

CHAPTER 4

Motivation and Sport Fandom

When thinking about sport fans, an important question we should be asking is “Why are people interested in sport generally and sport teams more specifically?” Or, in the context of the PCM, “Why do people form psychological connections with sport objects?” Trail and James (2015) write about **needs, values, and goals as drivers of sport consumer behavior, providing part of an answer to these “why” questions.** They note that there are a variety of variables sport researchers have studied that are believed to help explain the connection people form with sport objects. We typically refer to these variables as motives, and although they likely could also be characterized as needs, values, or goals, we will continue to describe them as motives to remain consistent with the extensive literature on this topic.

In his chapter “The Motives of Sports Fans,” Sloan (1989) described five categories of theories thought to be related to sport motivation: **salubrious effect theories** (those focused on pleasure and well-being), **stress and stimulation seeking approaches** (those related to the desire to experience positive stress or “eustress”), **theories of catharsis and aggression** (the reduction of stress through aggression), **entertainment theories** (approaches involving a desire for aesthetically pleasing experiences), and **achievement seeking** (those concerning a desire for prestige through victory). Although other approaches to sport fan motivation can be found (e.g., McDonald, Milne, & Hong, 2002; Sack, Singh, & DiPaola, 2009), Sloan’s writing served as the foundation for the majority of work on fan motivation (e.g., Funk, Mahony, & Ridinger, 2002; Trail & James, 2001; Wann, 1995).

Common Sport Fan Motives

Trail and James (2015) reported that over 40 different motives have been included in the study of sport fan motivation. Although this is an impressive figure, it may be an underestimate. In truth, an entire book could be devoted just to the motives that influence a person’s interest in sport fandom. However, our goal is not to provide an exhaustive treatise on all possible fan motives. We have focused instead on what are likely the eight most commonly investigated factors. Although there is some variation in labeling among different authors, these motives are commonly referred to as group affiliation, family, aesthetic, self-esteem, eustress, acquisition

of knowledge, escape, and entertainment (a brief description of each can be found in Table 4.1). Our selection of these motives was based on their frequent inclusion in literature, and, as you will read later in this chapter, each of these factors has been incorporated into standard measures assessing fan motivation.

When reviewing research pertaining to sport fan motivation, it becomes readily apparent that a large volume of work examines this topic. In fact, a simple Google search for scholarly articles using the phrase "sport fan motives" produced almost 40,000 hits. Although we do not believe there are 40,000 discrete scholarly works, it is reasonable to conclude there has been, and still is, substantial interest in the study of sport fan motives. A key factor leading to this large volume of work is that fans of different sports exhibit differential motivational profiles (Wann, Grieve, Zapalac, & Pease, 2008). That is, researchers have examined how different motives can drive the interest of fans of different sports.

TABLE 4.1 The Eight Motives Included in the SFMS, MSSG, and/or the SII

Motive	Description
Group affiliation (social interaction; socialization)	Individual is motivated to consume sport because doing so provides an opportunity to spend time with others.
Family (bonding with family)	Individual is motivated to consume sport because doing so provides an opportunity to spend time with family members.
Aesthetic	Individual is motivated to consume sport because doing so provides an opportunity to enjoy the artistic beauty and grace of sport movements.
Self-esteem (achievement; vicarious achievement)	Individual is motivated to consume sport because doing so provides an opportunity to feel better about oneself through association with the success of others (e.g., an athlete or sport team).
Eustress (drama)	Individual is motivated to consume sport because doing so provides an opportunity to enjoy the excitement and arousal felt while consuming, particularly in relation to the excitement and uncertainty of outcome associated with sporting events.
Acquisition of knowledge (sport knowledge)	Individual is motivated to consume sport because doing so provides an opportunity to satisfy a desire to gain knowledge.
Escape	Individual is motivated to consume sport because doing so provides a diversion from the rest of his or her life.
Entertainment	Individual is motivated to consume sport because doing so provides an opportunity to be engaged in an enjoyable pastime.

In fact, researchers have investigated the motives of fans of traditional sports such as football, baseball, basketball, and ice hockey, as well as college-level, minor league, and women's sports. Researchers have even investigated the profiles for fan involvement in fantasy sports (e.g., Billings & Ruibley, 2013; Lee, Seo, & Green, 2013; Spinda, Wann, & Sollitto, 2012), use of sport-related mobile phone applications, (Kang, Ha, & Hambrick, 2015), consumption of sport online (Seo & Green, 2008), and communication via Facebook (Stavros, Meng, Westberg, & Farrelly, 2014). To make matters even more complicated, persons from different demographic groups often report different motivational profiles (e.g., Armstrong, 2002b; Bilyeu & Wann, 2002; James, Fujimoto, Ross, & Matsuoka, 2009; Ridinger & Funk, 2006). For example, female fans are more likely than male fans to be motivated by the opportunity to spend time with family, while males report higher levels of aesthetic, self-esteem, and eustress motivation (Wann, Schrader, & Wilson, 1999). To describe and explain the motivational profiles for each sport and demographic group would be a truly monumental task, one far beyond the scope of this chapter. However, to give the reader a sense of the breadth of this literature, several examples of sport-specific studies can be found in Table 4.2. This is by no means an exhaustive list; rather, it simply portrays the vast amount of work done.

TABLE 4.2 A Sample of Sport-Specific Investigations of Sport Fan Motivation

Focus	Reference
Minor league hockey	Andrew, Koo, Hardin, and Greenwell (2009)
Mixed martial arts	Kim, Greenwell, Andrew, Lee, and Mahony (2008)
Women's professional basketball	Funk, Ridinger, and Moorman (2003)
Women's professional tennis	Sack, Singh, and DiPaola (2009)
Professional baseball	Hong, McDonald, Yoon, and Fujimoto (2005)
Professional wrestling	Ashley, Dollar, Wigley, Gillentine, and Daughtrey (2000)
NASCAR racing	Roy, Goss, and Jubenville (2010)
Ski jumping	Mehus (2005)
College baseball	Allen, Drane, and Byon (2010)
College football	Pan and Baker (2005)
College basketball	Ridinger and Funk (2006)
College hockey	Ferreira and Armstrong (2004)
College wheelchair basketball	Cottingham, Phillips, Hall, Gearity, and Carroll (2014)
College wrestling	Cooper (2011)
Soccer	Correia and Esteves (2007)

Returning to our discussion of the eight common motives, we can now provide information about each. Remember, these are not the only motives of sport fans to consider. We have focused on the eight motives listed in Table 4.1 because they are included in the primary scales used by researchers to assess the motives of sport fans. After presenting information about these motives, we will turn our attention to the scales that have been used most often to study the motives of sport fans.

The Group Affiliation Motive

Sport fandom is a social activity. Whether it occurs at home, a restaurant, a bar, or the arena, sport tends to be consumed in a group environment. For instance, Schurr and his colleagues (Schurr et al., 1985, 1988) found that greater than 95 percent of spectators attending college basketball games purchased tickets next to friends. For some individuals, it is precisely the social nature of sport fandom they find attractive. Such people are driven by the group affiliation motive, that is, a desire to spend time with others in a fan environment (Guttman, 1986; Kelley & Tian, 2004; Melnick, 1993; Sloan, 1989). Humans are social beings, a fact reflected in a number of classic theories of motivation (Alderfer, 1972; Fromm, 1941; Maslow, 1970). As noted in Chapter 1, sport fandom can help fulfill the basic human need for social interaction by providing a sense of belonging. The fact that most spectators consume sport as a member of a social group illustrates that fans do indeed use sport fandom to satisfy social interaction needs.

The Family Motive

The family motive concerns involvement as a sport fan because it provides an opportunity to spend time with family members (Evaggelinou & Grekinis, 1998; Gantz & Wenner, 1995; Guttman, 1986; Weiller & Higgs, 1997). As one would expect, this motive is particularly common among fans that have children and/or are married (Wann, Lane, Duncan, & Goodson, 1998). Given this, it had been suggested that fans with high levels of family motivation may have a preference for nonaggressive sports, preferring not to expose their children or spouse to violent events (Wann et al., 1999). However, a series of studies failed to confirm a relationship between levels of family motivation and a desire to avoid aggressive sports (Wann & Ensor, 2001; Wann et al., 1998; Wann et al., 1999). Thus, it appears that persons motivated by a desire to follow sport to be with family members are just as likely to enjoy aggressive and combative sports as competitions that are nonviolent in nature.

The Aesthetic Motive

Another factor that can drive an individual's interest in sport fandom is enjoyment of the beauty and grace of sport movements. This factor is commonly referred to as the aesthetic motive (Guttman, 1996; Hemphill, 1995; Rinehart,



Many Persons Are Driven to Sport Fandom Because the Activity Provides an Opportunity to Spend Time With Family

1996; Sloan, 1989). Stylistic sports such as figure skating, diving, and gymnastics are attractive to many fans because of their inherent beauty and the artistic expressions of athletes. However, it is important to note that the aesthetic motive is not limited to fans of stylistic sports (Sargent et al., 1998). Rather, persons interested in all sports may possess a high level of aesthetic motivation.

Similar to work on the family motive, investigators have examined the relationship between preferences for violent sports and aesthetic motivation. Wann and his collaborators (1999) suggested that fans with a high level of aesthetic motivation might prefer nonaggressive sports because the actions found in aggressive sports may “inhibit the graceful execution of sport movements” (p. 122) (e.g., hockey “goons” whose sole purpose is to disrupt the graceful flow of the other team’s swifter and more athletic skaters). Wann and Wilson (1999) conducted a pair of studies designed to test this possibility. In the first study, participants completed questionnaires assessing their level of aesthetic motivation and the degree to which they enjoyed watching seven aggressive sports. Interestingly, and contrary to expectations, no significant relationships were found between the level of aesthetic motivation and enjoyment of the aggressive sports. In the second study, after completing an inventory assessing their aesthetic motivation, participants watched five violent football plays, rating their enjoyment of each. Surprisingly, there was no relationship between aesthetic motivation and enjoyment of the violent plays. Thus, it appears that sport fans who are motivated by the beauty and grace of sport enjoy both violent and non-violent athletic events.

The Self-Esteem Motive

A fourth sport fan motive is self-esteem enhancement (Gmelch & San Antonio, 1998; Sloan, 1989; Weiller & Higgs, 1997; Wenner & Gantz, 1989). This motive concerns an individual's desire to participate in sport fandom because it provides a boost to the fans' self-concept. For instance, when a team is victorious, fans frequently join the players in a celebration of their achievement. Indeed, fans often increase their association with teams subsequent to successful performances in order to bask in the team's accomplishments and boost their own self-esteem (Cialdini et al., 1976).

The Eustress Motive

Several theorists have suggested that individuals fail to receive a sufficient amount of stimulation in their everyday lives (e.g., Elias & Dunning, 1970; Klapp, 1972; McNeil, 1968; Zuckerman, 1984). Consequently, people seek out other opportunities to gain excitement. One such opportunity can be sport fandom. For example, in one of the earliest observations of sport fans, Brill (1929, p. 434) stated,

The life of man in America or in any of the industrialized countries today, laboring on the farm, in the factory, in the office, is not the natural life of man. He is still an animal formed for battle and conquest, for blows and strokes and swiftness, for triumph and applause. But let him join the crowd around the diamond, the gridiron, the tennis court or the ring. . . . Let him identify himself with his favorite fighter, player or team. . . . He will achieve exaltation, vicarious but real.

Brill's statement suggests that even though life often fails to meet our desire for excitement and stimulation, these needs can be partially fulfilled through sport fandom. Persons who participate in sport fandom to gain excitement and stimulation are motivated by eustress (Gantz, 1981; Gantz & Wenner, 1995; Sloan, 1989; Smith, 1988). Eustress refers to positive forms of arousal and stimulation (i.e., euphoria + stress). Fans motivated by a desire to experience high levels of eustress become involved with the pastime because they enjoy the excitement and arousal they experience by following sport.

It is important to note that although fans usually view the suspense of sport spectating as pleasurable (Bryant, Rockwell, & Owens, 1994; Schreyer, Schmidt, & Torgler, in press), these stressful reactions are not always positive. Some fans may not enjoy the anxiety associated with sport spectating and go to great lengths to avoid this anxious state. For these fans, the stress they experience watching their favorite team compete should be referred to as distress (i.e., negative stress). However, one of the advantages of sport fandom is that it is a voluntary activity. Fans who become uncomfortably aroused and excited (i.e., distressed) while watching a favorite team compete can simply remove themselves from the situation (e.g., leave their seat at the arena, turn off the television, etc.; cf., Eastman & Riggs, 1994).

The Acquisition of Knowledge Motive

Smith (1988) noted that many sport fans find great pleasure in reading box scores and examining statistics. For these persons, it is likely that much of the attraction of fandom involves the acquisition of knowledge about sport objects. This acquisition of knowledge is another sport fan motive. Trail, Anderson, and Fink (2005) noted that knowledge is acquired through various means, including social interaction and media consumption. For sport fans, this could include attending sporting events; reading about a sport, team, or player; or talking with others and sharing information. Trail and James (2015) explain that fans may desire sport-related knowledge so they can talk with others in situations where sport is the topic of conversation. Others may seek out sport knowledge as a way of taking a break from their daily routine by immersing themselves in the strategy of a game or becoming an expert in the statistics of a particular athlete or team. The latter notion is also associated with esteem enhancement; being perceived as one who is knowledgeable about a sport, team, and/or player can be a status symbol and perhaps confirm one's place as a true fan. In fact, as you will read in Chapter 10, it is important for fans to be accepted into their fan groups, and they may feel threatened when other fans do not accept them as supporters of the team.

A particular context for the knowledge motive may be found among fans participating in fantasy sports. Scholars researching both fantasy and daily fantasy sports have included knowledge as a specific motive (Dwyer & Kim, 2011; Spinda & Haridakis, 2008). For example, Suh, Lim, Kwak, and Pedersen (2010) reported that the acquisition of knowledge was one of the more influential drives of fantasy sport consumption. Kota, Reid, James, and Kim (in press) tested a scale to measure motives of daily fantasy sport consumers and found that knowledge was the third-highest-rated motive.

The Escape Motive

The escape motive is another popular reason people follow sport (Gantz & Wenner, 1995; Krohn, Clarke, Preston, McDonald, & Preston, 1998; Sloan, 1989; Smith, 1988). Sport fans participate in the activity because it provides a diversion. Individuals who seek a break from their home life, work, college experience, and so on are able to temporarily forget their troubles through sport fandom. The escape motive may be particularly prevalent during personally difficult and/or stressful times such as war or a natural disaster (Wann, 1997). For instance, President Roosevelt's decision to allow professional baseball to continue during World War II was an effort to provide an escape for North Americans. In explaining his decision, Roosevelt stated that Americans "ought to have a chance for recreation and for taking their minds off their work" (see McGuire, 1994, p. 66).

Although it is clear that sport fans use the pastime as an escape, one might wonder what it is about their lives they are attempting to escape. Sloan (1989) argued that sport could provide "an escape from work and the other tediums of life" (p. 183). Smith (1988) concurred, writing that "the search for excitement

U OF MASS AMHERST LIBRARY

represents one of the most familiar means of escape” (p. 58). These statements suggest that individuals use fandom to escape from their under-stimulating (i.e., boring) lives. However, Heinegg (1985) argued that sport serves as “a flight from the pain of existence” and “worldly cares and crises” (p. 457). This perspective implies that sport fans use the pastime as an escape from their over-stimulating lives. Thus, it seems that fans can use sport as an escape from both over-stimulation and under-stimulation. For instance, consider two fans who meet at a bar each week to watch Monday Night Football. Although both may view the game as an opportunity to escape their daily routines, the reasons behind their desire for a diversion may differ. It could be that one individual is a police officer who considers her life very stressful, and thus she views the game as an escape from over-stimulation. Meanwhile, the other person works on an assembly line and finds her job extremely boring. She perceives the game as an opportunity to escape from under-stimulation.

Wann, Allen, and Rochelle (2004) attempted to determine if fans utilize sport as an escape from over- or under-stimulation. Participants completed scales assessing the extent to which they believed their life was stressful and boring as well as items assessing their level of escape motivation. Wann and his associates found positive relationships between level of escape motivation and perceptions of life both as boring and as stressful. That is, those who felt their life was stressful *and* those who believed their life was boring both reported using sport fandom as an escape. These findings substantiate the notion that fandom can and is used as a diversion from both over-stimulation and under-stimulation.

The Entertainment Motive

Social scientists (and, in particular, psychologists) have a tendency to overanalyze human activity. This can also be the case with the motives of sport fans. Yes, fans are often motivated by the factors described above. However, if you ask a fan “Why do you follow sport?”, the most likely responses would be something along the lines of “I like it” or “It’s fun.” Thus, it is not surprising that many individuals are driven to sport fandom by the entertainment motive (Gantz & Wenner, 1995; Sloan, 1989; Smith, 1988). Here, one’s motivation to engage in sport fandom is similar to other recreational pursuits (e.g., going to the theater, watching television, listening to music); individuals participate in the activity because they have fun doing it.

Measuring Sport Fan Motives

One of the takeaway points from the preceding sections is that sport fans are driven by a variety of motives. Accordingly, researchers usually assess multiple motives when conducting their research. Although there are now many different scales that may be used when studying sport fan motivation, this was not always the case. In fact, when the first edition of this text was published in 2001, there was only one primary scale, the Sport Fan Motivation Scale (Wann, 1995). Since the publication of the first edition of this text, other scales have been developed.

There has been a substantial amount of work dealing with the accurate measurement of sport fan (or sport consumer) motives in the last two decades (e.g., Funk, Mahony, Nakazawa, & Hirakawa, 2001; Trail & James, 2001; Wann, 1995). The focus of such work has been first to identify particular motives, then to develop tools (i.e., scales) to measure these motives. An extension of the scale development work has been the application of the measures to various sport fan settings. Certainly, a key reason to study motives is to acquire a better understanding of why people are interested in sport fandom and how this information could be useful to sport marketers (e.g., the various motives likely influence attendance decisions). In the following sections, we address the development of tools to measure sport fan motives. This examination includes a critical inspection of the scales and a summary of the current state of assessment of sport fan motivation. Implications from the study of sport fan motives are presented in Chapter 5.

Scale Development

Although Sloan (1989) set the stage by identifying and testing theories thought to impact sport fan motivation, he did not develop or present measures of specific motives. However, several other scholars have taken the initiative to develop such scales. It is beyond the scope of this chapter to examine every tool developed to assess fan motives. Rather, we have chosen to focus on three instruments that have been utilized extensively in the sport psychology, sport sociology, and sport marketing/management literatures.

The first measure, the Sport Fan Motivation Scale (SFMS), was developed by Wann and published in 1995. The next scale developed to measure sport fan motives was published by Trail and James (2001), an instrument they labeled the Motivation Scale for Sport Consumption (MSSC). Working at the same time as Trail and James (2001), Funk and his colleagues (2001) developed the Sport Interest Inventory (SII). In short order the SII was modified by Funk and his colleagues (2002) and then again by Funk et al. (2003). The latter effort resulted in a scale with 18 motives. The SFMS and MSSC assessed eight and nine motive constructs, respectively. Table 4.3 contains a listing of the motives from these scales.

It is important to note that the information included in Table 4.3 reflects the *original* work reported by Wann (1995) and Trail and James (2001) and the *revised* work from Funk et al. (2003). The original version of the SII only included ten factors (see note in Table 4.3). It should also be recognized that some motives capture the same idea but were labeled differently. For example, the notion that a sport fan is motivated by opportunities to spend time with others was labeled group affiliation by Wann (1995), social interaction by Trail and James (2001), and socialization by Funk et al. (2003). This illustrates one of the challenges within the study of sport fan motives, namely, that different scholars have used different labels to examine the same construct.

Another challenge to consider is whether one is interested in studying motives that are applicable across multiple sports or, rather, in determining if there are motives unique to a particular sport. An example of the latter would be support

TABLE 4.3 Comparison of Sport Fan Motivation Scales

Sport Fan Motivation Scale	Motivation Scale for Sport Consumption	Sport Interest Inventory
Self-Esteem	Achievement	<i>Vicarious Achievement</i>
Aesthetics	Aesthetics	<i>Aesthetics</i>
Escape	Escape	Escape
Group Affiliation	Social Interaction	Socialization
Family	Family	Bonding with Family
Entertainment		Entertainment
Eustress	Drama	<i>Drama</i>
	Acquisition of Knowledge	Sport Knowledge
Economic	Physical Attraction	
	Physical Skill	
		<i>Interest in Player(s)</i>
		<i>Interest in Team</i>
		<i>Interest in Sport</i>
		Role Model
		Bonding with Friends
		<i>Excitement</i>
		Wholesome Environment
		Community Support
		<i>Support Women's Opportunity</i>
		Customer Service

Notes: Italicized subscales were included in the original Sport Interest Inventory (Funk et al., 2001), along with *National Pride* and *Social Opportunities*. *Interest in Team* was labeled *Team Identification* in the original Sport Interest Inventory.

for women's opportunities as a motive for watching or attending a women's sporting event (Funk et al., 2003). Another example is physical attraction, that is, being motivated to watch particular athletes because of their physical appeal (Trail & James, 2001). Additionally, researchers may be interested in identifying motives that differentiate groups (e.g., men and women, fans in different age categories). For example, James (2002) reported that male consumers of college basketball enjoyed games to a greater extent than females because of their knowledge of basketball (e.g., the technical aspects and rules of the game). The point being made here is that when studying sport fan motivation, it is important to define the objectives or purpose of such work and to consider which scale(s) one should use to best meet the research goals.

Critiques of Existing Scales

Sport Fan Motivation Scale (SFMS) Trail and James (2001) raised concerns regarding the content validity of the SFMS. First, there were concerns about the lack of information about how the individual scale items were generated. A second criticism of the SFMS was the use of labels that may not accurately represent the items comprising a particular factor. For instance, Trail and James noted the use of “economics” as a label for items pertaining to betting or wagering on sports. A third and perhaps most pressing concern involving content validity was the wording of some of the SFMS items. As an example, Trail and James (2001) refer to the item reading “One of the main reasons that I watch, read, and/or discuss sports is that I get pumped up when I am watching my favorite teams.” Note the inclusion of “watch, read, and/or discuss” along with the phrase “get pumped up when I am watching my favorite teams.” Do fans watch games because they get “pumped up” when watching? That could be, but do they read to get “pumped up” when watching? Trail and James argued that the mixing of the two behaviors is awkward and potentially confusing. As a result, attempts to predict fan behavior might be difficult because it would be unclear what element was driving a particular action.

Motivation Scale for Sport Consumption (MSSC) The MSSC (Trail & James, 2001) was presented in an effort to improve on previous measures of sport fan motivation. In contrast to the concerns noted in their review of the SFMS (and other scales), Trail and James did report evidence of validity (construct, convergent, discriminant, and predictive validity).

Although there was reasonable evidence to support the MSSC, there were concerns with the scale (Trail & James, 2001). For example, some items did not reach statistical standards (i.e., psychometric cutoffs) for inclusion in a subscale. However, the individual item loadings did not result in substantive decline in other indicators. For example, the psychometrics for most subscales exceeded recommended cutoff levels (e.g., average variance extracted scores and reliability estimates). Also, as Trail and James (2001) noted, there appeared to be problems with the family subscale, as the psychometric indicators were below recommended levels, raising concerns about the validity and reliability for this subscale. Although the overall performance of the MSSC in the initial reporting was promising, Trail and James did indicate there was room for improvement.

A particular concern with the MSSC was the extent to which the items provide an assessment of motives rather than simply one's preferences for various characteristics of sport. For example, consider the items included in the knowledge subscale: “I regularly track the statistics of specific players,” “I usually know the team's win/loss record,” and “I read the box scores and team statistics regularly.” When answering these items, a person is providing a description of her or his sport consumer behavior (e.g., how often he or she reads box scores), but not necessarily information about motivation for following a team. Similarly, examine the items in the achievement subscale: “I feel like I have won when the team wins,” “I feel a personal sense of achievement when the team does well,” and “I feel proud when the team plays well.” When responding to these items,

PART I ► How and Why Fans Follow Sports

erson is providing information about a psychological and affective response ed on a team's performance. Yet the items do not necessarily inform us about individual's motive to follow or consume a sports team. Just because a fan s proud when his or her team wins does not mean this experience is *why* they ow the team. A related idea was conveyed by Fink, Trail, and Anderson (02) regarding the family construct. Spending time with one's family may be eason influencing the decision to attend a sporting event, but it is unlikely that he primary motive for sport consumption. In support of their argument, Fink d her colleagues reported the family motive was not significantly related to er sport consumer motives and only weakly related to team identification. Additional concerns with the MSSC were highlighted in the work of James d Ross (2004) in their study of consumers of three non-revenue collegiate orts (baseball, softball, and wrestling). They concluded the knowledge sub- ible pertained to existing knowledge about the team/sport rather than as a ctive to acquire additional knowledge. They also excluded the aesthetics otive due to its similarity to the physical skill motive and the high correlation tween the two reported by Trail and James (2001).

Sport Interest Inventory (SII) The Sport Interest Inventory (SII; Funk et al., 001) was developed at roughly the same time as the MSSC. The SII was initially eveloped to measure motivational factors associated with soccer spectators. he authors noted that although there were existing scales to measure sport fan otives, "one motivational scale for all sport events may not be possible" (p. 7). otting that no existing scale (e.g., SFMS, MSSC) was universally accepted by ort scholars at that time, Funk and his colleagues tested ten motives purposed o explain interest in attending the 1999 FIFA Women's World Cup. Although e authors argued that there may not be one motivational scale applicable to all ort situations, nine of the factors they tested were consistent with previous tudies of sport fan motivation. The one unique factor they included was support or women's opportunities in sport.

The original project testing the SII included a comments section for respond- nts. After reviewing the comments, Funk et al. (2001) concluded that four dditional motives should be considered: players as role models, entertainment alue, bonding with family, and wholesome environment. Subsequently, Funk t al. (2002) "attempted to confirm and extend the Sport Interest Inventory by xamining the level of continued interest in the U.S. Women's team subsequent o 1999 Women's World Cup" (p. 35). Their work included the original ten SII motives and the four additional factors derived from the participants' open- ended comments.

Reporting on the performance of the revised SII, Funk et al. (2002) noted low internal consistency for the socialization factor (also referred to as social oppor- tunities). Overall, however, Funk and his associates reported satisfactory evi- nces for the new 14-factor SII. However, there were

actually measure said construct. For example, Funk et al. (2002) have items purported to measure national pride. Evidence of validity would include information that the items fit together and collectively do in fact assess national pride as a sport fan motive. Scholars typically provide evidence of validity for each specific motive. Curiously, Funk et al. provided information about all 14 factors as a group rather than reporting evidence of validity for each specific motive. Given that each motive is supposedly discrete, each should be evaluated on its own merit.

Perhaps as an acknowledgement of concerns with the second generation of the SII, a third effort was undertaken by Funk et al. (2003) to further develop the SII. A key point noted by Funk and his colleagues (2003) was that previous scales had been developed as comprehensive instruments for use across sports. They suggested that more attention was needed for contextual motives, that is, motives specific to particular sports. Funk and his fellow investigators sought to extend the SII by adding yet another four factors, bringing the total to 18. That is, in addition to testing the 14 factors from the second version of the SII (Funk et al., 2002), Funk et al. (2003) included four new factors based on responses from focus groups. The additional factors were: bonding with friends, knowledge of the sport, escape, and customer service. It is interesting to note that bonding with friends, knowledge, and escape are motives (or variations of such) that are included in the SFMS and/or the MSSC.

Funk and his coauthors (2003) tested the newest iteration of the SII with season ticket holders and those attending single games in the Women's National Basketball Association. The internal consistency measures for the third generation of the SII were all above recommended levels, providing evidence of reliability. There was also evidence of validity for each motive factor. Considering the information reported, there was reasonable evidence of reliability and validity for the third generation of the SII.

Summarizing the SFMS, MSSC, and SII At this point, someone interested in assessing sport fan motives may be wondering, "So which scale should I use?" Ultimately, what we have at our disposal are three different measures of sport fan motives, each with strengths and weaknesses. There is a great deal of overlap in the motives included in each scale, as well as motives that are unique to each instrument. Although certainly not an exhaustive list, the entries included in Table 4.4 demonstrate that each scale has been used in numerous studies of sport fan motives. They have been used in multiple settings, with student and sport consumer samples, and within the United States and in other countries. In some instances, the original scales have been used to develop other specialty scales. For example, Cottingham et al. (2014) modified the MSSC to form the Motivation Scale for Disability Sport Consumption.

Given the convoluted state of the measurement of sport fan motivation, one might wonder if the study of sport fan motivation could be simplified. As it turns out, the authors of the scales critiqued above (along with some additional colleagues) thought this might be possible. In the next section, we present our efforts to simplify the assessment of sport fan motivation.

TABLE 4.4 Examples of Research Utilizing the SFMS, MSSC, and the SII

Sport Fan Motivation Scale (SFMS)		Motivation Scale for Sport Consumption (MSSC)		Sport Interest Inventory (SII)	
Author(s)	Title	Author(s)	Title	Author(s)	Title
Wann et al. (2004)	Using Sex and Gender Role Orientation to Predict Level of Fandom	James and Ross (2004)	Comparing Sport Consumer Motivations Across Multiple Sports	Funk, Ridinger, and Moorman (2003)	Exploring Origins of Involvement: Understanding the Relationship Between Consumer Motives and Involvement with Professional Sport Teams
Madrigal (2006)	Measuring the Multi-Dimensional Nature of Sporting Event Performance Consumption	Ozer and Argan (2006)	Licensed Team Merchandise Buying Behavior: A Study on Turkish Fans	Neal and Funk (2006)	Investigating Motivation, Attitudinal Loyalty, and Attendance Behavior with Fans of Australian Football
Wann et al. (2008)	Motivational Profiles of Sport Fans of Different Sports	Lee, Trail, and Anderson (2008)	Differences in Motives and Points of Attachment by Season Ticket Status: A Case Study of ACHA	Wang, Zhang, and Tsuji (2011)	Examining Fan Motives and Loyalty for the Chinese Professional Baseball League of Taiwan
Theodorakis, Wann, Carvalho, and Sarmento (2010)	Translation and Initial Validation of the Portuguese Version of the Sport Spectator Identification Scale	James et al. (2009)	Motives of United States and Japanese Professional Baseball Consumers and Level of Team Identification	Wang and Matsuoka (2014)	Motives of Sport Spectators in China: A Case Study of the Chinese Super League

- | | | | | | |
|-------------------------------|--|--|--|-------------------------------|--|
| Lee, Shin, and Shinchl (2010) | Identifying Sociological Motivation of Hispanic/Latino Consumers Attending Sporting Events | Uhlman and Trail (2012) | An Analysis of the Motivators of Seattle Sounders FC Season Ticket Holders: A Case Study | Kang, Lee, and Bennett (2014) | Comparative Analysis of Sport Consumer Motivation Affecting Sport Consumption Behavior Between American and Asian International Students |
| Wild and Cant (2015) | Sport Fan Motivation: Are You Going to the Game? | Cottingham et al. (2014) | Development and Validation of the Motivation Scale for Disability Sport Consumption Constraints and Motivators of Sport Consumption Behavior | Gargone (2016) | A Study of the Fan Motives for Varying Levels of Team Identity and Team Loyalty of College Football Fans |
| Cohen (2017) | Fans' Identification with Teams: A Field Study of Israeli Soccer Fans | Montafar, Tojari, and Nikbakhsh (2014) | | | |

U OF MASSACHUSETTS LIBRARY

The Big 5

James, Trail, Wann, Zhang, and Funk (2006) reported on a project to determine whether the vast array of sport fan motives could be narrowed down to a more manageable number. Specifically, these authors sought to identify a core set of motives that would be small enough as to not require hours to complete when included in a questionnaire. It would be a daunting task to complete a scale that assessed 40 different motives. As Trail and James (2015, p. 194) noted:

If we were very conservative and used three separate items (or questions) to represent each motive (trust us, we should have at least 3 questions per motive), the number of questions just testing the motives would be 120. That is before we add any other questions about demographic characteristics, attitudes, behavioral intentions, or whatever other topics in which we are interested.

People, particularly those in applied settings, are often reluctant to complete even the shortest of surveys. Given this, imagine how difficult it would be to convince them to answer a questionnaire that had hundreds of questions.

James et al. (2006) explained there was a need to bring parsimony to the study of sport fan motives. They highlighted three particular concerns inherent in having different sport fan motivation scales: the need for consistent wording of items; the need for consistent labels for the motives; and the ability to establish a core set of motive factors to recommend for use across multiple sports. In short, their project was an effort to offer “best practices” advice for the assessment and study of sport fan motivation.

In their work, James and his colleagues (2006) utilized the primary sport fan motive scales highlighted above (i.e., SFMS, MSSC, SII) as well as one additional instrument, the Spectator Motivation Scale (SMS; Pease & Zhang, 2001). They included motives that were assessed in two or more scales (some had different labels but represented the same construct). The researchers did not include factors that were end states (e.g., “I am a fan of the entire team”) or interest variables (e.g., “I am a huge fan of soccer in general”). Furthermore, they omitted motives that were not applicable across a broad range of sports or sport consumers (e.g., economics/sport wagering, support women’s opportunities). As a result, the researchers tested 34 sport fan motives (yes, the protocol packet was quite lengthy).

Questionnaires were administered to a sample of over 900 people. Through a series of psychometric tests and data analysis procedures (e.g., exploratory factor analysis to determine which items best fit together), five sport fan motives emerged: achievement seeking, aesthetics, drama, escape, and social interaction. The factors were referred to as The Big 5. The group completed two additional projects to provide evidence of the reliability and validity of The Big 5. The number of items for each factor was reduced to three, resulting in five motives represented by three items for each factor. Table 4.5 shows the wording of the individual items (all taken from the final project).

A concern with the wording of items in previous scales was a source of difficulty in assessing the relationship between motives and sport fan behaviors,

TABLE 4.5 The "Big 5" Sport Fan Motives

Please rate the extent to which you Disagree or Agree with each item below.

Think of each statement beginning, "I would be motivated to watch a New England Patriots' game because . . ."

Escape

- . . . of the distraction that a game provided from my everyday activities.
- . . . it provides me with a distraction from my daily life for a while.
- . . . I could get away from the tension in my life.

Vicarious Achievement

- . . . their successes are my successes and their losses are my losses.
- . . . I feel like I have won when the team wins.
- . . . I feel a personal sense of victory when the team wins.

Social Interaction

- . . . of the opportunity to interact with other people.
- . . . of the possibility of talking with other people.
- . . . of the chance to socialize with others.

Aesthetics

- . . . of the natural elegance of the game.
- . . . of the gracefulness associated with the game.
- . . . of the beauty and grace of sports.

Drama

- . . . of the uncertainty of a close game.
- . . . I like games where the outcome is uncertain.
- . . . a close game between two teams is more enjoyable than a blowout.

psychological conditions, and other outcomes. As a solution to this problem, James et al. (2006) incorporated general wording in The Big 5 items. Such a strategy would allow The Big 5 to be used with multiple sports and settings and should avoid problems with assessing motives and their relationship to other constructs. As a second approach to solving this issue, the authors included a leading statement as part of the instructions so the wording of items could be more general (see Table 4.5). An additional advantage of using the leading statement is that researchers can specify that the items are assessing motives that pertain to a specific behavior or outcome, for example motives for attending a sporting event. As shown in Table 4.5, respondents were asked to think about the leading statement "I would be motivated to watch a New England Patriots' game because . . ." A different leading statement could be used to assess other behaviors such as attending games, talking about games, or wearing team merchandise. For researchers, such an approach aids their efforts to more accurately assess sport fan motives but does require *a priori* planning as to the type of behavior (or other outcome) that is of interest. Using this type of approach,

UNIVERSITY OF MASSACHUSETTS LIBRARY

researchers and sport marketers can simply insert other team names or sport objects as the focal target.

Funk, Filo, Beaton, and Pritchard (2009) completed a project using The Big 5 sport fan motives. Echoing the thoughts of James and his colleagues (2006), Funk and his colleagues stated that a primary reason for the project was to test a parsimonious set of motives in a survey that could be quickly and easily completed. They tested The Big 5 motives, along with a measure of past attendance (the focal behavior) and commitment to the focal team. It warrants mention that they only used two items for each sport fan motive, and they chose to use different labels for the motive factors. There was good evidence of reliability and validity, providing support for the approach for assessing sport fan motives initiated by James and his associates.

Some Final Thoughts

There has been and continues to be considerable interest in the study of sport fan motivation among sport scholars. Although a variety of scales have been developed to measure fan motives, most have their origins in the SFMS, MSSC, and/or SII. There have been concerns noted with each of the three main scales, and those working with the scales have contributed to improving each, providing us with reasonable tools to measure a vast array of fan motives. Even with the concerns noted throughout this chapter, the work completed to date has clearly advanced our understanding of sport fan motivation.

Thinking about future efforts to study sport fan motivation, the research by James and his colleagues (2006) illustrates the type of work needed. Although simply assessing five motives will be insufficient in some research settings, it is clear that inclusion of The Big 5 is warranted. Researchers can then determine additional motives that may be germane to particular sport or team settings that are relevant to their particular investigation. Researchers should also carefully examine the wording of items to avoid confounds with assessing relationships between motives and behavioral outcomes and psychological conditions.

And finally, for readers with a specific interest in sport marketing and sport consumer behavior, sport fan motives are of particular relevance given the volume of research indicating that motives may impact fan intentions and, ultimately, behaviors. In fact, these relationships are explored in more detail in the next chapter.