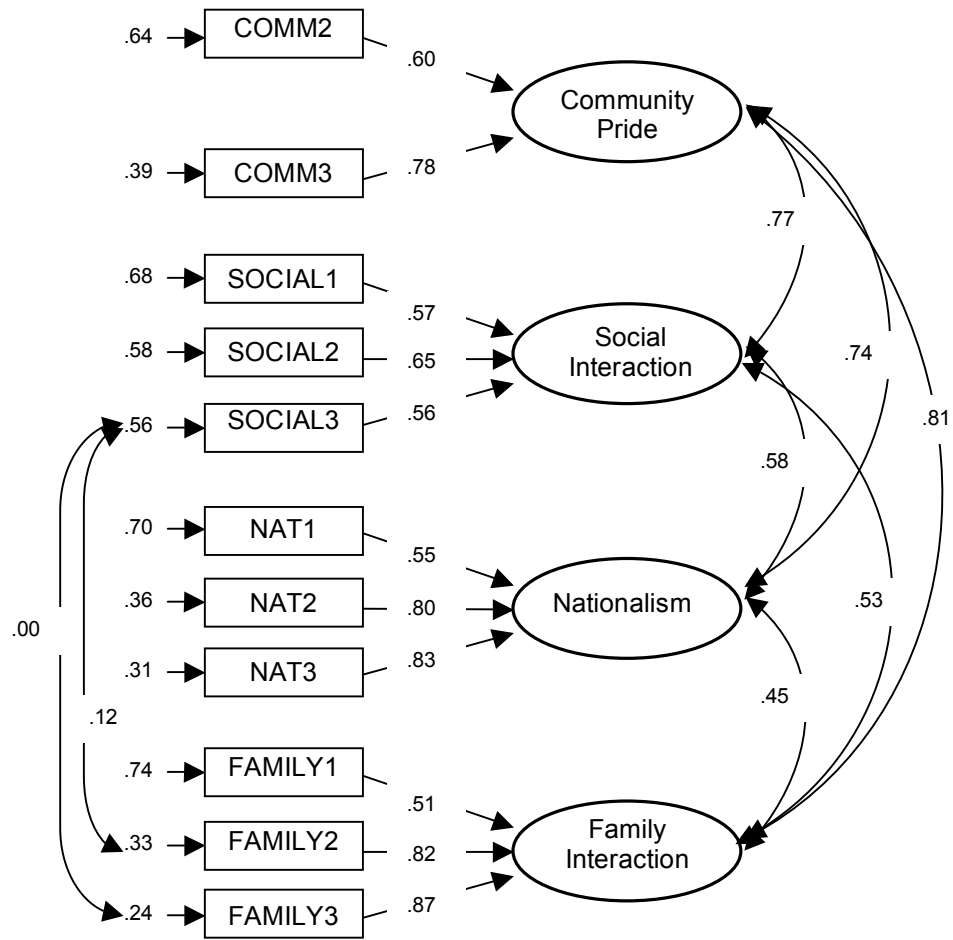


Figure 4.4. Final Measurement Model for Expected Consequences (USA)

Development of a Chinese Measurement Model

After constructing the measurement model for the American sample, the separate measurement models for attributes and consequences were also tested for the Chinese sample. The assumptions required for structural equation modeling were verified, and the hypothesized model was then tested for the Chinese spectators. Post-hoc adjustments were made to develop a final measurement model for the group.

Testing of Assumptions

The attributes and consequences for the Chinese sample were checked to ensure that they met the requirements needed for structural equation modeling. In addition, a larger sample was desired in China because the Chinese population is nearly four times larger than the American population (www.cpirc.org.cn/index.asp; <http://www.census.gov/population/www/popclockus.html>). A total of 670 questionnaires were collected in China; 10 cases were identified with missing more than 20% of their values. Regression imputation was used on the remaining cases. This resulted in a final sample of 660 cases. The sample was more than two times the size of the American sample, so it provided a more representative proportion of cases in the two countries.

A review of the histograms for the focal attributes and expected consequences showed that they appeared to be normally distributed. Skewness and kurtosis were checked for all of the attribute and consequence items (Table 4.12). Skewness for all of the focal attribute and expected consequence items was within the recommended range of ± 2.0 . Kurtosis was within the recommended range of ± 2.0 for each of the focal attribute items in

the Chinese sample, with the exception of the first Drama item (kurtosis = 4.388). The attributes and consequences for the Chinese sample appeared to exhibit a normal distribution.

Table 4.12

Means, Standard Deviations, Skewness, and Kurtosis for Focal Attributes & Expected Consequences (China Sample)

Factor and Item	M	SD	Skewness	Kurtosis
<i>Interest in Basketball</i>				
BBALL1	4.14	0.887	-0.788	0.158
BBALL2	4.26	0.909	-1.092	0.597
<i>Players</i>				
PLAYERS1	3.39	1.155	-0.249	-0.792
PLAYERS2	3.29	1.090	-0.116	-0.639
<i>The Team</i>				
TEAM1	4.20	0.899	-1.091	0.884
TEAM2	3.67	1.105	-0.526	-0.551
TEAM3	4.27	0.905	-1.303	1.647
<i>Entertainment</i>				
ENTER1	3.49	1.036	-0.339	-0.366
ENTER2	3.75	1.013	-0.346	-0.588

Table 4.12 Continued

Drama

DRAMA1	4.55	0.759	-1.989	4.388
DRAMA2	4.22	0.843	-1.015	1.058
DRAMA3	4.29	0.937	-1.321	1.275

Community Pride

COMM1	4.10	0.917	-0.837	0.311
COMM2	4.20	0.811	-0.806	0.439
COMM3	4.21	0.839	-0.955	0.753

Vicarious Achievement

VIC1	3.97	0.952	-0.628	-0.161
VIC2	4.46	0.755	-1.430	2.187
VIC3	4.41	0.745	-1.103	0.722

Social Interaction

SOCIAL1	4.13	0.829	-0.762	0.455
SOCIAL2	4.14	0.870	-0.806	0.193
SOCIAL3	3.80	0.986	-0.553	-0.242

Nationalism

NAT1	4.22	0.843	-0.892	0.400
NAT2	4.27	0.809	-0.972	0.767
NAT3	4.07	0.903	-0.619	-0.316

Table 4.12 Continued

Family Interaction

FAMILY1	3.72	0.992	-0.458	-0.274
FAMILY2	3.58	0.975	-0.180	-0.506
FAMILY3	3.82	0.937	-0.440	-0.277

Note. M = Mean; SD = Standard Deviation.

Focal Attributes

The hypothesized measurement model for focal attributes was first tested. The initial model showed poor fit for the data (Table 4.13). Post-hoc analysis was then used to make adjustments to the model. Exploratory factor analysis with Varimax rotation was conducted to examine the factor structure of the data. The EFA for the focal attributes showed a three-factor solution. The three strong factors were *Entertainment*, *Interest in Players*, and *Interest in Basketball*. However, the indicator variables for the hypothesized *Interest in Team* construct loaded onto different factors. The *Interest in Team* construct was removed from the model.

The adjusted measurement model included three focal attributes (*Entertainment*, *Interest in Players*, and *Interest in Basketball*). The goodness of fit statistics for the adjusted measurement model showed good fit (Table 4.13). Internal consistency was also satisfactory (Table 4.15). No further adjustments were made to the model. The final model with factor loadings for the indicators appears in Figure 4.5.

Expected Consequences

The hypothesized measurement model for expected consequences showed poor fit for the Chinese spectators (Table 4.14), so post-hoc analysis was necessary. The EFA for the expected consequences showed that *Nationalism*, *Drama* and *Community Pride* were unique factors. Internal consistency for the Drama construct was below the cutoff value of 0.60, so it was removed from the model. The indicator variables for *Vicarious Achievement* loaded onto different factors. The *Vicarious Achievement* construct was removed from the model. The composite reliability was also weak for the *Community Pride* construct. One individual item (COMM1) was eliminated from the construct because of its low factor loading. Finally, just as is the American model, the disturbance terms were freed between SOCIAL3 and FAMILY2, and SOCIAL3 and FAMILY3.

The adjusted measurement model for the consequences included four constructs (*Community Pride*, *Nationalism*, *Social Interaction*, and *Family Interaction*). The goodness of fit for the adjusted measurement model was adequate (Table 4.14). Internal consistency was greater than 0.60 for all of the constructs (Table 4.15). Factor loadings were also strong for all of the indicator variables on their constructs. The final measurement model for the expected consequences for Chinese basketball spectators appears in Figure 4.6.

Just as in the U.S., the hypothesized measurement model with four focal attributes and six expected consequences did not provide a good fit for the Chinese sample. However, minor adjustments resulted in measurement models that effectively described the data for Chinese basketball spectators. The results suggested that there were differences between the two countries in the way they categorized the focal attributes and expected consequences.

Table 4.13

Fit Indices of Hypothesized Measurement Model Versus Competing Models for Focal Attributes (China sample; N = 660)

Model	df	χ^2	Δ df	χ^2/df	RMSEA	TLI	CFI	SRMR
Hypothesized	21	138.23	--	6.58	0.092	0.803	0.885	0.067
Final	6	18.89	15	3.15	0.057	0.950	0.980	0.028

Note. Δ df = changes in degrees of freedom; RMSEA = Root Mean Square Error of Approximation; TLI = Tucker-Lewis Index; CFI = Comparative Fit Index; SRMR = Standardized Root Mean Square Residual.

* $p < .05$

Table 4.14

Fit Indices of Hypothesized Measurement Model Versus Competing Models for Expected Consequences (China sample; N = 660)

Model	df	χ^2	Δ df	χ^2/df	RMSEA	TLI	CFI	SRMR
Hypothesized	120	427.37	--	3.56	0.062	0.864	0.904	0.052
Final	36	116.33	84	3.23	0.058	0.945	0.964	0.036

Note. Δ df = change in degrees of freedom; RMSEA = Root Mean Square Error of Approximation; TLI = Tucker-Lewis Index; CFI = Comparative Fit Index; SRMR = Standardized Root Mean Square Residual.

* $p < .05$

Table 4.15

Internal Consistency of Constructs (Final China Measurement Model)

Variable	Number of Items	M	SD	CR
Interest in Basketball	2	4.22	0.75	.63
Interest in Players	2	3.32	0.99	.73
Entertainment	2	3.62	0.89	.69
Community Pride	2	4.20	0.71	.62
Social Interaction	3	4.03	0.67	.60
Nationalism	3	4.18	0.71	.77
Family Interaction	3	3.71	0.78	.73

Note. M = Mean; SD = Standard Deviation; CR = Composite Reliability

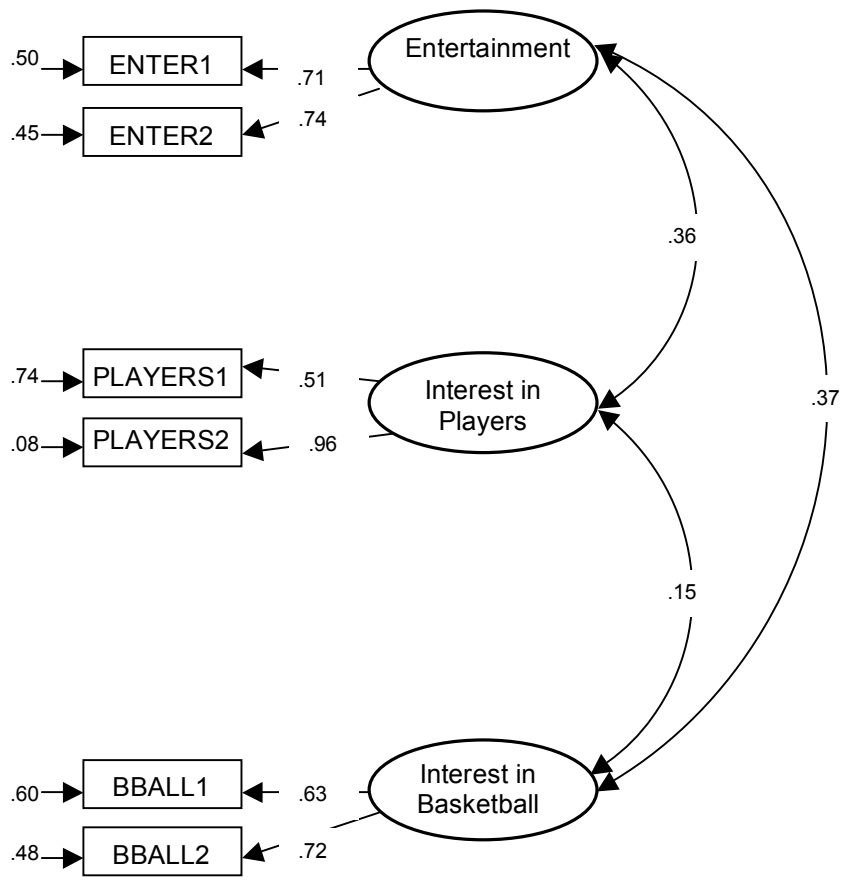


Figure 4.5. Final Measurement Model for Focal Attributes (China)

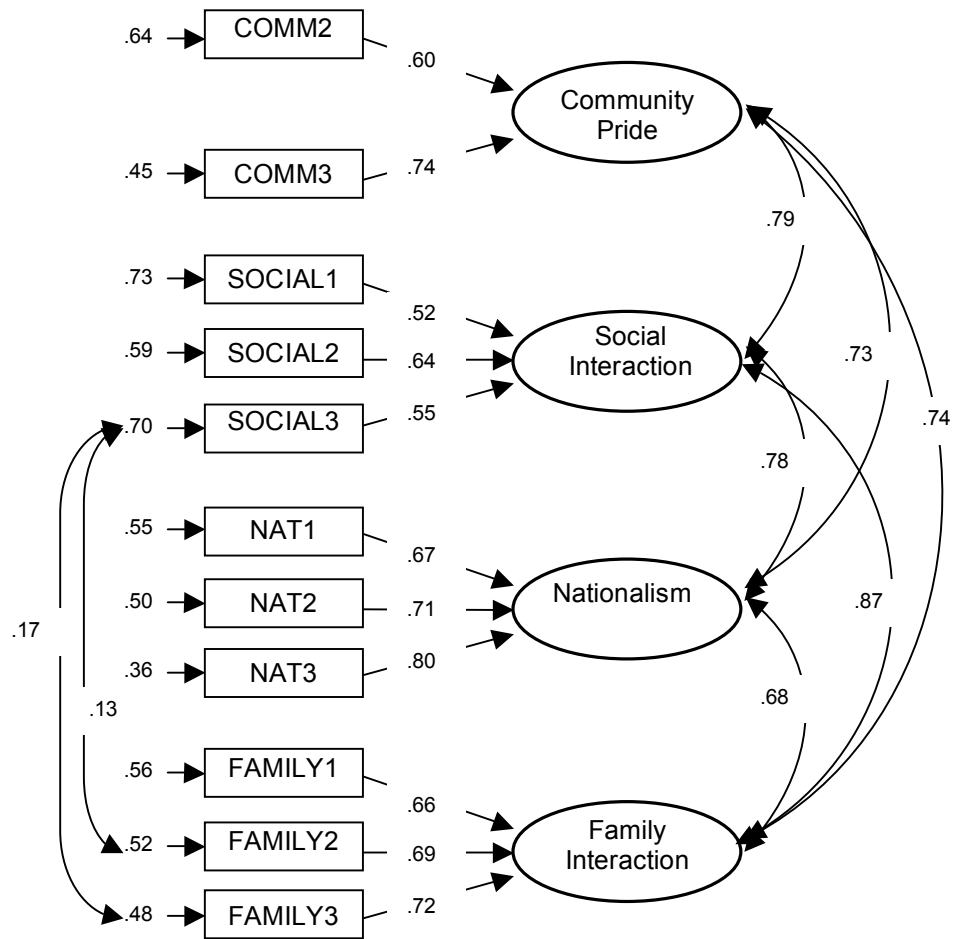


Figure 4.6. Final Measurement Model for Expected Consequences (China)

Data Analysis for Research Question Two

The second research question asked whether there were differences between Chinese and American basketball spectators. The cross-cultural comparison was conducted by comparing both the latent mean structure and the means-end paths between the expected consequences and focal attributes for the two samples. A number of hypotheses were constructed after the review of the literature, so each of these hypotheses was considered individually.

Development of a Comparison Measurement Model

Multi-group comparisons require measurement models that are identical and invariant across groups. The analyses of the previous research questions produced identical measurement models for basketball spectators in China and the U.S. However, the constructs were tested to ensure that they were invariant in both countries. The “comparison model” needed to contain constructs that were both internally consistent in each country and invariant across countries.

The focal attribute and expected consequence constructs that were identified in the individual country analyses were retained for this comparison model. Measurement invariance was tested for both the endogenous attributes and exogenous consequences. Internal consistency was tested for each of the four focal attribute constructs and six expected consequence constructs in both China and the U.S. Cross-cultural comparisons were conducted only after confirming the invariance and internal consistency of the measurement model.

The CFA from the previous research questions had identified constructs and indicator variables that were weak in both cultures. The constructs for *Drama* and *Vicarious Achievement* had exhibited weak internal consistency, so they were not included in the measurement model. The construct for *Interest in Team* exhibited weak internal consistency in the Chinese sample, and was highly correlated with the construct for *Interest in Players* in the American sample. The *Interest in Team* construct was also not included in the cross-cultural analysis. The *Community Pride* construct showed weak internal consistency in both cultures, but the removal of one item (COMM1) increased the internal consistency to a satisfactory level. Finally, the disturbance terms were freed between the indicators for SOCIAL3 and FAMILY2, and SOCIAL3 and FAMILY3. This adjustment reflected the similar wording of the items. These adjustments resulted in three focal attributes (*Entertainment, Interest in Basketball, and Interest in Players*) and four expected consequences (*Community Pride, Social Interaction, Nationalism, and Family Interaction*).

Next, the focal attributes measurement model was tested for measurement invariance (Table 4.16). The chi-square value was not significant ($\chi^2 = 4.00, p > .05$), which indicated that the initial model was invariant. No changes were needed for the focal attributes constructs.

The expected consequences measurement model was then tested for invariance (Table 4.17). The chi-square value was significant ($\chi^2 = 35.04, p < .05$). Because the initial model was not invariant, each indicator variable was tested individually through manual constraint-setting to determine the causes of non-invariance. The factor loadings for individual items were constrained and compared against the unconstrained model. This analysis showed that

two items were non-invariant across cultures. The second *Nationalism* item (“Watching sports is a great way to show my patriotism”) and the first *Family Interaction* item (“I enjoy watching sports because they are a good family activity”) were removed from the measurement model. The adjusted model was found to be invariant ($\chi^2 = 6.65, p > .05$).

The focal attributes and expected consequences were then combined into a full measurement model. Goodness of fit tests showed that this “comparison” measurement model was a good fit for the spectators in the U.S., although TLI was slightly below the recommended value of 0.95 (Table 4.18). All of the fit indices were good for the Chinese sample except for relative chi-square and TLI (Table 4.19). Internal consistency was greater than 0.60 for each of the constructs in both countries, and the factor loadings for each of the indicator variables were strong. Means and internal consistency for the constructs and indicator variables in the comparison model appear in Tables 4.20 and 4.21. The correlations between the latent constructs showed that multicollinearity did not appear to be a concern for either sample (Tables 4.22 and 4.23).

Table 4.16

Invariance Test for Multi-Group Focal Attributes Model

Model	df	Δ df	χ^2	$\Delta\chi^2$	χ^2/df	RMSEA	TLI	CFI
Unconstrained	12	--	21.79	--	1.82	.031	.977	.991
Fix Factor Loadings	15	3	25.79	4.00*	1.72	.029	.979	.990

Note. Δ df = change in degrees of freedom; $\Delta\chi^2$ = change in chi square; RMSEA = Root Mean Square Error of Approximation; TLI = Tucker-Lewis Index; CFI = Comparative Fit Index.

* $p > .05$

Table 4.17

Invariance Test for Multi-Group Expected Consequences Model

Model	df	Δ df	χ^2	$\Delta\chi^2$	χ^2/df	RMSEA	TLI	CFI
Unconstrained	72	--	196.88	--	2.73	.045	.936	.958
Fix Factor Loadings	79	7	233.46	35.04	2.96	.048	.927	.948
Adjusted – Unconstrained	38	--	100.40	--	2.64	.044	.945	.971
Adjusted – Fix Factor Loadings	43	5	107.05	6.65*	2.49	.042	.945	.970

Note. Δ df = change in degrees of freedom; $\Delta\chi^2$ = change in chi square; RMSEA = Root Mean Square Error of Approximation; TLI = Tucker-Lewis Index; CFI = Comparative Fit Index.

* $p > .05$

Table 4.18

Fit Indices of Comparison Model (U.S. sample; N = 201)

Model	df	χ^2	Δ df	$\Delta\chi^2$	χ^2/df	RMSEA	TLI	CFI	SRMR
Initial	96	168.49	--	--	1.76	.061	.917	.942	.052
Final	67	110.87	29	57.62	1.66	.057	.933	.958	.045

Note. Δ df = change in degrees of freedom; $\Delta\chi^2$ = change in chi square; RMSEA = Root Mean Square Error of Approximation; TLI = Tucker-Lewis Index; CFI = Comparative Fit Index; SRMR = Standardized Root Mean Square Residual.

* $p < .05$

Table 4.19

Fit Indices of Comparison Model (China sample; N = 660)

Model	df	χ^2	Δ df	$\Delta\chi^2$	χ^2/df	RMSEA	TLI	CFI	SRMR
Initial	96	223.27	--	--	2.33	.045	.941	.958	.036
Final	67	154.53	29	68.74	2.31	.045	.943	.964	.033

Note. Δ df = change in degrees of freedom; $\Delta\chi^2$ = change in chi square; RMSEA = Root Mean Square Error of Approximation; TLI = Tucker-Lewis Index; CFI = Comparative Fit Index; SRMR = Standardized Root Mean Square Residual.

* $p < .05$

Table 4.20

Means and Internal Consistency for Focal Attributes in “Comparison” Model

Construct / Item	U.S.A.			China		
	M	SD	CR	M	SD	CR
Entertainment	3.23	0.99	.85	3.62	0.89	.68
- I want to see more entertainment than just basketball when I attend games	3.27	1.10		3.49	1.04	
- I enjoy basketball games because there is a lot of entertainment besides the sport	3.19	1.02		3.75	1.01	
Interest in Players	4.06	0.69	.61	3.34	0.97	.70
- There are certain players that make me want to attend basketball games	4.19	0.77		3.39	1.16	
- I attend games when there’s a player I want to see playing	3.92	0.86		3.29	1.09	
Interest in Basketball	4.06	0.91	.89	4.20	0.77	.62
- I am a huge fan of basketball in general	4.03	0.96		4.14	0.89	
- I enjoy watching games because I love basketball	4.10	0.96		4.26	0.91	

Note. M = Mean, SD = Standard Deviation, CR = Composite Reliability

Table 4.21

Means and Internal Consistency for Expected Consequences in “Comparison” Model

Construct / Item	U.S.A.			China		
	M	SD	CR	M	SD	CR
Community Pride	3.94	0.73	.66	4.20	0.70	.62
- Watching sports allows me to feel like I’m a part of the community	3.96	0.84		4.20	0.81	
- Sporting events are a great way to show my support for the local community	3.92	0.86		4.21	0.84	
Social Interaction	3.87	0.64	.61	4.02	0.66	.60
- Interacting with other fans is a very important part of watching sporting events	3.62	0.99		4.13	0.83	
- Sporting events provide great opportunities to socialize with other people	3.93	0.84		4.14	0.87	
- I enjoy watching sports because they allow me to spend time with my friends	4.06	0.74		3.80	0.99	
Nationalism	3.57	0.89	.69	4.14	0.76	.70
- I enjoy watching sports because I can cheer for my home country	3.78	1.01		4.22	0.84	
- Sports allow me to show support for my country	3.35	1.08		4.07	0.90	

Table 4.21 Continued

Family Interaction	3.78	0.95	.85	3.70	0.84	.71
- An important reason why I attend sporting events is to spend time with my family	3.67	1.04		3.58	0.98	
- Sporting events are a great way for my family to spend time together	3.88	1.00		3.82	0.94	

Note. M = Mean, SD = Standard Deviation, CR = Composite Reliability

Table 4.22

Intercorrelation Matrix for "Comparison" Model (U.S. sample)

	ENTER	PLAYER	BBALL	COMM	SOCIAL	NAT	FAM
PLAYER	.21	1	--	--	--	--	--
BBALL	.13	.46	1	--	--	--	--
COMM	.33	.50	.37	1	--	--	--
SOCIAL	.53	.41	.26	.76	1	--	--
NAT	.44	.19	.23	.68	.55	1	--
FAM	.28	.27	.20	.79	.50	.45	1

Table 4.23

Intercorrelation Matrix for “Comparison” Model (China sample)

	ENTER	PLAYER	BBALL	COMM	SOCIAL	NAT	FAM
PLAYER	.38	1	--	--	--	--	--
BBALL	.38	.15	1	--	--	--	--
COMM	.37	.24	.34	1	--	--	--
SOCIAL	.58	.28	.42	.80	1	--	--
NAT	.26	.16	.32	.73	.79	1	--
FAM	.41	.32	.27	.71	.78	.64	1

Mean Structure Analysis

After confirming the measurement invariance of the comparison model, the model was now suitable for analyzing cross-cultural comparisons. The next step was to compare the latent mean structure for each of the attributes and consequences between the Chinese and American samples. Latent mean structure comparisons show if there are significant differences between the means of latent variables between groups. The results of the comparisons showed that the means were significantly higher for the Chinese spectators on *Entertainment, Interest in Basketball, Community Pride, Social Interaction, and Nationalism* (Table 4.24). The means were significantly higher for the American sample on *Interest in Players*. There was no significant difference between the two samples for *Family Interaction*.

Table 4.24

Latent Mean Structure Analysis for Focal Attributes & Expected Consequences

Latent Variable	Larger Mean	Difference	SE
Entertainment	China	0.57**	0.08
Interest in Players	United States	0.71**	0.07
Interest in Basketball	China	0.16*	0.08
Community Pride	China	0.22**	0.05
Social Interaction	China	0.11*	0.05
Nationalism	China	0.48**	0.06
Family Interaction	United States	0.04	0.07

Note. SE denotes Standard Error. * $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$

Structural Analysis

The next step in the analysis involved fitting structural models for the two cultures. The structural models included hypothesized paths leading from the expected consequences to the focal attributes. The models were fitted for each sample separately, and were then tested to identify significant structural paths. Significant paths were then examined individually to determine if they differed significantly between the two samples. All hypothesized paths were analyzed for both samples.

After removing constructs from the hypothesized measurement model, a number of hypothesized paths were no longer relevant. The following structural paths were tested in the

structural model: Family Interaction→Entertainment, Social Interaction→Entertainment, Community Pride→Players, Nationalism→Players, Community Pride→Interest in Basketball, Family Interaction→Interest in Basketball, Nationalism→Interest in Basketball, and Social Interaction→Interest in Basketball.

The structural model was a good fit in both countries (Tables 4.27 and 4.28). The results showed that the paths from Community Pride→Interest in Basketball, Community Pride→Interest in Players, and Social Interaction→Entertainment were significant in the American sample. The paths from Community Pride→Interest in Players, Social Interaction→Interest in Basketball, and Social Interaction→Entertainment were significant in the Chinese sample. The structural models for both countries appear in Figure 4.7 and Figure 4.8. The regression weights for the structural paths appear in Tables 4.25 and 4.26.

The Chinese and American spectators shared two significant paths: Social Interaction → Entertainment; and Community Pride→Interest in Players. These two paths were examined individually to determine if they differed between samples. All structural paths were constrained to be equal except for the specific path that was tested. A chi-square test compared the unconstrained model with the constrained model (Table 4.29). The path from Social Interaction→Entertainment differed significantly between the two countries ($\chi^2 = 6.28, p < .05$). The path from Community Pride → Interest in Players also differed significantly between the two countries ($\chi^2 = 8.03, p < .05$).

Table 4.25

Paths for U.S. Structural Model

Hypothesized Path	Unst.	β .	t
Social Interaction → Entertainment	.891	.522	4.084**
Family Interaction → Entertainment	.016	.014	.136
Community Pride → Interest in Basketball	1.627	.870	2.251*
Social Interaction → Interest in Basketball	-.221	-.135	-.627
Nationalism → Interest in Basketball	-.252	-.149	-.922
Family Interaction → Interest in Basketball	-.370	-.325	-1.604
Community Pride → Interest in Players	.627	.682	2.904**
Nationalism → Interest in Players	-.249	-.300	-1.687

Note. Unst. = unstandardized path coefficients; β = standardized path coefficients.

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

Table 4.26

Paths for Chinese Structural Model

Hypothesized Path	Unst.	β .	t
Social Interaction → Entertainment	1.040	.595	4.700**
Family Interaction → Entertainment	-.074	-.067	-.579
Community Pride → Interest in Basketball	.056	.039	.173
Social Interaction → Interest in Basketball	.931	.610	2.817**
Nationalism → Interest in Basketball	-.046	-.038	-.300
Family Interaction → Interest in Basketball	-.199	-.207	-1.520
Community Pride → Interest in Players	1.100	.458	4.102**
Nationalism → Interest in Players	-.416	-.200	-1.862

Note. Unst. = unstandardized path coefficients; β = standardized path coefficients.

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

Table 4.27

Fit Indices of Structural Model (U.S. sample; N = 201)

Model	df	χ^2	χ^2/df	RMSEA	TLI	CFI	SRMR
U.S.	74	131.86	1.78	.063	.921	.944	.057

Note. RMSEA = Root Mean Square Error of Approximation; TLI = Tucker-Lewis Index; CFI = Comparative Fit Index; SRMR = Standardized Root Mean Square Residual.

* $p < .05$

Table 4.28

Fit Indices of Structural Model (China sample; N = 660)

Model	df	χ^2	χ^2/df	RMSEA	TLI	CFI	SRMR
China	74	217.92	2.95	.054	.916	.941	.047

Note. RMSEA = Root Mean Square Error of Approximation; TLI = Tucker-Lewis Index; CFI = Comparative Fit Index; SRMR = Standardized Root Mean Square Residual.

* $p < .05$

Table 4.29

Testing of Differences Between Structural Paths

Hypothesized Path	χ^2	$\Delta\chi^2$	p
	Constrained	Unconstrained	
Social Interaction → Entertainment	715.53	709.25	6.28 .01
Community Pride → Interest in Players	715.53	707.50	8.03 .01

Note. $\Delta\chi^2$ = change in chi square.

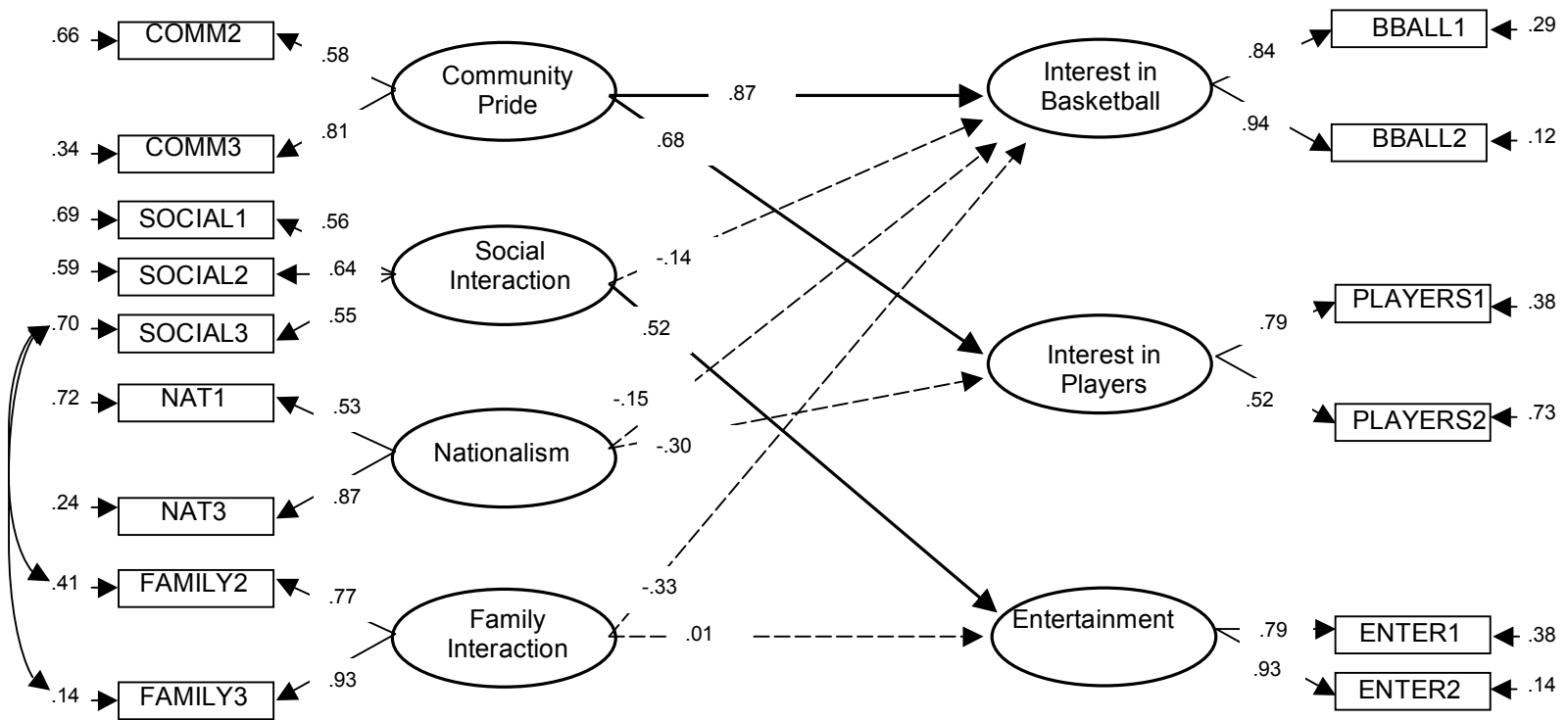


Figure 4.7. Structural Model (USA)

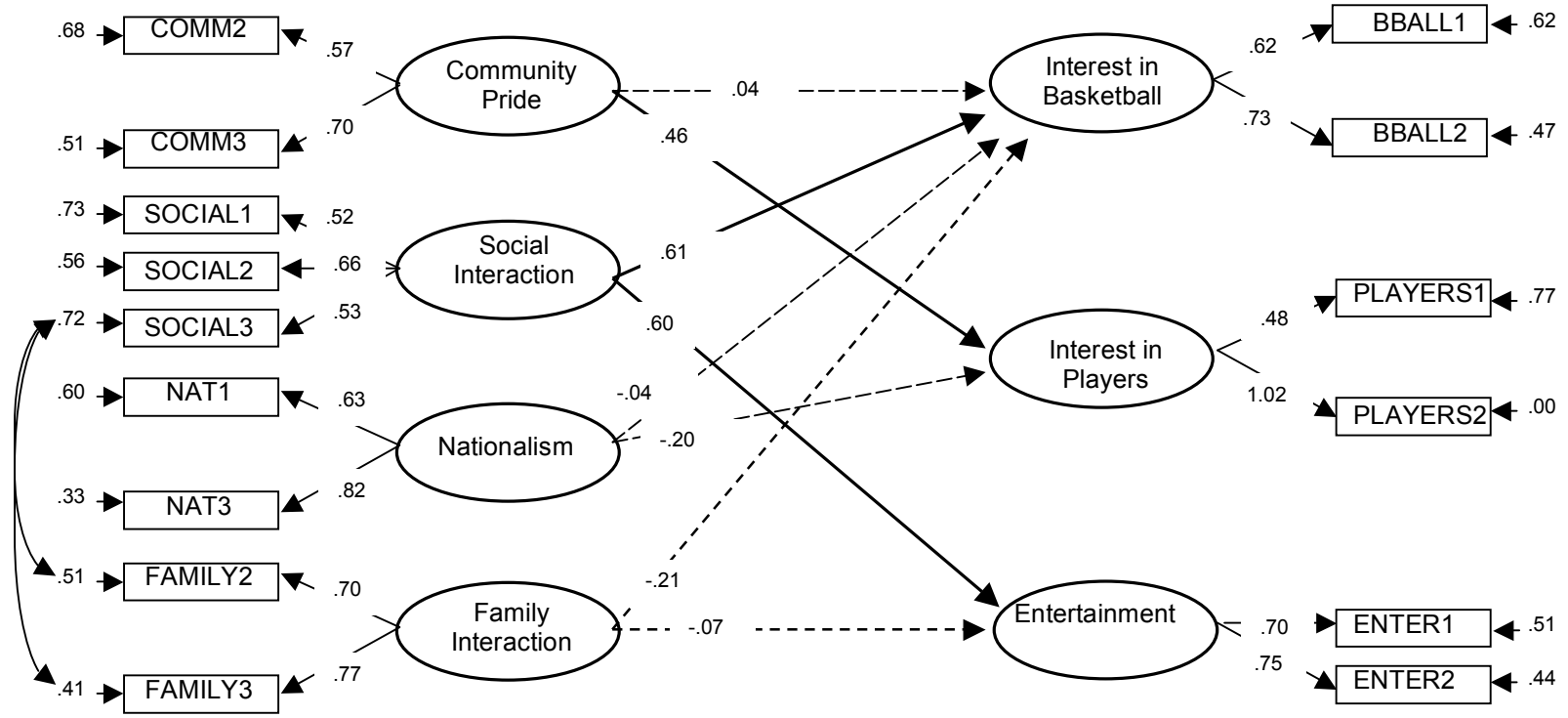


Figure 4.8. Structural Model (China)

Data Analysis for Research Question Three

The third research question asked if the Chinese and American basketball spectators differed in their intentions to consume professional basketball. Latent mean analysis and structural equation modeling were used to compare the behavioral intentions in the two cultures. Regression imputation was used to impute missing values in both countries for the structural equation modeling.

The first step was to confirm the measurement invariance of the behavioral intentions in the two countries. A chi-square test revealed a significant difference between the unconstrained model and the model with factor loadings constrained to be equal (Table 4.30). Because the initial intentions construct was not invariant, each of the four individual items was examined for invariance. A chi-square test showed that the third item (“I plan to recommend that friends and family attend [NBA/CBA] games”) differed across the two countries, so it was removed from the construct. The chi-square test now showed that the construct was invariant across cultures. The composite reliability was above 0.70 for the construct in both countries (Table 4.31). The structural model was a good fit in both countries (Tables 4.33 and 4.34).

Mean Structure Analysis

The latent means were compared for behavioral intentions among Chinese basketball spectators and American basketball spectators. Latent mean structure analysis showed that there was a significant difference in behavioral intentions between the two samples. Chinese spectators expressed higher ratings in their intentions to consume professional basketball through attendance and merchandise consumption (Table 4.32).

Structural Equation Modeling

The next step included testing the full structural model. The model included the structural paths between focal attributes and expected consequences. Behavioral intentions were then added as an endogenous construct resulting from the focal attributes. The full structural model included the exogenous expected consequences, as well as the focal attributes and behavioral intentions. Paths were added to the structural model between the three focal attributes and the construct for *Intentions*. The entire structural model was then tested for both countries. The results showed that only the path between the focal attribute for *Interest in Basketball* and *Intentions* was significant. This path was significant in both countries. No other attribute → intentions paths were significant in either country. The regression weights for the paths are displayed in Tables 4.35 and 4.36. The full structural models are depicted in Figures 4.9 and 4.10.

Manual constraint setting was then used to test for differences in the Interest in Basketball → Intentions path that was shared between the countries (Table 4.37). The unconstrained model differed significantly from the model in which all structural paths were constrained to be equal ($\chi^2 = 15.2, p < .05$). This structural path was not equivalent in China and the United States.

Table 4.30

Invariance Test for Behavioral Intentions

Model	df	Δ df	χ^2	$\Delta\chi^2$	χ^2/df	RMSEA	TLI	CFI
Unconstrained	4	--	14.68	--	3.67	.056	.977	.992
Fix Factor Loadings	7	3	25.34	10.66	3.62	.055	.978	.987
Adjusted – Unconstrained	0	--	0	--	0	0	0	1.000
Adjusted – Fix Factor Loadings	2	2	2.07	2.07*	1.04	.006	1.000	1.000

Note. Δ df = change in degrees of freedom; RMSEA = Root Mean Square Error of Approximation; TLI = Tucker-Lewis Index; CFI = Comparative Fit Index.

* $p > .05$

Table 4.31

Means and Internal Consistency for Behavioral Intentions

Construct / Item	U.S. M	U.S. SD	U.S. CR	China M	China SD	China CR
Behavioral Intentions	3.78	0.86	.81	4.23	0.66	.77
- I plan to attend more (NBA/CBA) games this season	3.88	1.02		4.54	0.70	
- I plan to attend more (NBA/CBA) games next season	3.96	0.89		4.47	0.78	
-I plan to purchase (NBA/CBA) merchandise	3.50	1.14		3.68	1.02	

Note. M = Mean; SD = Standard Deviation; CR = Composite Reliability.

Table 4.32

Latent Mean Structure Analysis for Behavioral Intentions

Latent Variable	Larger Mean	Difference	SE
Intentions	China	0.500**	0.068

Note. SE denotes Standard Error. ** $p < .01$

Table 4.33

Fit Indices of Structural Intentions Model (U.S. sample; N = 201)

Model	df	χ^2	χ^2/df	RMSEA	TLI	CFI	SRMR
Structural - Intentions	116	189.45	1.633	.056	.924	.942	.065

Note. RMSEA = Root Mean Square Error of Approximation; TLI = Tucker-Lewis Index; CFI = Comparative Fit Index; SRMR = Standardized Root Mean Square Residual.
* $p < .05$

Table 4.34

Fit Indices of Structural Intentions Model (China sample; N = 660)

Model	df	χ^2	χ^2/df	RMSEA	TLI	CFI	SRMR
Structural - Intentions	116	328.34	2.83	.053	.913	.934	.058

Note. RMSEA = Root Mean Square Error of Approximation; TLI = Tucker-Lewis Index; CFI = Comparative Fit Index; SRMR = Standardized Root Mean Square Residual.

* $p < .05$

Table 4.35

Coefficients of Model Paths for Structural Intentions Model (U.S. Sample)

Hypothesized Path	Unst.	β	t
Interest in Basketball → Intentions	.222	.253	2.91**
Entertainment → Intentions	.120	.148	1.80
Interest in Players → Intentions	.151	.086	0.91

Note. Unst. = unstandardized path coefficients; β = standardized path coefficients; ** $p < .01$

Table 4.36

Coefficients of Model Paths for Structural Intentions Model (China Sample)

Hypothesized Path	Unst.	β	t
Interest in Basketball \rightarrow Intentions	.536	.629	7.59**
Entertainment \rightarrow Intentions	.048	.075	1.49
Interest in Players \rightarrow Intentions	-.002	-.004	-0.11

Note. Unst. = unstandardized path coefficients; β = standardized path coefficients; ** $p < .01$

Table 4.37

Testing of Differences Between Structural Paths

Hypothesized Path	χ^2		$\Delta\chi^2$	p
	Unconstrained	Constrained		
Interest in Basketball \rightarrow Intentions	545.24	560.42	15.2	.00

Note. $\Delta\chi^2$ = change in chi square.

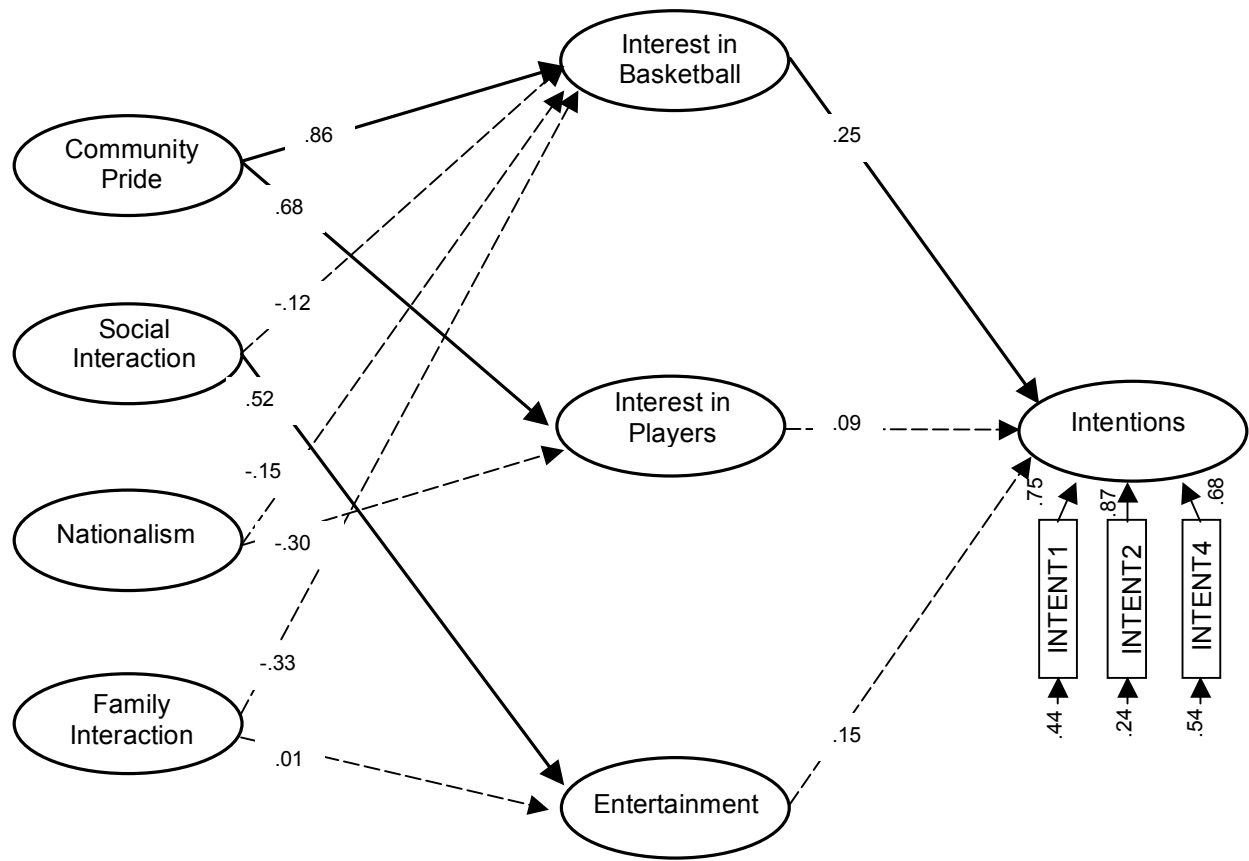


Figure 4.9. Structural Intentions Model (U.S.)

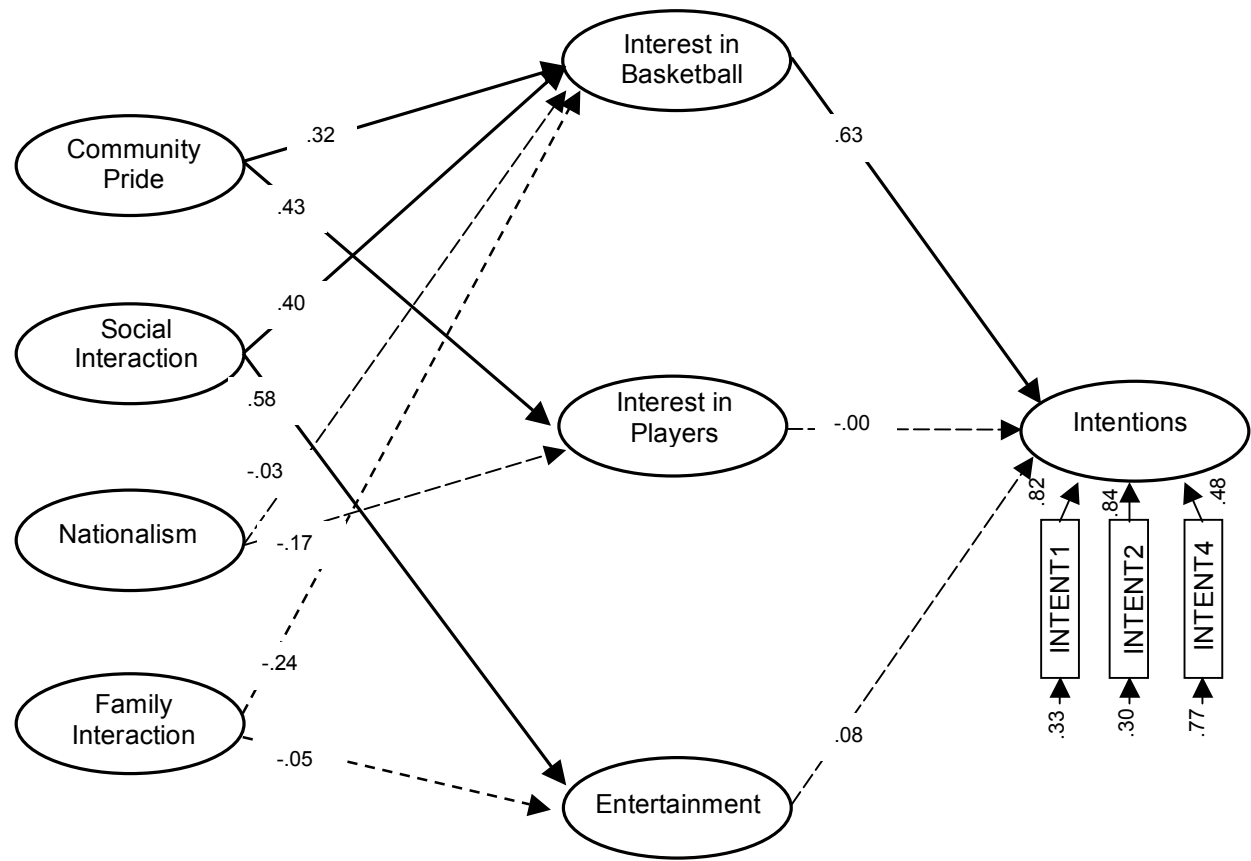


Figure 4.10. Structural Intentions Model (China)

Summary

Chapter 4 included a summary of results for demographic and quantitative data. The first step compared the values selected by Chinese and American spectators for both the LOV and individualism/collectivism dimensions. The hypothesized measurement models were then tested for spectators in the individual countries. This included tests of internal consistency for the constructs and tests of assumptions required for structural equation modeling. Adjustments to the measurement models resulted in two models that were identical in both countries. The model was tested for cross-cultural invariance and further adjustments were necessary before confirming invariance. A comparison of the two countries included latent mean analysis and structural equation modeling. Finally, behavioral intentions were also compared for the two countries through latent mean analysis and structural equation modeling. Chapter 5 includes a discussion and interpretation of the results for each of the research questions. Limitations, implications for the field, implications for future research, and conclusions are also included in the following chapter.

CHAPTER 5: DISCUSSION

This study developed a model to explain cross-cultural sport spectatorship, and then tested the model with Chinese and American basketball spectators. Values were used to determine if Chinese and American basketball spectators represented two different cultures. A new methodology then tested the focal attributes and expected consequences that drive basketball spectators to watch sporting events. Structural equation modeling was used to test the relationships between the attributes and consequences. The results provide implications for sport marketers around the world. This chapter is organized into the following sections: summary of findings, interpretation of findings, recommendations for the field, recommendations for future research, and limitations.

Summary of findings

A full description of results was presented in Chapter 4. This chapter summarizes the results in line with the three research questions. The self-administered questionnaires were collected at games in the two countries. The data were then analyzed to answer each of the research questions.

Do sport consumers in China and the United States represent distinct cultures?

Two different value comparisons were used to describe the Chinese and American spectators. There was no difference between the spectators on the LOV, which indicated that basketball spectators embraced similar values in their daily lives in the two countries. Hypothesis 1A was not supported by the data. However, a test of latent mean structure showed that Chinese spectators and American spectators differed significantly on the individualism and collectivism dimensions. Americans were individualistic, while Chinese

were collectivistic. This showed that the U.S. and China were suitable for cross-cultural comparisons. Hypothesis 1B was supported by the data.

Do consumers in different cultures watch professional basketball for different reasons?

A measurement model was developed from existing constructs in the sport marketing literature. Although the constructs were adapted from previous studies in sport marketing (e.g. Wann, 1995; Funk et al., 2001; Trail & James, 2001; Funk & James, 2004; Kerr & Gladden, 2005), this project tested the constructs in a hierarchical setting. An adjusted measurement model provided a good fit for both Chinese and American spectators, and was invariant across cultures.

A review of the literature suggested that Chinese and American spectators would possess both similarities and differences in their reasons for watching professional basketball. Two different methods were used to compare the attributes and consequences for spectators. A test of latent mean structure compared the importance of specific focal attributes and expected consequences in the two cultures. A structural model then tested the hypothesized consequence→attribute paths.

The latent mean structure for the two countries differed significantly on all constructs except for family interaction. These findings validated Hypothesis 2A by showing that basketball spectators exhibited different reasons for watching the same sport in contrasting cultures.

Hypothesis 2B suggested that American spectators would exhibit greater preferences for the entertainment attribute. However, Chinese spectators rated the entertainment construct

significantly higher than the American spectators. For this reason, Hypothesis 2B was rejected.

Hypothesis 2C stated that Chinese spectators would exhibit greater preferences for interest in the sport of basketball. The mean for Interest in Basketball was significantly higher for Chinese spectators than American spectators, and it was also the highest rated attribute in both countries. The difference in means showed that Chinese spectators possessed a greater interest in the sport than the American spectators, thereby providing support for Hypothesis 2C.

Hypothesis 2D stated that Chinese spectators would display greater preferences for nationalism. The comparison of means showed that the nationalism construct was significantly higher for Chinese spectators than American spectators. Nationalism was also the second highest-rated consequence for the Chinese sample, but the lowest-rated consequence for the American sample. This difference validated Hypothesis 2D.

The study hypothesized that Americans would exhibit stronger preferences for community pride than Chinese spectators. However, the mean for community pride was significantly higher in China. Chinese spectators rated community pride as a more important expected consequence than the Americans, so Hypothesis 2E was rejected.

According to Hypothesis 2F, Americans would rate Family Interaction as a more important expected consequence than Chinese spectators. The results showed that Americans rated Family Interaction higher than the Chinese, but the difference was not significant. Hypothesis 2F was rejected.

Hypothesis 2H proposed that American spectators would exhibit stronger preferences for Interest in Players. The mean for the construct was significantly higher for American spectators than Chinese spectators. In fact, Interest in Players was the lowest-rated focal attribute and lowest-rated overall construct for the Chinese spectators. Americans possessed a greater interest in players than Chinese spectators, confirming Hypothesis 2H.

Hypotheses 2G and 2I were not tested because the constructs for Interest in Team and Vicarious Achievement were removed from the model.

In addition to the latent mean analysis, structural paths were analyzed to compare the relationships between attributes and consequences for spectators in the two cultures. Hypothesis 2J predicted that the Drama-Interest in Basketball and Social Interaction-Entertainment relationships would be present in both countries. The paths to Drama could not be tested because of the construct's low internal consistency. However, the Social Interaction→Entertainment path was significant in both China and the U.S. In addition, the Community Pride→Interest in Players path was also significant in both countries.

Hypothesis 2K predicted that Community Pride-Interest in Team, Community Pride-Interest in Basketball, Community Pride-Interest in Players, Vicarious Achievement-Interest in Players, Family Interaction-Entertainment, Family Interaction-Interest in Basketball, and Family Interaction-Interest in Team relationships would be present for Americans. However, the Community Pride→Interest in Basketball path was the only path that was significant exclusively for the American sample. The Family Interaction→Entertainment and Family Interaction→Interest in Basketball paths were not significant, and the Vicarious Achievement

and Interest in Team paths could not be tested because of the constructs' removal from the model. The Community Pride→Interest in Players path was significant in both samples.

Hypothesis 2L predicted that the Vicarious Achievement-Interest in Team, Nationalism-Interest in Basketball, Nationalism-Interest in Team, and Nationalism-Interest in Players relationships would be present only in China. The Vicarious Achievement path could not be tested, and none of the predicted paths to Nationalism were significant for Chinese spectators. However, the Social Interaction→Interest in Basketball path was significant for only the Chinese sample. Both countries shared the Community Pride→Interest in Players path.

Do basketball spectators differ in their intentions to consume professional basketball cross-culturally?

The final research question analyzed the behavioral intentions for the two cultures. No official hypothesis was presented on whether the two cultures would differ on spectators' intentions to consume professional basketball. However, the Chinese spectators expressed a significantly higher rating on behavioral intentions than American spectators. In addition, the attribute for Interest in Basketball was the only significant predictor of intentions in both countries. The path coefficient for Interest in Basketball→Intentions was also significantly higher in China. For these reasons, the third hypothesis was rejected.

Interpretation of Findings

Values

The results showed that the Chinese spectators were more collectivistic, while the American spectators were more individualistic. This finding confirmed the prior

classifications of Chinese and American citizens on the individualism / collectivism dimension (Aaker & Maheswaran, 1997; Wang et al., 2000; Sun et al., 2004). This was also the first study to compare the individualism and collectivism of sport spectators in two different countries. American culture has traditionally emphasized individual achievement while Chinese culture has emphasized group achievement, and these results showed that the classifications are also appropriate for basketball spectators.

American spectators were individualistic and Chinese spectators were collectivistic, but the spectators exhibited commonalities in their selection of values from the LOV. Even though this study included spectators in two different countries, the findings in this research project were more similar to Kahle et al.'s (2001) previous study of values with American basketball spectators. Kahle et al. (2001) showed that spectators for both men's and women's basketball preferred similar values from the LOV. A key difference is that Kahle et al. (2001) found that self-respect and warm relationships with others were the most preferred values for basketball spectators in their study, while this study found that spectators from two different countries overwhelmingly preferred fun and enjoyment. Kahle et al.'s sample included respondents at college basketball games, which indicates that professional spectators may emphasize different values than collegiate spectators. However, the methodology of selecting only one value from the LOV may have played a factor in the results.

The emphasis on fun and enjoyment in life for both countries contrasted with Kim et al.'s (2002) earlier findings on values. Kim et al. (2002) found that Chinese consumers rated fun and enjoyment as a less important value than American or British consumers. Although Chinese and American basketball spectators reside on opposite poles of the individualism

and collectivism dimension, they share a preference in pursuing fun and enjoyment in their lives. Basketball fans from different cultures emphasize similar values from the LOV. This finding suggests that a shared identity as a basketball fan may supersede cultural differences that are associated with collectivism and individualism. While different values may be important to general American and Chinese citizens, basketball spectators believe that fun and enjoyment is most important in their lives. Basketball spectatorship provides a means for satisfying their desired end states. Although the end values may be the same for spectators in these two cultures, they expressed similarities and differences in the “means” that help achieve these end values.

Cross-Cultural Similarities

There were a number of prominent similarities between spectators in the two cultures. American and Chinese spectators both rated their interest in basketball highly. However, it was not surprising to find that Chinese spectators were more interested in the sport than Americans. Chinese professional sports have traditionally focused more on the sport itself (Larmer, 2005), while American professional sports have promoted sport as entertainment (Furst, 1971; Whitson, 1998). Chinese basketball spectators may be more likely to be interested in the fundamentals, teamwork, or execution of play during professional games because their culture emphasizes these elements. Despite the presence of a large number of entertainment options at games, Americans also rated this construct highly, so it appears that pro basketball spectators in both cultures consider themselves to be fans of the sport.

Interest in basketball was the only focal attribute that significantly predicted behavioral intentions in either country. Individuals with a higher level of interest in

basketball are more likely to consume basketball in the future. Spectators may attend a game for different reasons (including entertainment or players), but they are not likely to become repeat customers unless they are fans of the sport.

Although community pride was significantly higher for Chinese spectators than American spectators, the construct was important to spectators in both countries. In fact, community pride was the highest rated focal attribute in each country. Community pride was hypothesized to be important to Americans because teams, players, or the sport itself may be closely tied to a particular community. This may be true, but community pride was even more important to Chinese spectators. Nationalism has dominated China's sport development over the past 20 years, but provincial sports teams have existed since the development of the Chinese National Games in the 1950s (Jones, 2004). Teams from each province and municipality compete against each other, and the National Games have been one of China's major sporting events for 50 years. Chinese spectators may believe that sports provide a way to show support for their local municipality or province in the same way that American spectators show support for cities and states. Community pride is clearly an important consequence in Chinese and American sport spectatorship.

The relationship between community pride and interest in players was significant in both countries. Increased community pride leads to increased interest in individual players. Community pride may lead to an interest in individual players because those players represent a local community. In the U.S., players may represent a community if they currently play for a local professional team, previously played for a local university or high school, or grew up in the area. For example, fans from North Carolina may demonstrate their

community pride by cheering for players from their local NBA team or cheering for players who once played at universities in North Carolina but now play for other NBA teams. In China, fans may cheer for players from their local CBA teams or for players who grew up in the local city or province and now play for other CBA teams. Even though Chinese spectators do not have a great interest in watching individual players, those spectators that are interested in the players are likely doing so in order to show support for the community.

There was no significant difference in family interaction between Chinese spectators and American spectators, but family interaction was the lowest-rated expected consequence for the Chinese spectators. A number of factors likely contributed to this result in China. First, professional sports are still relatively new (Polumbaum, 2002; Larmer, 2005). Chinese spectators may not have grown up watching the sport with their parents, so parents may not have an interest in attending games with their children. This was evident in the relatively younger age for the Chinese spectators than the American spectators. Second, the one-child policy ensures that most Chinese children cannot watch or play sports with siblings (Wu, 1999). Intragenerational socialization does not impact Chinese spectators because most younger citizens do not have siblings.

Although intergenerational and intragenerational socialization plays a stronger role in Americans' sport spectatorship, the Americans rated family interaction at a similar level to the Chinese spectators. The breadth of alternatives and the high cost of sporting events in the U.S. may negate the influence of family interaction in watching professional sports. The low ratings on family interaction for the Chinese sample were expected, but the similar rating for American spectators suggests that Americans do not view spectator sports as a primary outlet

for family interaction in the U.S. American families may prefer to spend time together at home, at parks, on vacations, or other alternatives. The high cost of American sporting events may also be a constraint that prevents families from attending games together as a group.

Finally, the expected consequence for social interaction was the only positive predictor for the focal attribute of entertainment in both countries. Individuals who watch basketball games for the entertainment appear to do so because it allows them to satisfy their need for social interaction. The dance teams, contests, music, halftime shows, and other entertainment may all present opportunities for spectators to interact with friends or other spectators. The entertainment may attract individuals who do not want to simply watch a basketball contest.

Unique Findings in USA

Interest in players was significantly more important to American spectators than Chinese spectators. This finding may reflect the individualistic nature of Americans, as opposed to the collectivistic nature of Chinese citizens. Chinese sports have traditionally emphasized the role of the team over the success of individual players (Larmer, 2005). On the other hand, the NBA has marketed the skills of its individual players rather than the teams. Players may also have been less of a factor for Chinese spectators because they were attending *CBA* games. Chinese fans view the *CBA* as an inferior league to the *NBA* (Wolff, 2002) and identify more with *NBA* teams than *CBA* teams (Menefee & Casper, 2009). These Chinese spectators do not watch *CBA* games because of their interest in players, but they may watch *NBA* games because of their interest in players.

The relationship between community pride and interest in basketball was only significant in the American sample. American spectators watch basketball because their interest in the sport satisfies a need to show community pride. Certain communities (e.g. regions, cities, or states) may be considered basketball communities, just as other communities may be considered football communities or baseball communities (Mullin, Hardy, & Sutton, 2007). Basketball, in particular, is closely associated with communities like Indiana and North Carolina (Wolff, 2002). The results showed that community pride was a strong predictor of interest in basketball for the American spectators, but not for the Chinese spectators. The popularity of a sport may be more nationalized in China, but more localized in the U.S. Because interest in basketball was a strong predictor of behavioral intentions, it can be assumed that community pride also influences the behavioral intentions of American fans according to the means-end framework. Although Chinese fans rated community pride as a more important expected consequence, community pride is more likely to lead to increased behavior for Americans.

Unique Findings in China

Entertainment was significantly more important to Chinese spectators than American spectators. This finding was surprising because the combination of entertainment and sports is often referred to as the Americanization (Donnelly, 1996; Gruneau & Whitson, 2001) or Disneyization (Andrews, 2003) of sport. Entertainment elements have diffused from American professional sports to other countries over the past few decades, but entertainment is still relatively novel to Chinese sporting events (Wolff, 2002; Thompson & Paul, 2008). The low importance attached to entertainment for American spectators may indicate that

Americans have grown tired of the excessive entertainment in their sporting events. These spectators may believe that dance teams, contests, music, and other additions overshadow the game itself. On the other hand, Chinese spectators are only beginning to experience the entertainment aspect of professional sports. Chinese citizens observed the Olympics spectacle firsthand during 2008, and Chinese basketball fans may watch NBA games on television and admire the entertainment from a distance. These factors may have all contributed to the Chinese spectators' preference for entertainment at basketball games.

Social interaction was significantly higher for Chinese spectators than Americans. Although social interaction was relatively important for spectators in both cultures, the Chinese spectators indicated that the social experience was a greater factor in their decision to watch sporting events. Chinese citizens may have fewer options to satisfy their need for social interaction, and view sporting events as a more social experience than Americans. The younger age of the Chinese spectators may have been a factor in the results as well. Older spectators view games as more of a family experience (e.g. Trail & James, 2001), while younger spectators are more likely to view basketball games as a social experience. Older fans are more likely to have children, and attend games with their children, while younger fans may attend games with friends rather than family members.

Chinese spectators who have an interest in the sport of basketball watch sports because they provide opportunities for social interaction. Basketball may be considered a social experience for Chinese spectators, but not for American fans. Chinese spectators may enjoy watching the execution of plays or athletic performances with their friends. The collectivistic nature of Chinese citizens may also drive their interest in social interaction,

which in turn leads them to watch basketball games. Basketball is a more popular sport in China than in the U.S. Other sports may provide better opportunities for social interaction in the U.S., while Chinese citizens may view basketball as their national sport and thus, a better outlet for social activities. Because interest in basketball was a strong predictor of behavioral intentions for the Chinese fans, the means-end relationship between social interaction, interest in basketball, and intentions suggests that social interaction is likely to lead to increased intentions as well.

Nationalism is also more important to Chinese spectators than American spectators. The Chinese government initiated a sport system in the early 1980s as a means of facilitating nationalism (Larmer, 2005). The Chinese government also developed their professional leagues with “Chinese characteristics” (Jones, 1999b), including professional teams affiliated with the military (Jones, 1999b; Polumbaum, 2002). Americans, on the other hand, follow professional sports more fervently than international competition. American professional sports are not associated with the government, and sports were not developed to boost national morale in the U.S. For these reasons, it was not surprising that nationalism was the lowest-rated expected consequence for the American spectators.

Finally, Chinese spectators reported higher behavioral intentions than American basketball spectators. There may be a number of factors that accounted for this difference. Price may be a factor as tickets are less expensive in China than the U.S. Behavioral intentions could also be higher if the sampled Chinese teams were more successful than the one American team used in the study. The relative novelty of Chinese professional basketball could also have produced the greater intentions. Finally, interest in basketball was the only

predictor of intentions in both countries, but Chinese spectators reported a stronger interest in the sport than American spectators. The stronger interest in the sport may have accounted for the relatively higher intentions of Chinese spectators.

Recommendations for the Field

The results indicate that a hybrid global-local strategy may be more effective for marketing to basketball fans than purely globalized or localized strategies. Spectators from around the world share certain preferences, but other preferences are unique to each culture. One of the most prominent similarities was that consumers in the two cultures favored similar values from the LOV. Even though these spectators are from different cultures, they embrace similar values because of their shared identity as basketball fans. Sports organizations could focus on these shared values in globalized marketing campaigns. Fun and enjoyment in life was especially important to both Chinese and American spectators. The NBA and CBA should emphasize the fun and enjoyment in their leagues in order to appeal to these fans. Advertisements and promotions could highlight the fun that spectators can achieve in attending basketball games in both countries. Strategies could then be developed for each market in order to focus on the specific “means” that satisfy this “end” value in each country.

There were also commonalities between attributes, consequences, and the relationships between attributes and consequences. Community pride was the most important expected consequence for spectators in China and the U.S. Individuals who watch sports to support their community are likely to watch basketball games because of the individual players in both countries. The NBA and CBA may benefit from tailoring their marketing

campaigns to local markets. Individual teams in both countries should attempt to establish close connections with their local communities, so that fans believe that their teams and players represent the local community. Teams might appeal to fans' community pride by promoting individual players. This could include providing fans with the opportunity to meet local players outside of games or featuring individual players at schools or other community events. The local community may extend beyond a team's home city as well. Franchises may use grassroots marketing tactics in other local cities or rural communities to establish a wider base of fans. If citizens outside of the home city begin to view the team as a part of *their* community, then they may follow the sport more closely in the future.

Individuals who watch sporting events for the social interaction are likely to watch basketball games for the entertainment. Teams may attract spectators who are looking for social interaction by promoting the entertainment that is available at games. The NBA could focus on the relationship between entertainment and social interaction in global marketing communications.

In both China and the U.S., an interest in the sport was the strongest predictor of intentions to consume professional basketball. In addition, interest in basketball was the highest rated focal attribute for spectators in both countries. The ultimate goal of professional basketball organizations is for fans to watch games (in person and on television) and purchase licensed merchandise. This result showed that spectators who are passionate about basketball are more likely to exhibit high levels of intentions.

Spectators in both countries are fans of the sport, and higher ratings on interest in the sport are likely to lead to increased consumption. Basketball leagues and franchises should

attempt to boost the consumption of these spectators or to raise the level of interest in basketball among other current or potential fans. Because sport preferences are often developed at early stages in life (James, 2001), grassroots campaigns could target children. Leagues and franchises should make a major effort to get children to participate in basketball at young ages. The NBA has been committed to grassroots efforts through its NBA Jam Van and other local campaigns in China. Leagues should make a stronger effort to encourage children to participate in basketball by building new basketball courts and organizing recreational leagues for children. If individuals develop a strong association to the sport of basketball at a young age, they will be more likely to remain fans and follow professional basketball when they mature. The leagues could attempt similar grassroots efforts to attract older fans as well. In China, basketball fans are more likely to be younger citizens. The NBA and CBA may hold instructional clinics or recreational leagues for adults in China, so that they can learn how to play and watch basketball.

Although there were similarities between Chinese and American spectators, the results also revealed a number of differences. One prominent distinction was that Chinese spectators were collectivistic and American spectators were individualistic. Leagues and teams may market to American fans by showing how game attendance leads to individual happiness. They may market to Chinese fans by showing how game attendance leads to the happiness for a group of people. Chinese ads could feature groups of fans enjoying a basketball game together or promotions could offer discounts for groups to purchase tickets to CBA games.

Although interest in the sport was the only key predictor of intentions for fans in both countries, two different expected consequences were important predictors of interest in basketball in the two countries. For American spectators, there is a strong link between an interest in the sport of basketball and community pride. Leagues or teams could promote the association between basketball and the local community in advertisements. Grassroots campaigns should also be effective in reaching these fans. The NBA could develop community basketball leagues that are associated with local franchises. The NBA could also target individuals who want to support their community but are not basketball fans. NBA franchises may attempt to boost the community pride of its citizens by establishing strong connections between teams and the local area. This will be important for American organizations because increases in community pride lead to a stronger interest in basketball, which then leads to higher intentions.

For Chinese spectators, there is a strong connection between interest in the sport of basketball and social interaction. Basketball can be considered a social sport in China, so franchises may attempt to develop promotions that encourage socializing. Chinese ads may also emphasize the social atmosphere at CBA games or NBA games. Sports organizations should encourage individuals who are interested in social interaction to attend games.

There were three key significant differences between the constructs in the two countries. First, individual players were a greater motivational factor for American spectators than Chinese spectators. American spectators may purchase tickets simply to watch certain players. Players did not appear to be a major motivational factor for Chinese spectators in their CBA game attendance. This could impact the marketing of professional basketball in

the two countries. Advertising campaigns or promotions could focus on individual NBA players in the U.S. Local teams could feature popular local players in advertisements and promotions for season tickets and multi-packs. Local teams could feature popular opposing players (such as Kobe Bryant or Dwight Howard) in advertisements and promotions to attract fans to individual games. The NBA has successfully marketed its individual athletes for decades, but Chinese spectators do not care about individual CBA players. This difference may have resulted from the contrast in collectivistic values of Chinese citizens and the individualistic values of American citizens. The difference may have also resulted from the lack of star players in the CBA. Many Chinese fans view CBA players as inferior to their NBA counterparts (Wolff, 2002). CBA advertising campaigns may be more effective by focusing on the entertainment, teams, or fundamentals in China. Chinese spectators are more collectivistic, so they may be more attracted to the teamwork or the teams playing in the game. Chinese spectators are also stronger fans of the sport, so they may simply want to see the sport played at a top level. However, future research will be needed to determine why Chinese spectators do not care about individual CBA players. It may be that individual players are not an attraction for Chinese fans overall or it may simply be that there are no current CBA players who are major attractions right now. The popularity of both American and Chinese NBA players in China suggests that the latter is true. In this case, Chinese basketball organizations could learn from the NBA's marketing strategy. The CBA could begin to promote its individual athletes and attempt to build them into star attractions. This might cause individual players to become a greater factor in Chinese spectators' attendance. In terms of means-end theory, consumers are more likely to change their preferences for

focal attributes than they are to change their expected consequences or preferred values.

While expected consequences and values are relatively stable over time, marketers may be able to alter consumers' opinions regarding focal attributes like individual players.

Second, nationalism was also substantially more important to Chinese spectators than American spectators. Americans may not care about showing their national pride when they watch professional sporting events, but national pride appeared to be very important to Chinese spectators. Patriotic campaigns may have a minimal impact on American NBA basketball fans, but nationalism would be effective in attracting Chinese fans. Marketing campaigns in China could highlight players from the national team or the role of basketball as a national sport in the country. The Chinese government should attempt to host major international athletic competitions and arrange for the Chinese basketball team to play international professional teams or other national teams. The NBA should include its Chinese players (Yao Ming, Sun Yue, and Yi Jianlian) in advertisements and grassroots marketing efforts in China. A commitment to developing players at a young age should lead to a larger number of Chinese players with NBA-caliber talent. Additional Chinese NBA players would raise interest in the NBA to an even greater level because Chinese citizens are proud to see their countrymen succeed.

Third, entertainment was more important to Chinese spectators than American spectators. Entertainment did not appear to be a relatively important focal attribute for Americans. This may conflict with the opinions of NBA marketing directors, who have added dance teams, Jumbotron screens, in-game promotions, drumlines, and theatrical introductions to games in recent years. Spectators care less about these additional features

than they do about their interest in the sport or individual players in the games. NBA franchises might be more effective in attracting fans by focusing on the sport itself rather than attempting to create new ways to make the event more entertaining. In contrast, Chinese spectators were more interested in the entertainment at games. CBA franchises might be successful in attracting new fans by adding more entertainment features to their games.

Overall, the importance of community pride and nationalism may present a challenge for the NBA's global growth because the league does not possess local franchises in China. One option may be for American NBA franchises to form partnerships with local CBA franchises in order to establish ties to a local community in China. Another option may be for the NBA to partner with the CBA, so that the NBA can more effectively promote community pride in Chinese communities. A partnership would provide the NBA with local Chinese connections that would improve the NBA's ability to conduct grassroots marketing campaigns and build strong Chinese team and player brands. Menefee and Casper (2009) showed that Chinese fans identified more closely with their favorite NBA teams than their favorite CBA teams; the CBA could benefit from a partnership as well. A partnership would allow the CBA to take advantage of the NBA's brand name and marketing expertise to build the brand image of the CBA league, teams, and individual players within China. With the help of the NBA, Chinese fans could develop stronger connections to individual players from their local CBA teams. Although Chinese spectators indicated that CBA players are not a major driver of their interest in attending CBA games right now, an improved marketing strategy could help turn local players into key attractions in China. The development of star

Chinese players might also help attract additional fans who are interested in watching basketball to demonstrate their community pride.

A partnership between the NBA and CBA could be effective in growing professional basketball in the two countries, but there could be potential challenges for a partnership. The CBA and the Chinese government may be reluctant to transfer partial control of their domestic league to an American corporation. Politics could prevent the NBA from expanding its business in China unless the league can guarantee the Chinese government that a partnership will be beneficial for the country and stimulate the Chinese economy. In addition, the results showed a large discrepancy between household income for Chinese spectators and American spectators. Although the cost of living is dramatically different in the two countries, the NBA may have to develop a lower-priced line of licensed merchandise that is more affordable for Chinese fans than Americans. The NBA is beginning to work with Chinese leaders to develop basketball arenas in China, but they must take into account cultural differences before constructing these arenas. There may be fewer Chinese fans or corporations with the financial means to purchase luxury suites or high-end seats than in the U.S. Despite the challenges associated with a potential partnership between the CBA and NBA, a partnership might provide benefits for both parties.

Recommendations for Future Research

Means-end theory may be useful in explaining sport spectatorship in the future. The ability to model the relationships between attributes and consequences for sports spectators provides an advantage over simple motivation research. First, means-end theory models the hierarchical relationship between attributes and consequences. Motivation studies simply

show which motives are important to sports fans. This study, instead, showed that spectators watch sports to satisfy expected consequences, and they watch specific sporting events because the focal attributes of those events are likely to result in those consequences. Second, this means-end study revealed the relationships between attributes and consequences that were not important to spectators. Marketers will find it useful to understand that certain relationships are both important and unimportant in their spectatorship. Marketers will then be able to develop campaigns that focus on key attributes and consequences. Finally, means-end theory is especially useful for cross-cultural research. Certain means-end relationships were prevalent in one country, both countries, or neither country. Marketers can then use this data to develop marketing strategies that are tailored to fit each local market. Shared consequence→attribute relationships may be standardized globally, while unique relationships may be specialized to meet the needs of a specific segment. This study only included a small selection of attributes and consequences. Other constructs may be important to spectators for specific sports or specific countries as well.

This was one of the first sport marketing studies to compare sport spectators cross-culturally. There are still a limited number of sport marketing studies that have focused on international sports, but international and global sport marketing will continue to become more important over the next decade. Leagues and franchises will increasingly pursue international growth strategies because domestic growth is limited. Satellite television and the Internet make it easier for satellite fans to follow their favorite sports and teams from far away. The number of international players in major professional leagues is growing each

year. Researchers must continue to pursue cross-cultural research projects and develop theories that describe global sport consumer behavior.

This study used a new methodology to test means-end theory with sport spectators. The advantage of this quantitative technique over qualitative approaches is that means-end relationships can be tested with large-scale samples. Cross-cultural comparisons are also possible with quantitative methods. The advantage of this technique over other quantitative means-end methods like the Association Pattern Technique is that this method did not force respondents to make connections between attributes and consequences. This technique also revealed the paths between attributes and consequences that were *not* important to spectators in each country, which qualitative laddering studies do not identify. The disadvantage of this approach is that there were no clear connections between means-end chains, which laddering and APT methods provide. This study used structural equation modeling to test the means-end paths. This new approach only allows respondents to rate attributes and consequences that were pre-selected for the means-end chains. Laddering studies may identify other constructs that respondents believe are important in their consumption decisions.

The results showed that only an interest in the sport of basketball was a significant predictor of behavioral intentions. There may be other focal attributes that predict behavioral intentions, but they were not identified in this project. Future qualitative studies may attempt to uncover other attributes that drive behavioral intentions, so that they can be tested. Certain attributes may not even be important to American spectators, but could be particularly important to international spectators. International qualitative research will be needed to identify these factors.

Family interaction and nationalism did not have positive connections to any focal attributes in either country, so future studies may explore relationships between other focal attributes and these consequences. In particular, nationalism was one of the most important expected consequences to Chinese spectators, yet there were no strong paths from nationalism to focal attributes. The results instead suggest that community pride and social interaction are greater predictors of Chinese spectators' interest in players and basketball. It is possible that nationalism may lead the Chinese fans to cheer for specific teams (such as their national team), but does not lead them to cheer for specific players.

Limitations of the Research

One of the limitations of the study was the sample size. The samples were limited to one region in each country. It is difficult to make generalizations to an entire country based on the results for one region. There may be differences between spectators in different age groups and regions within a country. The sample size was not large enough to test invariance across age groups. Fans in one region of a country may become basketball fans for different reasons than other regions. This may be especially important in China because there are large differences between urban and rural citizens, and younger and older citizens. This study only sampled spectators in an urban setting. The U.S. sample also only included spectators from one market. The success of the team may impact the results for spectators in one market, so results may differ as team success varies in other markets.

It is important to note that the focal attributes referred to Chinese spectators' reasons for attending CBA games. Chinese basketball spectators identify more closely with NBA teams than CBA teams, purchase more NBA merchandise than CBA merchandise, and watch

more NBA games than CBA games (Menefee & Casper, 2009). The spectators included in this study may watch NBA games for different reasons than CBA games. There may also be a large number of basketball fans in China that watch NBA games on television but do not attend CBA games or watch CBA games on television.

This study applied constructs identified in the literature on motivations and other prominent sport marketing research. These constructs were all developed originally for use with American spectators and then tested as a global framework in this study, so they were considered etic. Although adjustments resulted in a model that was invariant across cultures, a few hypothesized constructs and indicators were not validated cross-culturally. There is a need for future studies to incorporate emic concepts that better describe Chinese sport spectatorship. There may be additional reasons that Chinese spectators decide to watch sporting events. Chinese spectators may also conceptualize constructs in different ways. Qualitative research may help in this process. Aaker et al. (2001) advocate developing an instrument that includes measures specific to each individual market in the study, and Douglas and Craig (2006) advocate the development of models that combine etic and emic concepts. Future studies may then incorporate purely emic concepts or emic-etic approaches that will better fit global consumers than the approach used in this study.

There were problems with three constructs included in the model. The Drama and Vicarious Achievement constructs exhibited low internal consistency in both countries. These constructs were adapted from previous motivation studies in order to reflect hypothesized means-end paths for basketball spectators, but the changes may have caused spectators to view the constructs in a different way. Although the remaining expected

consequences could be considered “social” motives, these two constructs were more “personal”. In addition, the Vicarious Achievement construct was altered to reflect vicarious achievement for both teams and players. In future research, vicarious achievement should be divided into two different constructs to reflect this relationship.

The Interest in Team construct was also removed from the model. Interest in Team was highly correlated with the construct for Interest in Players in the U.S. Because the NBA has traditionally marketed its individual players (Andrews, 1999; Larmer, 2005), NBA spectators may not differ between their interest in watching specific players or specific teams. American spectators may associate individual players together with their teams, so they may not consider the teams and players to be mutually exclusive. When American spectators think of Kobe Bryant, they may instantly draw associations to the Los Angeles Lakers or when spectators think of LeBron James, they may instantly draw associations to the Cleveland Cavaliers and vice versa. NBA teams are defined by the individual players because there are only ten players on the court at one time and there are no helmets, pads, or facemasks to cover their identities. In the Chinese sample, the internal consistency for the Interest in Team construct was low. This may reflect cultural differences as the term “team” may engender a different meaning for spectators in a collectivistic culture than an individualistic culture. Emic studies will be needed to determine how Chinese spectators conceptualize “team” in relation to “players”.

The limited number of cross-cultural studies in sport management reflects the challenges in conducting this type of research. The research can be expensive, time-consuming, and difficult without the help of capable research partners in other countries.

Many sport marketing concepts were developed by American researchers, and there is still little research available on sport spectators in non-Western countries. Researchers must work to overcome these challenges and begin to develop etic/emic concepts that describe sport spectatorship in different cultures.

This project analyzed spectators who were attending games in the two countries. The sample included single game attendees, season ticketholders, multi-pack holders, and individuals with complimentary tickets. These individuals may differ in their self-assessed identity as fans of basketball. There may be differences between individuals in each ticket category. There may also be differences between individuals based on the number of years they have been fans of the sport of basketball. The results suggested that the spectators considered themselves to be fans of the sport overall, and structural equation modeling controlled for the Interest in Basketball construct. However, this study did not compare attributes and consequences based on fan identity or years as a fan of professional basketball.

Self-administered questionnaires were collected at games in the two countries. Spectators may be distracted by other people or events when they complete surveys at games. However, this method of data collection was necessary because mail distribution and online distribution were not appropriate for data collection in China. Distribution and collection at games also created challenges in developing an instrument that spectators could complete in 15 minutes. For this reason, spectators were instructed to select only one value from the LOV, instead of completing a longer instrument. Four focal attributes and six expected consequences were selected for the final model, although other constructs may be important

to spectators. Finally, only two or three indicator variables were used for the focal attribute and expected consequence constructs to shorten the survey instrument.

This study also proposed a new methodology for analyzing means-end chain relationships. Previous studies have used the laddering approach or the APT approach to uncover means-end chains. This study instead used structural equation modeling to test paths between attributes and consequences. A disadvantage of this new approach is that it does not ask respondents to make the connections between attributes and consequences, but instead assumes that there is a relationship. This approach also limited the number of hypothesized means-end chains because it only included six expected consequences and four focal attributes. There are a large number of focal attributes and expected consequences that are likely to be important to spectators, but this study focused on the constructs that were believed to be most important for basketball fans in both countries.

Because of concerns over questionnaire length, respondents were asked to select one value from the List of Values rather than rating each value separately. This meant that only nominal comparisons were appropriate for the LOV, so the results may have differed from other methods. Also, the items for attributes and consequences were mixed together instead of grouped as items within each construct on the questionnaire. Although the mixing of items was intended to reduce the bias of respondents repeatedly answering the same value for each question, this method may have reduced internal consistency as well.

Finally, this study included values, attributes, and consequences in the model. There are other factors that affect sport spectatorship. For example, constraints may play a significant role in spectatorship. Individuals may not have access to watch their favorite

sports or may not have the income to afford tickets to games. These and other constraints could prevent fans from watching their favorite sport. Although it may be difficult to include all factors that affect sport spectatorship, sport spectatorship cannot be fully described through values, attributes, and consequences.

Conclusion

This study showed that a new method could be used to illustrate means-end chains for consumers. Basketball spectators were asked about their expected consequences for choosing a particular product category (watching sporting events). They were then asked about their focal attributes for making a choice at the product level (attendance at pro basketball games). When the paths between expected consequences and focal attributes are combined with a consumer's underlying values, this forms a means-end chain. Previous studies have applied qualitative laddering methods and quantitative APT methods, but this study proposed a new methodology. Consequences and attributes were selected for sporting events and professional basketball respectively. The latent mean structure comparisons showed significant differences for the majority of the attribute and consequence constructs. The paths between the consequences and attributes also differed between countries. Inferences were then used to illustrate *why* these particular attributes and consequences were more important in each country.

Researchers have overlooked means-end theory partly because of the difficulty in collecting data and comparing large-size samples. However, this project showed that the theory could improve the study of cross-cultural sport spectatorship. Researchers do not need to be constrained by laddering methods. One of the advantages of the method used in this

study was the ability to compare the importance of constructs in both countries. The results showed which consequences were positive predictors and negative predictors of attributes for each market. Marketers may then focus on each of the elements in means-end chains to develop advertising campaigns or products that better meet consumers' needs in these countries.

Globalization will be a key to the growth of professional sports over the next decade. International fans already contribute significantly to the business of American sports leagues. In particular, China has emerged as a potential market for international basketball organizations. This study showed that Chinese basketball spectators exhibit similarities and differences with American basketball spectators. Preferences for attending basketball games may be considered "glocalized" in the two cultures. Sports organizations should be able to use global marketing campaigns that are tailored to each individual market in order to grow the sport in the future.

Finally, this study also showed that an interest in the sport of basketball was a key factor in these spectators' decisions to attend games, as well as a strong predictor of behavioral intentions. Professional leagues, schools, and local recreation organizations should encourage individuals to participate in basketball so that more citizens become fans of the sport. If more individuals begin to play basketball and develop an interest in the sport, then they may be more likely to follow the professional sport and attend games in the future. This may seem like a simple concept, but the development of recreational programs could create long-lasting benefits for professional basketball.

REFERENCES

- Aaker, J.L., Benet-Martinez, V., & Garolera, J. (2001). Consumption symbols as carriers of culture: A study of Japanese and Spanish brand personality constructs. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 81*(3), 492-508.
- Aaker, J.L., & Maheswaran, D. (1997). The effect of cultural orientation on persuasion. *Journal of Consumer Research, 24*(3), 315-328.
- Ajzen, I. (1991). Theory of planned behavior. *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes, 50*, 179-211.
- Alden, D.L., Steenkamp, J-B.E.M., & Batra, R. (1999). Brand positioning through advertising in Asia, North America, and Europe: The role of global consumer culture. *Journal of Marketing, 63*(January), 75-87.
- Alden, D.L., Steenkamp, J-B.E.M., & Batra, R. (2006). Consumer attitudes toward marketplace globalization: Structure, antecedents and consequences. *International Journal of Research in Marketing, 23*(3), 227-239.
- Andrews, D.L. (1999). Whither the NBA, whither America? *Peace Review, 11*(4), 505-510.
- Andrews, D.L. (2006). Disneyization, Debord, and the integrated NBA spectacle. *Social Semiotics, 16*(1), 89-102.
- Andrews, D.L., & Ritzer, G. (2007). The global in the sporting glocal. *Global Networks, 7*(2), 135-153.
- Appadurai, A. (1990). Disjuncture and difference in the global cultural economy. *Theory, Culture and Society, 7*(2-3), 295-310.
- Armstrong, K.L. (2003). Race and sport consumption motivations: A preliminary investigation of a black consumers' sport motivation scale. *Journal of Sport Behavior, 25*(4), 309-330.
- Bagozzi, R.P., & Yi, Y. (1988). On the evaluation of structural equation models. *Journal of Academy of Marketing Science, 16*(1), 74-94.
- Balfour, F. (2007, October 23). A slam dunk for the NBA in China. *Business Week*. Retrieved October 20, 2008 from http://www.businessweek.com/globalbiz/content/oct2007/gb20071023_180498.htm

- Barclay, D., Higgins, C., & Thompson, R.L. (1995). The partial least squares approach to causal modeling: Personal computer adoption and use as an illustration. *Technology Studies: Special Issue on Research Methodology*, 2(2), 285-324.
- Beatty, S.E., Kahle, L.R., & Homer, P. (1991). Personal values and gift-giving behavior: A study across cultures. *Journal of Business Research*, 22(2), 149-157.
- Botschen, G., Thelen, E.M., & Pieters, R. (1995). Using means-end structures for benefit segmentation. *European Journal of Marketing*, 33(1-2), 38-58.
- Brownell, S. (2000). Why should an anthropologist study sports in China? In N. Dyck (Ed.), *Games, sports and cultures* (pp. 43-63). Oxford: Berg Publishers.
- Byrne, B.M. (2001). *Structural equation modeling with AMOS: Basic concepts, applications, and programming*. Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.
- BWCSC, NBA China and AEG form strategic partnership to operate the Beijing Olympic basketball arena (2008, January 31). Retrieved March 5, 2008 from http://www.nba.com/global/nba_china_bwcsc_partner.html
- Campbell, R.M., Aiken, D., & Kent, A. (2004). Beyond BIRGing and CORFing: Continuing the exploration of fan behavior. *Sport Marketing Quarterly*, 13(3), 151-157.
- Casper, J.M., & Menefee, W.C. (2009). The impact of socialization on current and retrospective adolescent sport consumption with college students. Manuscript scheduled for publication in *International Journal of Sport Management*.
- Chan, R.Y., & Lau, L. (1998). A test of the Fishbein-Ajzen behavioral intentions model under Chinese cultural settings: Are there differences between PRC and Hong Kong consumers? *Journal of Marketing Research*, 4(3), 85-101.
- Chen, Y.-R., Brockner, J., & Katz, T. (1998). Toward an explanation of cultural differences in in-group favoritism: The role of individual versus collective primacy. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 75(6), 1490-1502.
- Clapp, C.M., & Hakes, J.K. (2005). How long a honeymoon? The effect of new stadiums on attendance in Major League Baseball. *Journal of Sport Economics*, 6(3), 237-263.
- Craig, C.S., & Douglas, S.P. (2006). Beyond national culture: Implications of cultural dynamics for consumer research. *International Marketing Review*, 23(3), 322-342.
- Cunningham, G.B., & Kwon, H. (2003). The theory of planned behaviour and intentions to attend a sporting event. *Sport Management Review*, 6(2), 127-145.

Deeter-Schmelz, D.R., & Sojka, J.Z. (2004). Wrestling with American values: An exploratory investigation of World Wrestling Entertainment as a product-based subculture. *Journal of Consumer Behaviour*, 4(2), 132-143.

Dillman, D.A. (2007). *Mail and Internet Surveys*. Hoboken, NJ: John Wiley & Sons.

Donnelly, P. (1996). The local and the global: Globalization in the sociology of sport. *Journal of Sport and Social Issues*, 20(3), 239-257.

Douglas, S.P., & Craig, C.S. (2006). On improving the conceptual foundations of international marketing research. *Journal of International Marketing*, 14(1), 1-22.

Eisenberg, D., Thomas, C.B., Baker, J., Gregory, S., Locke, L.A., & Pitluk, A. (2003, March 24). The NBA's global game plan. *Time South Pacific*, 44-46.

Euchner, C. (2008). Hoop dreams. *The American*, 2(1). Retrieved March 15, 2008 from <http://american.com/archive/2008/january-february-magazine-contents/hoop-dreams>

Fan, Y. (2000). A classification of Chinese culture. *Cross Cultural Management*, 7(2), 3-10.

Frauman, E., & Cunningham, P.H. (2001). Using a means-end approach to understand the factors that influence greenway use. *Journal of Park and Recreation Administration*, 19(3), 99-113.

Funk, D.C., & James, J.D. (2004). The Fan Attitude Network (FAN) model: Exploring attitude formation and change among sport consumers. *Sport Management Review*, 7(1), 1-26.

Funk, D.C., Mahony, D.F., & Havitz, M.E. (2003). Sport consumer behavior: Assessment and direction. *Sport Marketing Quarterly*, 12(1), 200-205.

Funk, D.C., Mahony, D.E., Nakazawa, M., & Hiraakawa, S. (2001). Development of the Sport Interest Inventory (SII): Implications for measuring unique consumer motives at team sporting events. *International Journal of Sports Marketing and Sponsorship*, 3(3), 291-314.

Funk, D.C., Mahony, D.F., & Ridinger, L.L. (2002). Characterizing consumer motivation as individual difference factors: Augmenting the Sport Interest Inventory (SII) to explain level of spectator support. *Sport Marketing Quarterly*, 11(1), 33-43.

Funk, D.C., Ridinger, L.L., & Moorman, A.M. (2004). Exploring origins of involvement: Understanding the relationship between consumer motives and involvement with professional sport teams. *Leisure Sciences*, 26(1), 35-61.

- Furst, R.T. (1971). Social change and the commercialization of professional sports. *International Review for the Sociology of Sport*, 6(1), 153-173.
- Garson, G.D. (2009a). Reliability analysis. *Statnotes: Topics in Multivariate Analysis*. Retrieved from <http://faculty.chass.ncsu.edu/garson/PA765/reliab.htm>
- Garson, G.D. (2009b). Structural equation modeling. *Statnotes: Topics in Multivariate Analysis*. Retrieved from <http://faculty.chass.ncsu.edu/garson/PA765/structur.htm>
- Goldenberg, M.A., Klenosky, D.B., O'Leary, J.T., & Templin, J.T. (2000). A means-end investigation of ropes course experiences. *Journal of Leisure Research*, 32(2), 208-224.
- Goldsmith, R.E., Freiden, J.B., & Kilsheimer, J.C. (1993). Social values and female fashion leadership: A cross-cultural study. *Psychology & Marketing*, 10(5), 399-412.
- Gruneau, R., & Whitson, D. (2001). Upmarket continentalism: Major league sport, promotional culture, and corporate integration. In V. Mosco & D. Schiller (Eds.), *Continental order? Integrating North America for cybercapitalism* (pp. 235-264). Lanham, MD: Rowman & Littlefield.
- Gutman, J. (1982). A means-end chain model based on consumer categorization. *Journal of Marketing*, 46(2), 60-72.
- Harrolle, M.G., & Trail, G.T. (2007). Ethnic identification, acculturation, and sport identification of Latinos in the United States. *International Journal of Sports Marketing and Sponsorship*, 8(3), 234-253.
- Harvey, J., & Houle, F. (1994). Sports, world economy, global culture and new social movements. *Sociology of Sport Journal*, 11(4), 337-355.
- Harvey, J., Rail, G., & Thibault, L. (1996). Globalization and sport: Sketching a theoretical model for empirical analyses. *Journal of Sport and Social Issues*, 20(3), 258-277.
- Hofstede, G. (1980). *Culture's consequences: International differences in work-related values*. Beverly Hills, CA: Sage.
- Holton, R. (2000). Globalization's cultural consequences. *Annals of the American Academy of Political and Social Science*, 570(4), 140-152.
- 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.

- Horne, J. & Manzenreiter, W. (2004). Football, culture, globalization: Why professional football has been going East. In W. Manzenreiter & J. Horne (Eds.), *Football goes East: Business, culture and the people's game in China, Japan and South Korea*, (pp. 1-17). London: Routledge.
- Hu, L., & Bentler, P.M. (1999). Cutoff criteria for fit indexes in covariance structure analysis: Conventional criteria versus new alternatives. *Structural Equation Modeling*, 6(1), 1-55.
- Hua, T. (2004). Football 'hooligans' and football supporters' culture in China. In W. Manzenreiter & J. Horne (Eds.), *Football goes East: Business, culture and the people's game in China, Japan and South Korea*, (pp. 87-101). London: Routledge.
- Hui, C.H., & Triandis, H.C. (1986). Individualism-collectivism: A study of cross-cultural researchers. *Journal of Cross-Cultural Psychology*, 17(2), 225-248.
- James, J. D. (2001). The role of cognitive development and socialization in the initial development of team loyalty. *Leisure Sciences*, 23(4), 233-261.
- James, J.D., & Ridinger, L.L. (2002). Female and male sport fans: A comparison of sport consumption motives. *Journal of Sport Behavior*, 25(3), 260-278.
- James, J.D., & Ross, S.D. (2004). Comparing sport consumer motivations across multiple sports. *Sport Marketing Quarterly*, 13(1), 17-25.
- Janoff, B. (2008, August 12). Kobe Bryant tops NBA jersey sales in China. *Brandweek*. Retrieved September 20, 2008 from http://www.brandweek.com/bw/content_display/news-and-features/retail-restaurants/e3idfed28cc72bd8cb6bc6d7c105eb7c1aa
- Jones, R. (1999b). The emergence of professional sport – the case of soccer. In J. Riordan & R. Jones (Eds.), *Sport and physical education in China*, (pp. 90-119). London: Taylor & Francis.
- Jones, R. (2004). Football in the People's Republic of China. In Manzenreiter, W., & Horne, J. (2004). In W. Manzenreiter & J. Horne (Eds.), *Football goes East: Business, culture and the people's game in China, Japan and South Korea*, (54-66). London: Routledge.
- Kaciak, E., & Cullen, C.W. (2006). Analysis of means-end chain data in marketing research. *Journal of Targeting, Measurement and Analysis for Marketing*, 15(1), 12-20.
- Kahle, L.R. (1983). *Social Values and Social Change: Adaptation to Life in America*. Praeger: New York, NY.

- Kahle, L.R., Beatty, S.E., & Homer, P. (1986). Alternative measurement approaches to consumer values: The list of values (LOV) and value and life style (VALS). *Journal of Consumer Research*, 13(3), 405-409.
- Kahle, L., Duncan, M., Dalakas, V., & Aiken, D. (2001). The social values of fans for men's versus women's university basketball. *Sport Marketing Quarterly*, 10(2), 156-162.
- Kahle, L.R., Kambara, K.M., & Rose, G.M. (1996). A functional model of fan attendance motivations for college football. *Sport Marketing Quarterly*, 5(4), 51-60.
- Kahle, L.R., & Kennedy, P. (1988). Using the List of Values (LOV) to understand consumers. *Journal of Services Marketing*, 2(4), 49-56.
- Kahle, L.R., Poulos, B., & Sukhdial, A. (1988). Changes in social values in the United States during the past decade. *Journal of Advertising Research*, 28(1), 35-41.
- Kahle, L.R., Rose, G., & Shoham, A. (2000). Findings of LOV throughout the world, and other evidence of cross-national consumer psychographics: Introduction. *Journal of Euromarketing*, 8(1-2), 1-14.
- Kamakura, W.A., & Novak, T.P. (1992). Value-system segmentation: Exploring the meaning of LOV. *Journal of Consumer Research*, 19(1), 119-131.
- Kerr, A.K., & Gladden, J.M. (2008). Extending the understanding of professional team brand equity to the global marketplace. *International Journal of Sport Management and Marketing*, 3(1-2), 58-77.
- Kim, J.-O., Forsythe, S., Gu, Q., & Moon, S.J. (2002). Cross-cultural consumer values, needs and purchase behavior. *Journal of Consumer Marketing*, 19(6), 481-502.
- Klenosky, D.B. (2002). The "pull" of tourism destinations: A means-end investigation. *Journal of Travel Research*, 40(4), 385-395.
- Klenosky D.B., Gengler, C.E., & Mulvey, M.S. (1993). Understanding the factors influencing ski destination choice: A means-end analytic approach. *Journal of Leisure Research*, 25(4), 362-379.
- Kline, R.B. (2005). *Principles and Practice of Structural Equation Modeling (2nd ed.)*. New York: Guilford Press.
- Kobe Bryant has top-selling jersey in China. (2007, March 20). Retrieved February 15, 2008 from <http://www.nba.com/news/chinajerseys.html>

- Larmer, B. (2005). *Operation Yao Ming: The Chinese sports empire, American big business, and the making of an NBA superstar*. Hudson, NY: Gotham Books.
- Law, A., Harvey, J., & Kemp, S. (2002). The global sport mass media oligopoly: The three usual suspects and more. *International Review for the Sociology of Sport*, 37(3-4), 279-302.
- Lee, C., & Green, R.T. (1991). Cross-cultural examination of the Fishbein behavioral intentions model. *Journal of International Business Studies*, 22(2), 289-305.
- Levitt, T. (1983). The globalization of markets. *Harvard Business Review*, 83(3), 92-102.
- Li, C.-L., Chick, G.E., Zinn, H.C., Absher, J.D., & Graefe, A.R. (2007). Ethnicity as a variable in leisure research. *Journal of Leisure Research*, 39(3), 514-545.
- Liu, B.S.-C., Furrer, O., & Susharshan, D. (2001). The relationship between culture and behavioral intentions toward services. *Journal of Service Research*, 4(2), 118-129.
- Luna, D., & Gupta, S.F. (2001). An integrative framework for cross-cultural consumer behavior. *International Marketing Review*, 18(1), 45-69.
- MacCallum, R.C., Browne, M.W., & Sugawara, H.M. (1996). Power analysis and determination of sample size for covariance structure modeling. *Psychological Methods*, 1(2), 130-149.
- Maguire, J. (1999). *Global sport: Identities, societies, civilizations*. Cambridge: Polity.
- Maheswaran, D., & Shavitt, S. (2000). Issues and new directions in global consumer psychology. *Journal of Consumer Psychology*, 9(2), 59-66.
- Mahony, D.F., Nakazawa, M., Funk, D.C., James, J.D., & Gladden, J.M. (2002). Motivational factors influencing the behaviour of J. League spectators. *Sport Management Review*, 5(1), 1-24.
- Markus, H.R., and Kitayama, S. (1991). Culture and the self: Implications for cognition, emotion, and motivation. *Psychological Review*, 98(2), 224-253.
- 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.

- McCort, D.J., & Malhotra, N.K. (1993). Culture and consumer behavior: Toward an understanding of cross-cultural consumer behavior in international marketing. *Journal of International Consumer Marketing*, 6(2), 91-127.
- McIntosh, A.J., & Prentice, R.C. (2004). Affirming authenticity: Consuming cultural heritage. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 26(3), 589-612.
- Mehus, I. (2005). Sociability and excitement motives of spectators attending entertainment sport events: Spectators of soccer and ski-jumping. *Journal of Sport Behavior*, 28(4), 333-350.
- Menefee, W.C., & Casper, J.M. (2009). Professional Basketball Fans in China: A Comparison of National Basketball Association & Chinese Basketball Association Team Identification. Manuscript submitted for publication, North Carolina State University.
- Mullen, M.R. (1995). Diagnosing measurement equivalence in cross-national research. *Journal of International Business Studies*, 26(3), 573-597.
- Mullin, B.J., Hardy, S., & Sutton, W.A. (2007). *Sport Marketing* (3rd ed.). Champaign, IL: Human Kinetics.
- Mulvey, M.S., Olson, J.C., Celsi, R.L., & Walker, B.A. (1994). Exploring the relationship between means-end knowledge and involvement. *Advances in Consumer Research*, 21(1), 51-57.
- Myers, M.B. Calantone, R.J., Page, T.J., & Taylor, C.R. (2000). Academic insights: An application of multiple-group causal models in assessing cross-cultural measurement equivalence. *Journal of International Marketing*, 8(4), 108-121.
- Oyserman, D., Coon, H.M., & Kemmelmeier, M. (2002). Rethinking individualism and collectivism: Evaluation of theoretical assumptions and meta-analyses. *Psychological Bulletin*, 128(1), 3-72.
- Polumbaum, J. (2002). From evangelism to entertainment: The YMCA, the NBA, and the evolution of Chinese basketball. *Modern Chinese Literature and Culture*, 4(1), 178-230.
- Reynolds, T.J., & Gutman, T.J. (1988). Laddering theory, method, analysis, and interpretation. *Journal of Advertising Research*, 28(1), 11-31.
- Ritzer, G. (1993). *The McDonaldization of society*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Pine Forge.
- Ritzer, G. (2003). Rethinking globalization: Glocalization/globalization and something/nothing. *Sociological Theory*, 21(3), 193-209.

Rogers, E.M. (1983). *Diffusion of Innovations*, New York: The Free Press.

Shortened season, lack of stars will impact CBA revenues. (2007, October 24). *People's Daily Online*. Retrieved December 15, 2007, from <http://english.peopledaily.com.cn/90001/90779/90870/6289753.html>.

Singelis, T.M. (1994). The measurement of independent and interdependent self-construals. *Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin*, 20(5), 580-591.

Sirdeshmukh, D., Lentz, P., Nijssen, E., Singh, J. and Holzmuller, H. (2005, February). A cross-national study of consumer-firm exchange relationships within the context of market milieus. Presented at AMA Winter Educators' Conference, San Antonio, Texas.

Sojka, J.Z., & Tansuhaj, P.S. (1995). Cross-cultural consumer research: A twenty-year review. *Advances in Consumer Research*, 22(1), 461-474.

Steenkamp, J-B.E.M. (2001). The role of national culture in international marketing research. *International Marketing Review*, 18(1), 30-44.

Steenkamp, J-B.E.M., & Baumgartner, H. (1998). Assessing measurement invariance in cross-national consumer research. *Journal of Consumer Research*, 25(1), 78-90.

Steenkamp, J-B.E.M., & Ter Hofstede, F. (2002) International market segmentation: issues and perspectives. *International Journal of Research in Marketing*, 19(3), 185-213.

Steenkamp, J-B.E.M., Ter Hofstede, F., & Wedel, M. (1999). A cross-national investigation into the individual and national cultural antecedents of consumer-innovativeness. *Journal of Marketing*, 63(2), 55-69.

Stern predicts 'minimum of one' NBA regular-season game in London by 2012. (2008, October 12). Retrieved May 1, 2009, from ESPN Web site: <http://sports.espn.go.com/nba/news/story?id=3639848>

Sun, T., Horn, M., & Merritt, D. (2004). Values and lifestyles of individualists and collectivists: A study on Chinese, Japanese, British and US consumers. *Journal of Consumer Marketing*, 21(5), 318-331.

Ter Hofstede, F., Audenaert, A., Steenkamp, J.B.E.M., & Wedel, M. (1999a). An investigation into the association pattern technique as a quantitative approach to measuring means-end chains. *International Journal of Research in Marketing*, 15(1), 37-50.

Ter Hofstede, F., Steenkamp, J-B.E.M., & Wedel (1999b). International market segmentation based on consumer-product relations. *Journal of Marketing Research*, 36(1), 1-17.

Thompson, A. (2007, September 19). NBA plans expansion with China unit; League to tap Chen as CEO of new group as it seeks larger presence in nation. *Wall Street Journal*, p. B11.

Thompson, A., & Fong, M. (2006, August 25). Can half a billion Chinese be wrong? The NBA hopes not. *Wall Street Journal*, p. A9.

Thompson, A., & Paul, A. (2008, January 11). NBA uses local allure to push planned league in China. *Wall-Street Journal*, p. B1.

Thyne, M. (2000). The importance of values research for nonprofit organizations: The motivation-based values of museum visitors. *International Journal of Nonprofit and Voluntary Sector Marketing*, 6(2), 116-130.

Trail, G.T., Anderson, D.F., & Fink (2000). A theoretical model of sport spectator consumption behavior. *International Journal of Sport Management*, 1(3), 154-180.

Trail, G.T., Fink, J.S., & Anderson, D.F. (2003). Sport spectator consumption behavior. *Sport Marketing Quarterly*, 12(1), 8-16.

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.

Triandis, H.C. (2001). Individualism-collectivism and personality. *Journal of Personality*, 69(6), 907-924.

Triandis, H.C., Chen, X.P., & Chan, D.K.-S. (1998). Scenarios for the measurement of collectivism and individualism. *Journal of Cross-Cultural Psychology*, 29(2), 275-289.

Triandis, H.C., & Gelfand, M.J. (1998). *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 74(1), 118-128.

Turner, B.S. (2003). McDonaldization: Linearity and liquidity in consumer cultures. *American Behavioral Scientist*, 47(2), 137-153.

Uemukai, K., Takenouchi, T., Okuda, E., Matsumoto, M., & Yamanaka, K. (1995). Analysis of the factors affecting spectators' identification with professional football teams in Japan. *Journal of Sports Sciences*, 13, 522.

Ullman, J.B (2007). Structural equation modeling. In Tabachnik, B.G., & Fidell, L.S. (2007). *Using Multivariate Statistics (5th ed.)*: 676-780. Boston, MA: Allyn & Bacon.

- Vinson, D.E., Scott, J.E., & Lamont, L.M. (1977). The role of personal values in marketing and consumer behavior. *Journal of Marketing*, 41(2), 44-50.
- Vriens, M., & Ter Hofstede, F. (2000). Linking attributes, benefits, and consumer values. *Marketing Research*, 12(3), 4-10.
- Wagner, E.A. (1990). Sport in Asia and Africa: Globalization or mundialization? *Sociology of Sport Journal*, 7, 399-402.
- Wang, C.L., Bristol, T., Mowen, J.C., & Cakraborty, G. (2000). Alternative modes of self-construal: Dimensions of connectedness—separateness and advertising appeals to the cultural and gender-specific self. *Journal of Consumer Psychology*, 9(2), 107-115.
- Wann, D.L. (1995). Preliminary validation of the sport fan motivation scale. *Journal of Sport and Social Issues*, 19(4), 377-396.
- Wann, D.L., & Branscombe, N.R. (1993). Sports fans: Measuring degree of identification with their team. *International Journal of Sport Psychology*, 24, 1-17.
- Wann, D.L., Grieve, F.G., Zaplac, R.K., & Pease, D.G. (2008). Motivational profiles of sport fans of different sports. *Sport Marketing Quarterly*, 17(1), 6-19.
- Wann, D.L., Melnick, M.J., Russell, G.W., & Pease, D.G. (2001). *Sports Fans: The Psychology and Social Impact of Spectators*. New York: Routledge.
- Wedel, M., Ter Hofstede, F., & Steenkamp, J.B.E.M. (1998). Mixture model analysis of complex samples. *Journal of Classification*, 15(2), 225-244.
- Whitson, D. (1998). Circuits of promotion: Media, marketing and the globalization of sport. In L.A. Wenner (Ed.), *MediaSport* (pp. 57-72). New York: Routledge.
- Whittell, I. (2008, December 14). 'Arena spurt' accelerates NBA's European expansion. Retrieved May 10, 2009 from <http://www.guardian.co.uk/sport/2008/dec/14/ussport>.
- Wolff, A. (2002). *Big Game, Small World: A Basketball Adventure*. New York: Warner Books.
- Won, J., & Kitamura, K. (2007). Comparative analysis of sport consumer motivations between South Korea and Japan. *Sport Marketing Quarterly*, 16(2), 93-105.
- Wu, Y. (1999). *China's Consumer Revolution: The Emerging Patterns of Wealth and Expenditure*. Cheltenham, UK: Edward Elgar Publishing.

Yang, K. (2007). *Voice of the Customer: Capture and Analysis*. New York: McGraw-Hill.

Yoh, T. (2005). Parent, peer and TV influences on teen athletic shoe purchasing. *The Sport Journal*, 8(1). Retrieved from http://www.thesportjournal.org/2005Journal/Vol8-No1/taeho_yo.asp.

Zeithaml, V.A. (1988). Consumer perceptions of price, quality, and value: A means-end model and synthesis of evidence. *Journal of Marketing*, 52(3), 2-22.

Zhou, N., & Belk, R.W. (2004). Chinese consumer readings of global and local advertising appeals. *Journal of Advertising*, 33(3), 63-76.

Appendices

Appendix A

Copy of NBA Questionnaire

We are conducting a survey to learn more about your interests. **By completing this, you will be entered into a drawing for an authentic autographed jersey.** The survey should only take about 5-10 minutes of your time. Thank you for participating. Just leave this under your seat & we'll pick it up after the game.

Please list your favorite NBA team: _____

How many years have you been a fan of your favorite NBA team? _____

How many Bobcats games do you attend per season? _____

How many Bobcats games do you watch on television per season? _____

The following statements are related to why you watch **sporting events**. For each question, consider all sporting events that you watch. Please rate the responses from 1 (strongly agree) to 5 (strongly disagree)

	Strongly Agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
A game is more enjoyable to me when the outcome is not decided until the very end	1	2	3	4	5
I prefer to watch sporting events that involve local players and teams	1	2	3	4	5
I prefer to watch teams and players that are successful	1	2	3	4	5
Interacting with other fans is a very important part of watching sporting events	1	2	3	4	5
I enjoy watching sports because I can cheer for my home country	1	2	3	4	5
I enjoy watching sports because they are a good family activity	1	2	3	4	5
I feel like I have won when my favorite team or player wins	1	2	3	4	5
Watching sports allows me to feel like I'm a part of the community	1	2	3	4	5
Watching sports is a great way to show my patriotism	1	2	3	4	5
An important reason why I go to games is the excitement of two teams "battling" to the end	1	2	3	4	5
Sporting events provide great opportunities to socialize with other people	1	2	3	4	5
An important reason why I attend sporting events is to spend time with my family	1	2	3	4	5
Sports allow me to show support for my country	1	2	3	4	5
I enjoy watching sports because they allow me to spend time with my friends	1	2	3	4	5
I enjoy watching games that I think will be close	1	2	3	4	5
I enjoy sporting events more when my favorite team or player does well	1	2	3	4	5
Sporting events are a great way for my family to spend time together	1	2	3	4	5
Sporting events are a great way to show my support for the local community	1	2	3	4	5

The following questions are related to why you attend **basketball games**. Please rate the responses from 1 (strongly agree) to 5 (strongly disagree)

	Strongly Agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
It is important that there be a lot of extra entertainment at basketball games	1	2	3	4	5
There are certain players that make me want to attend basketball games	1	2	3	4	5
First and foremost, I consider myself a fan of basketball	1	2	3	4	5
I enjoy watching basketball because of the teams playing in the game	1	2	3	4	5
I am a huge fan of basketball in general	1	2	3	4	5
Basketball is a great sport to watch because of the individual players	1	2	3	4	5
I want to see more entertainment than just basketball when I attend games	1	2	3	4	5
I attend games when I am interested in one of the teams playing	1	2	3	4	5
I enjoy basketball games because there is a lot of entertainment besides the sport	1	2	3	4	5
The team is an important factor when I decide to attend basketball games	1	2	3	4	5
I attend games when there's a player I want to see playing	1	2	3	4	5
I enjoy watching games because I love basketball	1	2	3	4	5

Please mark a point on the scale that reflects your opinion about the following statements.
Overall, considering the prices I pay and effort I make to attend NBA games, I believe that NBA games...

Provide very good value	— — — — —	Provide very poor value
Are a very good deal	— — — — —	Are a very poor deal
Are very worthwhile	— — — — —	Are not at all worthwhile

	Strongly Agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
I plan to attend more NBA games <i>this</i> season	1	2	3	4	5
I plan to attend more NBA games <i>next</i> season	1	2	3	4	5
I plan to recommend that friends and family attend NBA games	1	2	3	4	5
I plan to purchase NBA merchandise	1	2	3	4	5

The following is a list of values that some people look for or want out of life. Please study the list carefully and then mark the box for the one thing that is most important in your daily life.

- Self-respect
- Security
- Warm relationships with others
- Sense of accomplishment
- Self-fulfillment
- Being well-respected
- Sense of belonging
- Fun and enjoyment in life

Please rate the following statements from 1 (strongly agree) to 5 (strongly disagree).

	Strongly Agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
My happiness depends on the happiness of those around me	1	2	3	4	5
I enjoy being unique and different from others	1	2	3	4	5
It is important for me to respect decisions made by those around me	1	2	3	4	5
I prefer to be direct and forthright with people I've just met	1	2	3	4	5
It is important that my actions are consistent with those around me	1	2	3	4	5
My personal identity, independent of others, is very important to me	1	2	3	4	5
I am comfortable with being singled out for praise or rewards	1	2	3	4	5
I believe that collective accomplishments are more important than my own accomplishments	1	2	3	4	5

Age _____

Gender: Male Female

ZIP Code _____

Estimated yearly household income _____

Ticket Holder Type: Season Single Game Multi-pack Complimentary ticket

Thank you for completing the survey. If you would like to enter a drawing for an autographed Bobcats jersey, please provide your **e-mail**: _____

Appendix B

Copy of CBA Questionnaire (in Chinese)

为进一步了解篮球球迷的兴趣，我们为此展开一项调查。我们将会严格保守在此项研究中收集的所有信息，保证其不被泄露。并且不会在此调查研究的口头或书面报告中涉及到您。您仅需**五分钟**左右的时间就可以完成本问卷。十分感谢您的参与。

请写出你喜欢的 CBA 球队： _____

你成为最喜欢的CBA球队的球迷有多少年了？ _____

你多久去现场观看一次CBA 比赛？ _____

请写出你喜欢的 NBA 球队： _____

你作为最喜欢的NBA球队的球迷有多少年了？ _____

以下描述是关于你观看篮球赛的原因

请选出最符合你的情况（从1为非常同意，到5为非常不同意）

	非常同意	比较同意	一般	不同意	非常不同意
篮球比赛上有很多额外的娱乐项目是很重要的	1	2	3	4	5
我是因为喜欢某个明星球员才到现场观看比赛	1	2	3	4	5
首先我认为自己是一个篮球球迷	1	2	3	4	5
我喜欢看篮球比赛是因为篮球比赛中有团队合作的精神	1	2	3	4	5
总体来说我是个铁杆篮球球迷	1	2	3	4	5
篮球赛是因为个人表现所以才精彩	1	2	3	4	5
我在观看比赛的时候除了篮球本身，还期待更多娱乐消遣	1	2	3	4	5
当有我喜欢的球队比赛的时候，我就会去看	1	2	3	4	5
我喜欢看篮球赛是因为除了体育运动，里面还有很多娱乐元素	1	2	3	4	5
对我来说观看一场球赛，主要取决于哪个球队参赛	1	2	3	4	5
我观看比赛是因为想看某个球员的表现	1	2	3	4	5
我热爱篮球运动，所以很喜欢看篮球赛	1	2	3	4	5
比起CBA，我更喜欢看NBA	1	2	3	4	5
我经常在电视上看篮球赛	1	2	3	4	5
我看NBA是因为那里有我国的球员	1	2	3	4	5
我偶尔会去现场观赛	1	2	3	4	5
我喜欢看篮球是因为想看团队合作	1	2	3	4	5

以下描述是关于观看笼统体育比赛的原因。

回答每个问题时，请考虑到你观看的所有体育运动。请选出最符合你的情况（从1为非常同意，到5为非常不同意）

	非常同意	比较同意	一般	不同意	非常不同意
对我来说直到最后一刻才分胜负的比赛更加精彩	1	2	3	4	5
我更喜欢看有本地球队和球员的比赛	1	2	3	4	5
我更喜欢成绩更好球队和球员的比赛	1	2	3	4	5
看体育比赛的时候，和其他球迷互动是非常重要的部分	1	2	3	4	5
我喜欢看体育比赛因为我可以为自己的祖国喝彩	1	2	3	4	5
我喜欢看体育比赛是因为这是项不错的家庭活动	1	2	3	4	5
当我最喜欢的球队或者球员胜出的时候，我觉得自己也有赢了的感觉	1	2	3	4	5
观看比赛让我觉得对本地城市有种认同感	1	2	3	4	5
观看体育比赛是为祖国加油的一种很好方式	1	2	3	4	5
对我来说观赛的重要原因是能享受两个队至始至终抗争的乐趣	1	2	3	4	5
体育比赛提供了与人交往的平台	1	2	3	4	5
我观看体育比赛一个很重要的原因是能和家人共处	1	2	3	4	5
体育比赛是我能表达对祖国支持的一种方式	1	2	3	4	5
我喜欢看体育比赛是因为可以跟朋友在一起	1	2	3	4	5
我喜欢看势均力敌的比赛	1	2	3	4	5
在我最喜欢的球队或者球员表现出色的时候，我就更加喜欢他（们）	1	2	3	4	5
体育比赛是个和家人共处的好方式	1	2	3	4	5
体育运动可以成为我支持本地城市的一种方式	1	2	3	4	5

以下是一些人生活中认可或追求的价值观念，请仔细阅读，并圈出对你日常生活中最重要的一个

- 1、自尊 ()
- 2、安全感 ()
- 3、与他人融洽的关系 ()
- 4、成就感 ()
- 5、自我实现 ()
- 6、被人尊重 ()
- 7、归属感 ()
- 8、生活中的乐趣和享受 ()

请选出以下描述最符合你的情况

总体来说，基于我在CBA比赛上的开销以及到现场观看比赛的情况，我认为CBA球赛：

提供了很好的价值 ___ ___ ___ ___ ___ 意义不大
 钱花的物有所值 ___ ___ ___ ___ ___ 钱花的很不值
 很值得花费时间精力 ___ ___ ___ ___ ___ 很不值得花费时间精力

请选出最符合你的情况（从1为非常同意，到5为非常不同意）

	非常同意	比较同意	一般	不同意	非常不同意
我的快乐很容易受到周围人的影响	1	2	3	4	5
我乐于表现个性，有别于其他人	1	2	3	4	5
对我来说尊重周围人的决定非常重要	1	2	3	4	5
我倾向于和刚认识的人就直截了当的交流	1	2	3	4	5
对我来说我和周围的人行为的一致非常重要	1	2	3	4	5
我的与众不同的个性，对我来说很重要	1	2	3	4	5
我更乐意单独接受赞扬和鼓励	1	2	3	4	5
我相信集体的成功比我一个人的成功更重要	1	2	3	4	5

	非常同意	比较同意	一般	不同意	非常不同意
我计划还观看本赛季的CBA比赛	1	2	3	4	5
我计划下个赛季观看更多的CBA比赛	1	2	3	4	5
我准备推荐朋友和家人也观看CBA比赛	1	2	3	4	5
我准备购买CBA的商品	1	2	3	4	5

年龄 _____ 性别 <input type="checkbox"/> 男 <input type="checkbox"/> 女 邮编 _____ 家庭大概年收入 _____ 持票类别: <input type="checkbox"/> 赛季票 <input type="checkbox"/> 单场球赛 <input type="checkbox"/> 组票 <input type="checkbox"/> 赠票

Appendix C

Copy of Internal Review Board Approval Letter

NC STATE UNIVERSITY

Campus Box 7514
Raleigh, North Carolina 27695-7514

919.515.2444 (phone)
919.515.7721 (fax)

From: Joseph Rabiega, IRB Coordinator
North Carolina State University
Institutional Review Board

Date: February 4, 2009

Project Title: Means-End Study of American Basketball Fans

IRB#: 70-09-01

Dear Chad:

The research proposal named above has received administrative review and has been approved as exempt from the policy as outlined in the Code of Federal Regulations (Exemption: 46.101.b.2). Provided that the only participation of the subjects is as described in the proposal narrative, this project is exempt from further review.

NOTE:

1. This committee complies with requirements found in Title 45 part 46 of The Code of Federal Regulations. For NCSU projects, the Assurance Number is: FWA00003429.
2. Any changes to the research must be submitted and approved by the IRB prior to implementation.
3. If any unanticipated problems occur, they must be reported to the IRB office within 5 business days.

Please provide a copy of this letter to your faculty sponsor.

Sincerely,

Joseph Rabiega
NCSU IRB