Editor’s Note

Dear ASMR Contributors,

Thank you so much for your full support for Asian Sport Management Review (ASMR). As we all know, it has been very difficult to keep ASMR running for the past years. We are currently in the 10th Volume. Without your contribution to the journal, it is not possible for this journal to go this far.

The ASMR Edition Committee is reformed after the 2012 AASM General Assembly by following our AASM Constitution. The ASMR Edition Committee will insist the academic independence spirit to implement the necessary works which may benefit to our sport management professional community. One important policy that ASMR Edition Committee will implement is to reinforce the dialog between submitter and peer reviewer. We will use this way to generate more communication and mutual understanding between them. I believe the quality of ASMR will be improved and its reputation will be raised through this process.

The improvement of the quality of ASMR needs your efforts and continuous supports. I sincerely invite your innovative ideas and practical perspectives on the topics of sport management. Let us all bring ASMR to a more advanced stage!

Sincerely yours,

Cheng Nan Kang, Ph. D

C. N. Kang

ASMR Editor

Professor/ National Taiwan University
Editor’s Note ................................................................................................................................. 1

The Relationship between Perceived Social Media Marketing Activities of J. League
Clubs and Behavioral Intention of Spectators ........................................................................... 3

Development of Sports and Recreation Promotion Model for Provincial
Administration in Thailand ........................................................................................................ 21

Managing Sport in Educational Institutions for National Sports Development .......... 40

The Management of Recreational Sport Organizations in an Urban Area of a Newly
Developing Country - Taking the Example of Ho Chi Minh City .............................................. 63

How Three Japanese City Marathon Brands Overcame Double Jeopardy ....................... 89

College Football Consumers’ Reaction towards Supporting an Environmentally
Friendly Stadium ............................................................................................................................ 123

Application of Big Data on Professional Sport—A Study on Construction of
Marketing Index for Chinese Professional Baseball League ................................................. 161

Editors ......................................................................................................................................... 175

Call for papers ............................................................................................................................... 178

Asian Sport Management Review ............................................................................................. 179
The Relationship between Perceived Social Media Marketing Activities of J. League Clubs and Behavioral Intention of Spectators

Takahiro Inoue
Hosei University

Hirotaka Matsuoka
Waseda University

Hirokazu Arai
Hosei University

Corresponding author: Takahiro Inoue

Hosei University, Japan

takahiro.inoue.ke@hosei.ac.jp
Abstract

More and more professional sports organizations and teams have begun using social media in recent years. However, the effects of usage and the relationship between resulting behavioral intention and actual behavior have not been explained. Thus, this study examines the relationship between the perception of professional soccer clubs’ social media marketing activities (SMM activities) and the intentions for word-of-mouth communications resulting from the SMM activities. The data were collected from home-game spectators of a professional soccer club that belongs to the 2013 Japan Football League (JFL). While the number of respondents was 403, the analysis included 95 of them by limiting respondents to those who used social media. The results indicate that the SMM activities of the club formed favorable attitudes among spectators based on the activities’ perceived functionality, driving spectators to communicate through word of mouth. Based on the results obtained from this study, this paper also makes suggestions for managing SMM activities and discusses issues such as research limitations.

Keywords: social media, word of mouth, repurchase intention
Introduction

It has become common for professional sports clubs to use social media as a means of communicating with their fans (Wallace, Wilson, & Miloch, 2011; Pronschinske, Groza, & Walker, 2012; Witkemper, Lim, & Waldburger, 2012). According to Takeda (2011), “social media, which refers to a medium that helps people socialize, is a general term for the media created through voluntary participation of general consumers.” Furthermore, social media are online applications and platforms intended to facilitate interactions, collaborations, and the sharing of content (Kim & Ko, 2012).

Numerous examples of professional sports clubs using social media such as Twitter, Facebook, mixi, and YouTube are observed in Japan as well. At J. League, it has been shown that the effectiveness of Twitter, Facebook, and other social media for fans as a means to obtain information about teams and their games is increasing year by year (J. League, 2013).

In the context of marketing 3.0, Kotler, Kartajaya, and Setiawan (2010) point out the importance of the role of social media and state that the participants come not only to consume but also to imagine information through mutual communication. In terms of marketing strategy formulation, it has been pointed out that the spread of the Internet promoted the diversification of media, the spread of communication, and changes in consumer lifestyles, making consumer behavior and one’s customer base less obvious (Nakura, 2013). With these as background, the effectiveness of horizontal categorizations of consumer networks called communities—as opposed to the vertically dissected concepts such as targeting and segmentation used in today’s marketing—is increasing (Kotler, Kartajaya, & Setiawan, 2010). Social media plays a significant role in creating and promoting these communities.

Social media, typified by Twitter, Facebook, and so on, have common functional characteristics: Consumers are the main users and they can communicate with each other. They can form a community based on their own personal relationships, send and receive information easily in real time, and customize their experience by limiting content and applications to that which interests them (Ishii, Kondoh, & Suzuki, 2012; Nakura, 2013; Kotler et al., 2010).

A study conducted by Ando (2012) lists the following four reasons for a company to use social media: 1) to generate buzz, 2) to use for public relations, 3) to support customers, and 4) to understand customers. In addition, the purposes of social media marketing activities (SMM activities) include increasing customer engagement, utilizing it as a tool to build a long-term and favorable relationship, increasing brand equity, and so on (Wallace et al., 2011; Pronschinske et al., 2012; Witkemper et al., 2012; Kim & Ko, 2012). Based on these, social media can be regarded as a tool for building relationships with customers and communicating with fans who would contribute to branding, as well as a platform to aid in creating communities.
When developing a marketing strategy for the business of a professional sports club, it is important to obtain basic information as to how SMM activities are perceived by users. However, although the number of cases in which a sports organization incorporates social media into its marketing strategy is increasing, only a small number of studies have focused on social media. To elaborate, the few studies that exist (Ballouli & Hutchinson, 2010; Williams & Chinn, 2010; Witkemper et al., 2012) only go as far as understanding psychological characteristics related to personal consumption behavior such as reasons for spectators to use social media and presenting basic information for building a relationship with social media users; they do not consider users’ perception of current marketing activities or the latter’s relationship with the resulting behavioral intention and intention to attend a game again.

Because there is insufficient empirical research on social media, it is essential to determine whether the use of social media directly or indirectly explains behavioral intention and psychological commitment, and to further examine associated factors. In addition, clarifying the relationship of social media usage with behavioral intention and identifying associated factors will further help formulate marketing strategies using social media.

To provide new insights on this problem that has not been sufficiently examined by previous studies, this study sets the following four objectives: 1) To consider the components of SMM activities, 2) to examine whether perceived SMM activities explain the formation of users’ attitudes, 3) to examine the relationship between favorable attitude and behavioral intention, and 4) to consider variables that affect behavioral intention to enable formulation of more-specific measures.
Theoretical Framework

This study aims to examine the relationship between users’ subjective perception of the SMM activities of a professional soccer club and the users’ behavioral intentions. To derive hypotheses about perceived SMM activities and behavioral intentions, a framework was established based on previous studies. Because no study has focused on the development of a relationship between perceived SMM activities and customers in the field of sports marketing, this study refers to the conceptual framework of Kim and Ko (2012), who examined relationships among perceived SMM activities, customer equity, and repurchase intention associated with luxury fashion brands. In their study, Kim and Ko (2012) define *entertainment*, *interaction*, *trendiness*, *customization*, and *word of mouth* as scales to measure the effect of SMM activities. These are elements defined as functional characteristics of social media and prompt behavioral intention as a result of various activities. However, there are some issues with this study’s scales: 1) They excluded two (*interaction* and *trendiness*) of the five factors when conducting the analysis, and 2) they analyzed the functional assessment of SMM activities, the attitudes formed by the SMM activities, and the behavioral intentions prompted by SMM activities at the same dimension level without considering their sequential effect.

Thus, the current study broke down the model in Kim and Ko (2012) into three processes: 1) functional assessment of SMM activities, 2) attitude formed based on the perceived functionality, and 3) intention to recommend (spreading the word or commenting favorably) on social media, which is driven by that attitude.

Specifically, we defined three rating criteria to evaluate SMM activities in terms of functionality: *trendiness*, or real time communication, which is a functional feature of social media; *interaction*, or mutual communication between users as well as between the club and the users; and *customization*, or whether the content and information are specified based on the needs of the users. Then, an attitude formed based on the convenience that the user gained when those criteria were fulfilled (*entertainment*) was defined as the attitude formed based on functional assessment. Furthermore, as an indicator measuring one of the purposes of SMM activities, namely the level of increased customer engagement (e.g., repeat purchase, posting favorable opinions, reposting articles, and so on), *word of mouth* on the social media was defined. Based on the relationships of variables that have been explained by previous studies, we can expect the same relationship regarding perceptions that professional sports spectators have of SMM activities. Therefore, the following hypotheses were established:

H1a: Functional evaluation of SMM activities explains the formation of favorable attitudes.

H1b: Favorable attitudes positively affect *word of mouth* on social media.

H1c: Favorable attitudes positively affect *repurchase intention*.
In their study, Kim and Ko (2012) also examined relationships among perceived SMM activities, customer equity, and repeat purchase. The results showed that SMM activities had a positive effect on customer equity. However, SMM activities did not have a direct effect on repeat purchase, although they did show an indirect effect (through customer equity).

*Repurchase intention*, which indicates the degree of likelihood that the spectator will continue to attend matches, is a subjective intention of the spectator (Cronin, Brady, & Hult, 2000). Yoshida, Nakazawa, Inoue, Katakami, and Iwamura (2013) also mentioned that brand equity directly affects repurchase intention and explained the extent to which repurchase intention—a variable based on subjective perception—determines future behavior.

Because previous studies have also confirmed that repurchase intention has a certain degree of influence in determining future behavior, this study also defined *repurchase intention* as a variable associated with *word of mouth* and generated on social media based on perceived SMM activities.

Although previous studies have not indicated a direct relationship between perceived SMM activities and *repurchase intention*, *word of mouth* is a highly effective variable to measure customer loyalty (Reichheld, 2006). Therefore, the following hypotheses are established:

H2a: *Word of mouth* positively affects *repurchase intention*.

H2b: Favorable attitudes formed based on SMM activities do not have a positive effect on *repurchase intention*.

To examine the above hypotheses, this study conducted an analysis by setting *interaction*, *trendiness*, and *customization*—which make up the perceived functionality of SMM activities—as independent variables, *word of mouth* and *repurchase intention*—which are behavioral intentions—as the dependent variable, and *entertainment*, the attitude affected by the SMM activities, as a parameter.
Methodology

Research Settings

In this study, we conducted a survey among spectators of a professional soccer club to test the hypotheses. The club we studied is headquartered in Tokyo and was a member of the Japanese Football League (hereinafter JFL) in 2013 when the survey was conducted.

Data Collection

A survey was conducted at a home game played on November 10, 2013. The surveyors, consisting of 18 college students majoring in sports management, had received adequate training on the survey method in advance. Using stratified sampling, the surveyors assigned to each location recruited participants in accordance with the percentage breakdown of gender and age. The surveyors distributed 410 questionnaires in the stadium stands before the game started and collected 403 on the spot (response rate = 98.3%). The questionnaire included a question to identify those who use social media to limit respondents to social media users. As a result, 95 respondents qualified.

Scales

Individual attributes, spectating behavior, and social media usage. To understand spectators’ individual attributes and the current state of social media usage, this study created measurement items based on demographics such as gender and age, attendance frequency, years supporting the club, time spent on social media per day, and the number of followers they are connected to through the club they are supporting (to understand the scale of the community).

Perceived SMM activities and behavioral intentions. Scales for measuring the effect of SMM activities used by the club were created by referring to the previous study by Kim and Ko (2012). Each questionnaire item was measured on a five-point scale where 5 equals “very true” and 1 equals “not at all true.” Based on the definition by Kim and Ko, these scales are intended to capture activities and commercial value as perceived through a platform, or the social media utilized by the brand. The authors decided to rate SMM activities on five scales: 1) entertainment, 2) interaction, 3) trendiness, 4) customization, and 5) word of mouth.

Intention to attend soccer matches. In terms of a scale measuring intention to attend matches, we adopted “intention for continued purchase” from a study by Kubota (2010) as an item that asks the intention to support/continue supporting (which was defined as repurchase intention in this study). Specifically, it was measured after the authors and two researchers specializing in sports business took repurchase intention—an item to measure brand relationship in the field of marketing—and examined it as a useful scale in sports marketing research. This item is consistent with the concept of intention to continue attending matches and suitable as a scale to measure the behavioral intention of spectators. Furthermore, to ensure the reliability and usefulness of the scales used in this study,
preliminary research among the college students majoring in sports business was carried out in advance.

Translation of questionnaire items. The scales used in this study are based on studies written in English. To ensure validity in translating scales that were defined in English, two bilingual researchers specializing in sports marketing translated the questionnaire items from English to Japanese and reviewed them to ensure that the meaning had not changed significantly from the original and would be easy for respondents to understand. In addition, because the items other than interaction are composed of only two question items in the previous studies, the authors and three researchers who specialize in sports marketing added new items, while ensuring that they used terminology consistent with the existing items.

Analysis method. Using IBM SPSS.22, we checked the descriptive statistics of the subjects, including demographic attributes, spectating behavior, and the state of social media usage, and verified the reliability and correlation coefficient of each item measuring an effect of SMM activities. Next, using IBM Amos.22, we analyzed the causal relationship, starting from perceived SMM activities to behavioral intentions. Size of follower population and time spent on social media, which were set as variables that affect word of mouth generated as a result of SMM activities, were converted from an interval scale to a nominal scale by following previous studies and dividing them into groups at the median value (Rindfleisch, Burroughs, & Wong, 2008). We then conducted inter-group tests to examine whether we could see a difference in word of mouth between the two groups.
Demographic Data of the Subjects

The mean age of social media users was 39.5 and most of them were male (73.7%). Looking at the age groups of the users, we found that the percentages of those in their 30s (31.6%) and 40s (44.2%) were high. The mean number of individuals they are connected to through social media associated with the club they are supporting was 70.8 (SD = 100.24), and the time spent on social media per day was 55.6 minutes (SD = 45.6). As for spectating behavior, the mean frequency of attending a match last year was 14.2 (SD = 12.1) and the mean number of years supporting the club was 3.9 (SD = 2.30).

Structure of the Five Scales for Rating SMM Activities

The mean score of three questions that make up each scale, including entertainment, interaction, trendiness, customization and word of mouth of SMM activities, were calculated. Based on the results, we determined that there were ceiling effects for “I enjoy using the social media of the club I’m supporting” (M = 3.93; SD = 1.12) under entertainment and “I can share information with others by using the social media of the club I’m supporting” (M = 3.83; SD = 1.16) under interaction. Therefore, they were excluded from the analysis that aggregates questions in each scale.

Next, we conducted principal component analyses using the scores (raw score) of each item under each scale for SMM activities. The analyses determined that each SMM activity scale had a single-component structure as shown in Tables 1 through 5. In addition, content validity is ensured because the SMM activity scales are based on scales developed in a previous study (Kim & Ko, 2012).

<p>| Table 1 |</p>
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Results of Principal Component Analysis of Entertainment</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Item</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The social media content of the club I’m supporting is interesting.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I can enjoy myself when I’m using the social media of the club I’m supporting.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Contribution Ratio=84.53%

<p>| Table 2 |
| Results of Principal Component Analysis of Interaction |</p>
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Item</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>Loading</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I can have conversations with others and exchange opinions through the social media of the club I’m supporting.</td>
<td>3.07</td>
<td>1.13</td>
<td>.90</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>It’s easy to express your opinion through the social media of the club I’m supporting.</td>
<td>2.93</td>
<td>1.09</td>
<td>.90</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Contribution Ratio=81.15%

**Table 3**

Results of Principal Component Analysis of Trendiness

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Item</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>Loading</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>The social media content of the club I’m supporting is up to date.</td>
<td>3.68</td>
<td>1.09</td>
<td>.78</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>It is very trendy to use the social media of the club I’m supporting.</td>
<td>3.17</td>
<td>0.99</td>
<td>.89</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The social media content of the club I’m supporting sets trends.</td>
<td>2.86</td>
<td>0.92</td>
<td>.77</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Contribution Ratio=66.84%

**Table 4**

Results of Principal Component Analysis of Customization

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Item</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>Loading</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>The social media of the club I’m supporting provides a user-specified information search capability.</td>
<td>3.01</td>
<td>0.96</td>
<td>.88</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The social media of the club I’m supporting provides user-specified services.</td>
<td>2.93</td>
<td>0.96</td>
<td>.90</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I can quickly find the information that I’m looking for using the social media of the club I support.</td>
<td>3.46</td>
<td>1.17</td>
<td>.81</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Contribution Ratio=74.91%

**Table 5**

Results of Principal Component Analysis of Word of Mouth

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Item</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>Loading</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I want to tell my friends the information that I can get through the club’s social media regarding the team, events, goods, and services.</td>
<td>3.18</td>
<td>1.19</td>
<td>.89</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I want to post on my blog (including Twitter and Facebook) the contents of the social media of the club I support.</td>
<td>3.26</td>
<td>1.34</td>
<td>.87</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
I want to use social media and spread information about the club I support.

Contribution Ratio=77.93%

**Associations between SMM Activity Scales**

Next, we will show the mean and standard deviation of each item under perceived SMM functionality (interaction, trendiness, customization), favorable attitude (entertainment) and intention to communicate (word of mouth), as well as Cronbach’s reliability coefficient $\alpha$ (which indicates internal consistency) and a correlation matrix of these scales (See Table 6).

**Table 6**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Item</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>Cronbach's $\alpha$</th>
<th>Correlation coefficient</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1 Entertainment</td>
<td>3.45</td>
<td>.91</td>
<td>.81</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2 Interaction</td>
<td>3.25</td>
<td>.95</td>
<td>.80</td>
<td>.83&quot;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3 Trendiness</td>
<td>3.25</td>
<td>.80</td>
<td>.75</td>
<td>.83&quot;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4 Customization</td>
<td>3.15</td>
<td>.88</td>
<td>.82</td>
<td>.85&quot;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5 Word of mouth</td>
<td>3.27</td>
<td>1.06</td>
<td>.85</td>
<td>.70&quot;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6 Repurchase Intentions</td>
<td>4.43</td>
<td>.79</td>
<td>.91</td>
<td>.29&quot;</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

$^* p < .05, \ ^{**} p < .01$

Examining each element, the rating for repurchase intention was the highest (M=4.43), followed by entertainment (M=3.45), interaction (M=3.25), word of mouth (M=3.27), trendiness (M=3.25), and customization (M=3.15). The authors found that there was a moderate or high correlation between all pairs of elements except between customization and repurchase intention. Cronbach’s coefficient $\alpha$, which examines the internal consistency, exceeded .70 for all scales, indicating consistency in the questionnaire items that measure each dimension.
Results of Multivariate Analysis

All paths other than the one between entertainment and repurchase intention were statistically significant (H1a-H1c). After removing the two paths that were not significant (See Fig 1) and analyzing it again, all paths became significant (See Fig 2). Based on this, it became clear that perceived functionality affects the formation of favorable attitudes and then further affects word of mouth (spreading the word and making recommendations) directly (H2a). In addition, the results supported the hypothesis that favorable attitude does not directly influence repurchase intention (H2b).

The multiple correlation coefficient from perceived functionality to entertainment as attitude is .83, indicating considerable explanatory power. In addition, the multiple correlation coefficients were .41 and .13 from entertainment to word of mouth and from word of mouth to repurchase intention, respectively.

![Figure 1: The proposed SMM activities and behavioral intention model](image1)

![Figure 2: The revised SMM activities and behavioral intention model](image2)
Perceived SMM Activities, Repurchase Intention, and Social Media Usage

To examine the relationship between word of mouth and variables that are thought to be associated with word of mouth, we tested group differences with two variables, size of follower population that the individual is connected to through the club he/she supports and time spent on social media per day (See Tables 7 and 8). Looking at the relationship with size of follower population, we found that word of mouth (p < .01) and repurchase intention (p < .05) were significant. In terms of the relationship with time spent on social media per day, none of the items had a significant relationship.

Table 7
Components of SMM Activities and Repurchase Intention and their Relationship with Size of Follower Population

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Small Size of Follower Population (n=40)</th>
<th>Large Size of Follower Population (n=21)</th>
<th>t-value</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Mean</td>
<td>SD</td>
<td>Mean</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Entertainment</td>
<td>3.68</td>
<td>.82</td>
<td>3.83</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Interaction</td>
<td>3.46</td>
<td>.75</td>
<td>3.83</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Trendiness</td>
<td>3.48</td>
<td>.61</td>
<td>3.44</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Customization</td>
<td>3.32</td>
<td>.82</td>
<td>3.30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Word of mouth</td>
<td>3.37</td>
<td>1.00</td>
<td>4.14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Repurchase Intentions</td>
<td>4.46</td>
<td>.77</td>
<td>4.82</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* p < .05  ** p < .01

Table 8
Components of SMM Activities and Repurchase Intention and their Relationship with Time Spent on Social Media

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Short Time Spend on Social Media (n=42)</th>
<th>Long Time Spend on Social Media (n=49)</th>
<th>T-value</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Mean</td>
<td>SD</td>
<td>Mean</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Entertainment</td>
<td>3.24</td>
<td>.80</td>
<td>3.62</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Interaction</td>
<td>3.11</td>
<td>.85</td>
<td>3.44</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Mean1</td>
<td>Mean2</td>
<td>Mean3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>--------------------------</td>
<td>-------</td>
<td>-------</td>
<td>-------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Trendiness</td>
<td>3.13</td>
<td>.68</td>
<td>3.31</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Customization</td>
<td>3.06</td>
<td>.71</td>
<td>3.19</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Word of mouth</td>
<td>3.06</td>
<td>.95</td>
<td>3.44</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Repurchase Intentions</td>
<td>4.28</td>
<td>.91</td>
<td>4.58</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Discussions

The purpose of this study was to demonstrate that perceived SMM activities form favorable attitudes and directly influence behavioral intention on social media as well as to examine at the same time the impact on repurchase intention, which determines future behavior.

Based on the results we obtained, it became clear that perceived functionality forms favorable attitudes and influences repurchase intention through behavioral intention on the Internet (word of mouth).

These merely support the outcomes of previous studies related to social media; however, we believe that the fact that we were able to identify specific variables as measures of marketing efforts and able to determine to some extent their level of influence on attitude formation is a useful piece of information for SMM activities in the future.

In addition, in terms of perceived functionality, it became clear that customization has stronger explanatory power in explaining the formation of attitude than other variables. This point seems to support the notion that “it is best to try to build a light relationship rather than seeking a deep, bi-directional B to C relationship, because mixi, Facebook, Twitter, etc. are individuals’ private pages,” as stated by Takeda (2011), as well as the argument by Kotler et al. (2010) that it is important for companies to customize and add value to the platform as a co-creation of value by using insights accumulated through informational exchanges among consumers, which include the needs and desires of those consumers.

Furthermore, the fact that the explanatory power of customization was stronger than other indicator variables for perceived functionality also suggests that it is effective to utilize their own unique social media instead of existing social media to build a deeper and better relationship between the club and fans. Furthermore, word of mouth affecting repurchase intention to some extent suggests that increased communication on the Internet will also have an impact on repurchase intention.

We had listed “to use exogenous criteria including number of followers and usage time to demonstrate that these variables affect word of mouth and provide basic information in formulating a marketing strategy” as one of the objectives. In this study, time spent on social media showed no relationship with any element. However, in terms of size of follower population, it was shown that the group of individuals with a larger number of followers had an effect on word of mouth and repurchase intention. This clarified that the size of the network (community) accessed through the club’s social media affects intentions to recommend or behave on social media and suggested that active communication and the knowledge that users obtained over time through communicating with each other are likely to improve their relationships with the club.
Given that *word of mouth* is affected by favorable attitudes, it may be necessary to monitor communication between users in addition to noting the size of follower population when engaging in SMM activities.

Issues with this study include the fact that the ultimate sample size was small because we limited the subject spectators to those who used social media, and that there is a need to consider questionnaire items that better reflect the strategy and state of the social media utilized by professional sports clubs. In addition, although we had specified *entertainment* to measure attitude and *word of mouth* to indicate behavioral intention formed from that attitude, it is possible that other variables exist. To better describe the relationship, considering other variables (e.g., frequency and willingness to communicate with the club via social media as indicators to measure engagement, frequency of reposting articles and comments posted by the club and willingness to spread the word as measures of intention to recommend, etc.) and examining their relationship with actual behaviors could also present future challenges.
References


Development of Sports and Recreation Promotion Model for Provincial Administration in Thailand

Phuchong RUNG-IN

Issadee KUTINTARA

Somchai PRASERTSIRIPHAN

Doctoral Degree Program in Sports Management

Kasetsart University, Thailand
Abstract

**Background:** Sports and Recreation Development Model for Provincial Administration in Thailand is the policy of Thailand according to the National Sports Development Plan No. 5 (B.E. 2555-2559). The Sports Authority of Thailand has operated according to the decentralization policy of transferring sports and recreation work to various provinces around the country in order to promote sports and recreation. Due to the fact that establishment and work operation of the sports and recreation is quite new compared to others, sports and recreation development model would therefore bring in unity and efficiency to sports administration and enhance decentralization of power among local sports authorities to achieve all 6 objectives set forth including 1. Development of basic sports 2. Sports development for mass communication 3. Sports development for excellence 4. Sports development for occupation 5. Sports science and technology development 6. Development of sports management.

**Purpose:** To develop a Sports and Recreation Development Model for Provincial Administration in Thailand.

**Methodology:** This is mixed research between quantitative research and qualitative research which the researcher has collected the information from literature review and survey for collecting the data in Sports and Recreation Development Model for Provincial Administration in Thailand which uses multistage Random Sampling in 4 regions of 352 people. Sample groups are then divided into 3 groups for mean and standard deviation analysis for the Phrase I. These sample groups are (1) 16 provincial administrative organization executives, (2) 16 heads of sports and recreation work, (3) 320 people who are the users of service. Phase II is the development of sports and recreation promotion by Focus Group Discussion. 9 experts are invited for verifying the proposed Sports and Recreation Development Model for Provincial Administration in Thailand in terms of validity, reliability, and generalization.

**Result:** For developing basic sports, it is proposed to have volunteer teachers on sports development of the province. For mass sport development, well-trained staff and good quality equipment are needed more. For sport excellence, there should be continuous sports competition in every level. As for sports development for occupation, the provincial sports should be more professional oriented. As for sports science and technology development, there should be sports science center in the province in order to develop athletes and service users. Regarding sports administration, the sports and recreation promotion work should be separated into (1) sports and (2) recreation division structure. The highest executive level is the head of the provincial administrative organization supported by sports and recreation committee. The committee shall represent Sports Authority of Thailand, Ministry of Tourism and Sports, Ministry of Public Health, Ministry of Interior Affair, provincial sports clubs, and local community and be appointed by the chairman. The head of the sports and recreation promotion department will be a part of committee as secretary for housekeeping and calling for meetings. As for the work operational structure, it should consist of sports and recreation promotion department and the general managing department.
**Discussion:** To achieve the maximum level of outcomes from the model, qualification of staff for each position should be strategically and clearly specified. Should there be no such job specification, redundancy of qualified personnel might occur. Comparative study of sport and recreation promotion departments that use and use not of the model should also be conducted a more comprehensive development of the model.

*Keyword: Sports and Recreation, Development Model, Provincial Sport and Recreation Administration*
In Thailand, the provincial administration organization (PAO) is one of the public institutions which has the authority and responsible in arranging different forms of public services for people in the province. In terms of promoting sports and recreation activities, it is the PAO’s mission of being the collaboration center and authorizing the activities among sport organizations, sport clubs and any sport unions within and outside the province. However according to the study from Phuchong & Itthi (2012, p.78), it was found that there were some deficiencies in terms of sport equipments, sport events and competitions and the public recreation areas whereas the available exercise gears did not meet the standard for public services. Based on this current situation, it is necessary for the local public organizations to establish a center that help provide the public services for people in their area as Samahito (1999,p. 22) stated that the local sport center which takes the responsibility in managing the sport activity must be the center that acts under the policy from the sport headquarter and the formats of this local sport center can be organized in either as a sport department or a sport division. Both arrangement formats can help develop the unity and continuity of the sport management in the nation and assist a better management in planning and sharing sport personnel, the premises, sport equipments which will create the highest benefit for people in the area. In order to meet the goals, PAO and its subdivision which take direct responsibilities in sport and recreations need to administrate their organization by strictly following the administration and management theories. Fundamentally, to administrate an organization effectively, there are the needs of four resources namely people, budgeting, equipments and the management methods. Based from this fundamental fact, 4M’s Theory was applied as the framework of this study because the four resources are essential and the effectiveness of the management directly relies on the sufficiency and the quality of these four resources. Gulick & Urwick (1992, p. 261-263) point out seven factors that involving in organization administrations and coined the term “POSDCoRB” which is the acronym of Planning, Organizing, Staffing, Directing, Coordinating, Reporting and Budgeting. From these mentioned factors, it is clearly illustrated that the administration theory is the vital part in sports and recreations management especially in planning long term plan and creating a better vivid picture for the plan that help support decision makers to make better decisions and smoothen the working process as a whole. Therefore, the administrating and
promoting sports and recreations are beneficial for the local people that all PAOs need to pay their attentions to in order for promoting the unity and efficiency in sport and recreations administration in the country and lead to the highest benefit of the country.

RESEARCH QUESTIONS
1. What are the conditions and the problems in Sports and Recreations Promotion Division in each PAO?
2. What are the formats of Sports and Recreations promotion duties in each PAO?

RESEARCH OBJECTIVES
1. To observe the conditions and problems in sports and recreations promotion duties in PAOs in Thailand.
2. To investigate the process of sports and recreations promotion duties in PAOs in Thailand.
3. To develop the format that help assist the sports and recreations promotion duties for PAOs in Thailand.

SIGNIFICANCE OF THE STUDY
Findings from this study can help illustrate various sports and recreation promotion formats using in PAOs around Thailand and they can be used as the resource for PAOs when planning the sports and recreation promotion formats in the future.

LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY
This study aimed to investigate the development of sports and recreations promotion duties under PAOs’ authority after the missions and responsibilities are transferred from Sports Authority of Thailand. 4M’s Theory and POSDCoRB were applied as the frameworks for this study. Research population of this study consisted of 3 target groups namely 1) administrative figures in PAOs, heads of Sports and Recreations Promotion Divisions and 3) the clients who receive the services.
The study of “Development of Sports and Recreation Promotion Model for Provincial Administration in Thailand” Issues of the study are as follow:

Kalong YENCHIT (2005) studies “Developing a Model for Sub-District Sport Center under the Sports Authority of Thailand” It is concluded that

The Sports Authority of Thailand had established 876 District and 6,747 Sub-district Sports under the 3rd National Sport Development Plan (B.E 2545-2549). The purposes of the centers were to promote and administer local sport programs. Since the establishment of sport centers was relatively new, there was still a search for a more effective organizational model. The purpose of this research was to develop an organization model of the sport centers with the concept of decentralization under 6 strategic aspects specified under the 3rd National Sport Plan, i.e. 1) Basic Sport Development, 2) Mass Sport Development, 3) Elite Sport Development, 4) Professional Sports Development, 5) Development of Science and Technology, 6) Improvement of Sport Administration. The research had two phase. In Phase I, attempt was made to study problems involved in sport program of the centers. Participants in this phase (N=1,155), selected randomly, were 63 Office Directores of Provincial of Sports Authority of Thailand, 364 Secretaries of Sub-District Sport Centers, and 728 persons using the services at the Sport Centers. A rating-scale type questionnaire, with reliability of .90, was used for data collection. All problems indicated by respondents were analyzed with SPSS program and an organization model for Sub-District Sport Center was proposed. In Phase II, the model was sent to 19 experts for comments and suggestions. The researcher used such comments and suggestions to modify the model. In this newly proposed model, the research propose the followings: 1) a need for volunteers to work for Basic Sport Development programs, 2) a need for more facilities for Mass Sport Development Plan, 3) a need for more professional sport at Tambon level, 5) a need for Tambon Sport Science Center, and 6) a need for new Organization of Tambon Sport Center that includes the following persons as the administrative committee President of Tambon Administrative Organization as chair, and members from village representatives, Tambon’s SAT representative, representatives from the Ministry of Interior, and Ministry of Public Health representatives from Tambon’s sport clubs, and persons appointed by the chair.
Research Methodology

Population and samples

Population of this study comprises of 1) administrative figures in PAOs, heads of Sports and Recreations Promotion Divisions and 3) the clients who receive the services offering by PAOs in Thailand. The samples consist of 16 PAOs administrative figures, 16 heads of Sports and Recreations Promotions Divisions and 352 clients.

Research tools

The questionnaires and the interviews were used as the research tools in this study. By using both tools the interviewees were requested to provide their opinions on two main aspects; first aspect on the four resources in administration namely 1.1) personnel, 1. 2) budgeting, 1.3) the premise, equipments and facilities and 1.4) the management and second aspect in seven factors in management and administration process including 2.1) planning, 2.2) organizing, 2.3) staffing, 2.4) directing, 2.5) coordinating, 2.6) reporting and 2.7) budgeting.

Data collections

The letter requesting for the collaborations was taken by the researcher to ask for the assistance from the PAOs. The interviews of both PAOs’ executives and heads of the divisions were recorded by an audio recording tool, and each of them was requested to sign the interview consent form. Data were transcribed to check the correctness and completeness of the information by the researcher.

Data analysis

Data were analyzed using these following procedures.

1. Analyzing the demographic data of the samples by using frequency and percentile. Data were presented in forms of tables and descriptive essay.

2. Investigating the problems in promoting sports and recreations by searching for the Mean
and Standard Deviation (S.D) in order to interpret both statistical values into meanings by using these ranges of arithmetic Mean (\( \bar{X} \)) (Srisa-Art, 1992).

(5) average scores 4.51- 5.00 - problems in steering the working process are at the highest level
(4) average scores 3.51- 4.50 - problems in steering the working process are at the high level
(3) average scores 2.51- 3.50 - problems in steering the working process are at the mid level
(2) average scores 1.51-2.50 - problems in steering the working process are at the low level
(1) average scores 1.51-1.50 - problems in steering the working process are at the lowest level

3. Results from the findings were presented to nine experts for their consultants and their selections of the best format in sports and recreations, and the chosen format will later be used in developing the better sports and recreations management process in the future.
Conclusions

Section 1
Part 1: General information from 352 informants

The informants were consisted of 226 male (64.3%) and 126 female (35.7%), the majority of the informants were in their 31-35 years of age (109 informants or 30.8%), and 87 of them (24.6 %) were in their 26-30 years of age. 225 informants (63.8%) gained bachelor degree, whereas 85 informants (24 %) graduated gained higher education than bachelor degree. Majority of informants or 15 people (46.8%) had been working for 5-8 years and 11 informants (34.3%) had been working for 9-12 years.

Part 2: Information about the resources in administration and the administration process in sports and recreations promotions of PAOs in Thailand in terms of 4M’s and POSDCoRB.

2.1 Problems in promoting sports and recreations of PAOs from PAOs’ executives’, heads of sports and recreation divisions and the clients’ perspectives.

Figure 1: The mean of problems in promoting sports and recreations in PAOs from the executives, the heads of the divisions and the clients
From figure 1: the mean of problems in promoting sports and recreations from PAOs executives, the heads of the divisions and the clients illustrated that the problems in developing of sports at the fundamental level were ranged at the mid level (\( \bar{X} = 3.32,\) S.D.=0.07), problems in developing sports for mass groups of people were ranged at the mid level (\( \bar{X} =3.38,\) S.D. = 0.12), problems in developing the sports for the highest performance were ranged at the mid level (\( \bar{X} =3.37,\) S.D. =0.19), problems in developing the sports for professions were ranged at the mid level (\( \bar{X} =3.36,\) S.D. = 0.25), problems in developing science and technology in sports were ranged at mid level (\( \bar{X} =3.49,\) S.D = 0.20), problems in sport administrations and planning were ranged at mid level (\( \bar{X} =3.33,\) S.D = 0.04). In terms of organizing, problems were ranged at the mid level (\( \bar{X} =3.44,\) S.D.=0.29).In terms of personnel, problems were ranged at the mid level (\( \bar{X} =3.59,\) S.D.=0.11), the premise, sport equipments and facilities, problems were ranged at the mid level (\( \bar{X} =3.16,\) S.D = 0.07), in collaborations, problems were ranged at the mid level (\( \bar{X} =3.45,\) S.D.=0.06), in reporting problems, problems were ranged at the mid level (\( \bar{X} =3.35,\) S.D =0.05) and the budgeting, the problems were ranged at the high level (\( \bar{X} =3.55,\) S.D.=0.03). From the data and the findings of this study, the researcher came up with the new structure of Sports and Recreations Division and it was presented to experts to investigate in comparing to the structure that is currently in use. It was also found that the department in which taking responsible for promoting sports and recreation in PAOs, it was also classified as a subdivision under the Division of Education, Religion and Culture which had various and plenty of missions to care of. While the sports and recreations promotion activities were classified only as a subdivision with the limitations of responsibilities, therefore it could not take full responsibility on various duties that were transferred from the Sport Authority of Thailand. Therefore, the researcher had done the analysis on the new structure for the sports and recreations subdivision in order to present and to request the experts to check. The analytical processes were as followed.

**Section 2**

**Part 3**

The researcher had presented the findings to nine experts by using focus group discussion method in order to develop the format of new sports and recreations promotion for PAOs. In addition, the result from the assessment which had been conducted by PAOs executives from 16
provinces namely Chieng Rai, Phrae, Pitsanulok, Phichit, Phra Nakhon Sri Ayuthaya, Chacherng Sao, Nonthaburi, Samut Songkram, Khon Khean, Ubon Ratchathani, Nakhon Pano, Sri Saket, Ranong, Phang Nga, Pattalung and Satoon were presented by using percentage and present the findings in forms of tables and descriptive essay. The appropriateness values were determined as followed.

**Agree** means the expert had agreed that the combinations of the developing format of sport and recreation promotion were appropriate.

**Disagree** means the expert had disagreed and considered that the combinations of the developing format of sport and recreation promotion in that particular factor were inappropriate.

**Unsure** means the expert were still unsure about that the combinations of the developing format of sport and recreation promotion whether they were appropriate or not.

The percentage of appropriateness in the development of sport and recreation promotion in PAOs in Thailand (views from experts and the PAOs executives)
From figure 2, the analysis of data from the experts’ opinions and the PAOs executives on the appropriateness of the development of sport and recreation promotion, both parties had totally agreed in terms of the developing of sports at the fundamental level (100%), in terms of developing sports for masses were ranged at the mid level (100%) and in terms of developing the sports for the highest achievement (100%). However, in terms of developing the sports for professions both parties agreed at the level of 76%, whereas in terms of developing science and technology in sports, both parties agreed at level of 88%.

Part 4: Opinions from the experts and PAOs executives on the format of sports and recreations promotion based on the administration process (POSDCoRB)

Planning

1. Department of Local Administration should organize the seminar in order to search for the possibilities in promoting sports for local leaders especially for the chief executives from PAOs around the country. Co-organizing among Ministry of Interior, Department of Provincial Administration, Ministry of Tourism and Sports should be urgently established to create both short term and long term sport administration plans for the country as the needs of these plans have been stated in the fifth National Sport Development Plan and the fifth handbook of the National Sport Strategic Planning.

2. Conducting the survey particularly in terms of sport promotion among PAOs and the data can be used when arranging the supporting budget. In addition, this should be a part in the plan of the Sport and Recreation Promotion Division.

3. The Sport and Recreation Promotion Division Development Plan should be specifically created and presented to the provincial authority. The plan should be included in the Provincial Development Plan afterwards.

Organizing

1. Conduct the public relation and readjust the regulations of the Sport and Recreation Promotion Division and with the approval from Ministry of Interior, the improving and rearranging of regulations and process should be made.
2. Requesting all local administration organization to set up the permanent office of Sport and Recreation Promotion Office in their areas.

3. The Sport and Recreation Promotion Committee should comprise of the representatives from every village and local people in order to distribute the responsibilities into all villages and sub-districts.

4. The sport and recreation promotion committee should be legally approved because the structure of the committee is needed to be arranged in order to support the development of sport promotion in the regions.

**Staffing**

1. Local administration organizations should gain more authority and take more active role in sport management and with more participation from local people. The PAO should act as the center in administrating and distributing the responsibilities into village and sub-district levels.

2. The heads of the Sport and Recreation Promotion Division should be continuously trained to increase their knowledge in sport management and able to apply the good governance principles into the sport management.

3. Full time officers working in the Sport and Recreation Promotion Division are needed in order to take actions in sport management and with their abilities, they can direct and support the juveniles and local people regarding to the demanding of sports and recreations.

**Directing**

1. The development of networks in sports within the province should be made with the core collaborations from the provincial sport committee and the provincial sport union. They should act as the leader parties in designing the sport policy for the province, district, sub-districts and for the villages. The collaborations among the provincial sport committee, district sport committee and the sub-district sport committee should be practically and continuously established.

2. The Sport Authority of Thailand should request the joined meeting of the administrative from Ministry of Tourism and Sports and Ministry of Interior to search for the possible solutions in establishing the suitable sub-district sport centers that carry the highest possibility in development.
3. The authority in sport management should be decentralized by appointing the local administration organizations to take duties in sport management planning. The budget regarding to sport management is considered a part of that particular local administration organizations’ budget plan.

4. The public relation system should be clearly developed and continuously applied to promote the sub-district sport center and its activities.

**Coordinating**

1. The organization which has the duty in promoting sports for exercise should find the permanent staff who have their expertise in this field.

2. There should be the coordination among local administration organizations and people in the province should participate in sport planning and administration in their areas.

**Reporting**

1. A handbook which clearly states the practical report methods should be written and updated. Sport regulations should be included in the handbook as well.

2. The reporting channels should be created in order to help support the continuity of the announcements by the Sport and Recreation Promotion Division about sport events to the mass media or other authorities.

3. The development of information system in sports and networking in all levels within and among provinces should be established.

4. The measurement process or the indicators should be created in order to assess the working process of the Sport and Recreation Promotion Division.

**Budgeting**

1. The government should provide the budget to support the sports and recreation fund for sport and recreation management purposes.

2. Private organizations should also provide the funding to support the development of sports management in Sport and Recreation Promotion Division.

3. The Provincial Administration Organization should be the institution which takes part in administrating the budget though the Sport and Recreation Promotion
Division because all processes on the activities of the division are already in the action plans.

4. The Provincial Administration Organization should take part in the health development scheme in the local communities by splitting at least five percents of its local taxes to cover the cost of hiring public education staff who will be responsible for teaching sports, arranging sport events and sport competitions between villages and sub-districts. This funding will also be used for purchasing new sport equipments annually. These actions are required and already stated in the fifth National Sport Development Plan under the Development of Sport Administration Sector.

Part 4: Research outcomes on the development of sports and recreations promotion of PAOs in Thailand. The new structure of the Sports and Recreation Division is illustrated as followed.

The findings based on the opinions from PAOs executives in 16 provinces namely Chiang Rai, Phrae, Pitsanulok, Pichit, Phra Nakhon Sri Ayuthaya, Chacherng Sao, Nonthaburi, Samut Songkram, Khon Khean, Ubon Ratchathani, Nakhon Pano,, Sri Saket, Ranong, Phang Nga, Pattalung and Satoon, the level of agreement was at 68.75 percent, the disagreement level was at 12.5 percent and the level of unsure was at 18.75 percent. The result was portrayed in figure 3.

![Figure 3: New structure of Sports and Recreations Promotion Division](image-url)
From figure 3, it is illustrated that the new model of the division emphasized the decentralization of the authority in promoting sports and recreations. Authorities in sport management and recreation are distributed from the province or the center into the local or rural areas with the assistance from local administration organizations and committee who are the representatives from the Ministries that have direct responsibility in developing human resources and promoting sports and recreations with the participations from local people. The model is consisted of the board of sport and recreation promotion and the chief executive of the PAO is the chairperson. The vice-chairpersons are selected from the chairperson with the representatives from Ministries as the board committee. This new model can create better collaborations among the related organizations. The difference between the traditional model and the new one here is the part that local people, appointed by the chairperson, are able to participate in the committee. The new model also appoints the head of the Sport and Recreation Promotion Division to take the full responsibility in setting up and presenting the budget plan to the related organization, and based on his/her direct responsibilities, he or she should be appointed as the secretary of the board of the committee. The new model also appointed the general administration staff to work as a committee and the assistant to the secretary and he/she also have the clear duties in setting up the sport and recreation plan, looking after and keep the provincial sport stadiums and sport areas in the best condition, setting up the sport equipment borrowing and storing regulations and providing services for local people, founding sport clubs within the PAO, writing the monthly and annually report of the Sport and Recreation Promotion Division. Their duties also include the presenting of new ideas in promoting sport and recreation in the area. These actions are to answer the process under the fifth National Sport Development Plan (2013-2016)

The researcher would also suggested that there should be both temporary and full-time officers station at the division in order to smoothen the working process and they all have the abilities in giving the right directions in developing and promoting sports and recreations and these also answer to the development the sport for masses policy stating in the fifth National Sport Development Plan (2013-2016).
The Implementations

1. Traditional model of the Sport and Recreation Promotion Division

   According to the urgent policy that required the Sport Authority of Thailand to transfer its responsibilities to and appointed the Local Administration Department to collaborate with the PAOs that are ready to receive the transformation of the mission relating to sports to form up the new division and set up the working process and reporting back the result every month. However, it seems that the process is unclear that what exactly should be done and apart from that the process stated nothing about asking any related organizations in assisting the sport events or any recreation activities or supporting any funding.

2. New model of the Sport and Recreation Promotion Division, revised and improved by the experts

   2.1 Local administration organizations should present this new model to their PAO and urge them to adopt and use it.

   2.2 The PAOs and the organizations relating to the sport promotion in the local area should adopt this sport and recreation promotion model and make use of it.
Suggestions

The further study in newer model of sport and recreation promotion division, the researcher would like to suggest that number of persons which can be appointed by the chairperson should be maximize at 12, because the current model of the Provincial Sport Promotion Board has also allow only the same number. If the number has not been stated, it may cause the advantages and disadvantages and there may be too many committees in a board. In addition, another vice-chairperson position can be added into the model in order to help the chairperson or in case that the chairperson cannot perform the duties. Further study about sport and recreation promotion division should be conducted regarding to

1. The needs of developing the integrated sport and recreation promotion division based on the needs from the governor.

2. Conducting the comparative study between the use of new sport and recreation promotion model and the traditional one, the advantages and disadvantages.
Cheng, Chih-Fu. Competency assessment in sport management for the republic of China (Taiwan). Dissertation Abstracts. 1993:151.


Managing Sport in Educational Institutions for National Sports Development

Amphorn Sriyaphai¹

Supitr Samahito², Ph.D.

Pongsak Swatdikiat³, Ph.D.

Sports Management Program, Faculty of Sports Science
Kasetsart University, Thailand
Abstract

This research aimed to study, analyze the structures and strategies as well as proposing the management guidelines in Sports School and Institute of Physical Education for the national sports development. Its study covers two dimensions i.e. organizational management and activity arrangement in connection with education and sport in institutions for basic and higher education. The sample groups comprised of the executive members of educational institutions, administrators from sport organizations, professors who experts in sport and management career from P.R of China, Republic of Korea, Japan, Chinese Taipei and USA., members of FISU/EduC Commission, and top athletes from national teams who are now studying in educational institutes were included. The total of 68 samples were selected by means of purposive sampling. Four questionnaires of structured interview were developed by adopting management principles initiated by Fayol (1916) and Chelladurai (2009). All of those instruments were verified by IOC for the content validity and reliability information was tested on the ground of triangulation technique while the information analysis was conducted on the basic of descriptive analysis.

Regarding this research results, The Sport School and Institutes of Physical Education must have strong and serious managing sport in 5 functions of management; planning, organizing, staffing, leading and evaluating. The government should set the national sport development as “National Agenda” in order to embed the students for being good citizens. In educational institutions where there are the talented athletes, should give them a very strong in fostering, supporting and developing them to achieve their maximum potential both in academic and sport for their excellence career and professional in sport. From this point of view, Thailand needs to establish “National Sport University” as a strong foundation of national sports development.

Keyword: educational institutions / managing sport/ sport management guidelines
Introduction

The activities of sport and exercise can access to all people regardless of gender, age, nationality and religion. Multifarious organizations turn to focus on sports extensively as sports is a fundamental factor to help promote the development of body, mind, emotion, sociability, and intellect. The value of sports is not only improving quality of living and healthiness of players, but also providing lessons learned of defeat, victory, and forgiveness. The sports also advance virtue, morality, discipline, and sportsmanship (Bailey, 2006; Samahito, 2009). The ideas correspond to the mention of Gallien (2007) that development by means of sports is sustainable as it brings about the obvious uplift in virtue and morality to the society. Therefore, educational institutes are a good start to adopt the sports for development of their personnel. According to the aforesaid reason, in terms of educational management, the sports should be continuously attached as a part of varied educational programs offered for different levels for creating the graduates to serve the society. The sports can be applied for enhancement of students in terms of self appreciation, self control, and self respect, as embedding the concepts of spirit, sportsmanship, and teamwork. After graduations, these graduates would be able to promote peace and happiness in the society. During the educational period, especially in the undergraduate level, youths reach the highest physical development in university level, while the educational institutes are academic sources playing a role in creating specialized personnel, study, research, tool, and innovation. If these elements are combined in real practice for student athletes based on the balance of academic approaches and real practices, the educational institutes would definitely be the places to build up elite athletes (Bingshu, 2009; Soler, 2010). The educational institutes also receive value added as well (Mitic, 2009). Thus, sport is an educational tool for sustainable development of humans and quality of living in all perspectives i.e. body, health, mind, virtue, morality, career, economy, and politics (You, 2005; Gallien, 2005). In addition, the sports can develop the potential of athlete into excellence, leading to immediate reputations of the athlete and nation. The sports can be an extremely well-paid career which is a way to boost up national economy and build up numerous related businesses and activities such as sports equipment, sports clothes, stadiums, sports training centers, fitness centers, sports marketing, sports competition arrangements, athlete trading, using sports as direct media to target groups of businesses, and tourism. A number of academic experts, as occupation, for the development of athletes are emerged e.g. coach, referee, sports manager, sports medicine
physician, sports therapist, and sports scientist. Many cities have offered themselves to be hosts of big sports games such as SEA Games, Asian Games, and Olympic Games because of their enormous incidental benefits in terms of public relations, reputation, income, economy, and politics. The entire benefits have drawn attentions of all sectors to the sports more and more.

The national sports can be developed effectively and sustainably subject to the educational institutes where play significant roles as sources gathering proficient personnel both on academic approaches and practices of sports such as sport scientist, physical education teacher, coach, referee, and particularly athlete. The sports capacity is implanted in athletes by educational institutes starting from elementary school, secondary school and up to university level. According to the literature review, it was found that most of student athletes who are in the age of education or studying in university (Sports Authority of Thailand, 2013) have all faced serious problems, especially elite athlete. That is, if elite athletes focus on sports trainings intensely, their academic performance would be dropped due to the absenteeism for trainings and attending tournaments because of not being able to catch up the lessons. Some of them have a delay in graduation, while some are dropouts. This is the forceful situation where the athletes must choose the top priority between sports and education. On one hand, partial athletes abandon education for sports because if they are successful in sports, they will rapidly gain reputation and income. On the other hand, some athletes stop playing sports and pay attention to education for their future whose potentials in sports are lost in vein. The balance of sports training and academic education has become a dilemma for athlete in all levels (Jones, 2003; Boudreaux, 2004; Holm, 2009). Consequently, if the sports are developed continuously and systematically in terms of management, course management, constant lesson, research for sports development, creation of sports tool and equipment with modern technology by concretely adopting sports science principles, putting a serious focus on development of systematizing sports for profession in order to provide a career to the elite athletes after their graduations, and development of related human resources in educational institutes thoroughly. These would lead to the sports development which can be extended to carrying out a profession in line with the National Sports Development Plan, as a means of applying sports for sustainable development in quality of living and national economy.
Purpose

This research aimed to study, to analyze the structures and strategies as well as to propose the management guidelines to be applied in Sports Schools and Institutes of Physical Educations in order to develop sport as a whole in Thailand.

Methodology

In this research, the researcher studied two dimensions of sports management in Sports Schools and Institutes of Physical Educations include of organizational management and activity arrangement in relation to education and sports. The fundamental level contains sports schools. The higher education level is Institute of Physical Education (IPE) in Thailand, Republic of Korea, People’s Republic of China, and Japan with the following details.

Sample

The sample group is derived by means of purposive sampling with a total of 68 persons who are stakeholders which can be classified as below.

1. The executives members from 5 Sport Schools (Chonburi Sport School, Suphanburi Sport School, Bangkok Sport School, Nakhon Phathom Sport School, and Nonthabouru Sport School) and 5 Institutes of Physical Education (IPE) (Chiangmai Campus, Chonburi Campus, Suphanburi Campus, Krabi Campus and Main Campus in Bangkok). One executive member from each school and campus, there are altogether 10 persons.

2. Two executives from Ministry of Tourism and Sports, one from the Department of Physical Education and another one from the Sports Authority of Thailand.

3. Three committee members of the Fifth National Sports Development Plan and 33 members in relation to the drive of this plan.

4. Five executive members and coached from Sport Associations of Thailand and coaches. (Thai Amateur Weightlifting Association, Thai Cycling Association, Taekwondo Association of Thailand, Football Association of Thailand, and Lawn Tennis Association of Thailand). One member from each association.
5. Foreign executive experts from educational institution where are prominent in educational management and sports development from People’s Republic of China, Republic of Korea, and Japan, two experts from each country.

6. Sport Management experts in sports management from the United States of America and Chinese Taipei, two experts from each country.


9. Ten top athletes from national teams who are now studying in educational institutes.

Research Instruments

Four questionnaires of structure interview comprising planning, organizing, staffing, leading, and evaluating were developed by adopting management principles of Fayol (1916) and Sport management principle initiated by Chelladurai (2009). All of those instruments were verified by Index of Item Objective Congruence: IOC for the content validity, and reliability. For the reliability, the information was tested on the ground of triangulation technique while the information analysis was conducted on the basic of descriptive analysis.

Data Collection

The data and methodology applied in Mixed- Methods Design, combines with the qualitative and quantitative research methods

Step 1 Document Study

Studying and reviewing documents related to sports management in educational institutes in terms of management structure and activity arrangements concerning sports development both national and international level to be applied for content analysis and the research instruments are constructed.
Step 2 Data Survey and Field Visit

1. Gathering information of educational institutes to be selected as a sample group in relation to arrangement of sports and teaching activities from documents, textbooks, statistics, and sports achievements.

2. Interviewing stakeholders from educational institutes to be selected as a sample group i.e. student athletes, teachers, lecturers, coaches, and other related persons for considering the selection of sample group.

3. Site visit to observe arrangement of sports and teaching activities in educational institutes to be selected as a sample group, aiming at preparing primitive data for considering the selection of sample group and in-depth interview of executives.

Step 3 In-Dept Interview

The in-depth interview is conducted to two sample groups individually. The first group is Thais consisting of executives from educational institutes, executives of national sports organizations who are in charge of determining policies, athlete users, and talented athletes who are studying in educational institutes. The second group is foreigners who are experts in educational management and sports arrangement in the universities and sport private sectors.

Step 4 Focus Group

The focus group is conducted among related persons in driving the Fifth National Sports Development Plan covering 6 sport and exercise strategies plan as follows: (1) sports and basic exercise, (2) sports and exercise for mass, (3) sports for excellence, (4) sports for profession, (5) sports science and technology, and (6) sports and exercise management strategy, to brainstorm and seek directions to apply strategies as framework. These would lead to sustainable and concrete development of sports in nationwide.
Result and Discussion

The data analysis is carried out based on studying documents, in-depth interview, and focus group by descriptive analysis. Its aims are to acquire data concerning structure and management strategy of educational institutes for national sports development and to outline the direction of sports management in the educational institutes for the purpose of fostering the national sports development. The findings are as follows:
Table 1: The summary of operations of Asian educational institutes whose direct missions are in relation to their national sports development.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Country</th>
<th>Elements of Sport Management in Educational Institutes for National Sports Development</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Basic Education Commission</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Thailand</td>
<td>• Establishing 11 sports schools under the Ministry of Tourism and Sports (since 1990) and 7 municipality schools under the Ministry of Interior were upgraded to municipality sports schools (fully operated in 2002).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Republic of Korea</td>
<td>• Founding sports schools under Korea National</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

48
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Country</th>
<th>Elements of Sport Management in Educational Institutes for National Sports Development</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Basic Education Commission</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Sport University whose education is connected to the university level.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>People’s Republic of China</td>
<td>- Establishing sports schools since 1956 which presently are beyond 3,000 schools.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>- Founding sports schools in every precinct.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Country | Elements of Sport Management in Educational Institutes for National Sports Development
--- | ---

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Basic Education Commission</th>
<th>Higher Education Commission</th>
<th>National Level</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Japan</td>
<td>• Establishing sports schools.</td>
<td>• Setting up Nippon Sports Science University in big cities of the country.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Founding sport academy operated by private sector.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
According to the analysis on relevant information, the overall summary in Thailand, Republic of Korea, People’s Republic of China, and Japan having similar development system of education and sport. That is, they have national sports development plans and ministry to provide direct supports for education and sports. However, they have difference in details, movement mechanism, and practice. The People’s Republic of China where is globally accepted as the great nation of sports has systematic management which produces apparently concrete results, followed by the Republic of Korea and Japan where have systematic management as well. Thailand is still far from the success of national sports development. We can see from the results of sports competitions in international levels. Although Thailand receives the government supports in terms of promoting and all-level competition sports arranged countrywide, formulating clear national policy, and establishment of state agency in charge of sports in national level, it was found that the number of hours to be spent for physical education and sports activity decreased. Some schools almost don’t have any studying hour for physical education. The lack of exercise among Thai students results in the rise of obese children which becomes a national problem. In university level, it was found that a great number of athletes in White Elephant Project changed their universities and quitted playing sports. This has reflected the failure of sports management in Thailand. The management of sports in educational institutes which can play its part in the national sports development rests on the elements of structure of sports organization, management process, and arrangement of academic and sports activities in the educational institutes as the following.

The national sports development should be commenced from building up correct basis of sports in childhood in order to seriously promote the significance of exercise and sports to children and youths. The educational institutes would be main organizations playing the roles of providing courses relevant to sports and physical education, development of children and youths, researches, and creating sport-related tools and innovations under the supports of national sports organizations i.e. the Department of Physical Education, Sports Authority of Thailand, and other relevant organizations. To achieve the systematic and efficient developments of sports management in educational institutes, the institutes should employ a management strategy which runs academic and sports activities in parallel (Griffin, 1999). The executives need to apply operational
The significant things to be proceeded in planning are reliance upon policies, service receivers, and facts, and analysis of related conditions. In terms of planning for sports management in educational institutes to promote the national sports development, all-level educational institutes should adopt the framework of the Fifth National Sports Development Plan as a guideline of formulating the sports development plans of educational institutes which needs to correspond with policies and operational plans of national and international sports organizations. These development plans for sports excellence must go together with academic success (Green, 2004) by integrating personnel, venue and equipment, budget, and management together. Kriemadis (2011) said that the main operational plan for sports should comprise at least three sub-plans which are management plan, financial plan, and master plan for procurement of equipment and support factors. The educational institutes where are ready and have clear target of sports development should formulate marketing plan and risk management plan (Kadlecek, 2001; Green and Collins, 2008). The brainstorming from all related parties, especially community is required in order to be able to truly derive benefits from sports, which would lead to other dimensions of development.

II. Organizing

The educational institutes need to set up systematic organizational structures which correspond to roles and duties and cover all jobs targeting at the development of student quality. In terms of teaching and activity, work must be diversified by determining clear duty and responsibility including line of authority, to enable staff to follow appropriate guideline to achieve the goals. The educational institutes are required to organize their structures to be aligned with national sports organizations which are possibly based on professions, international standards, or central system (Slack and Hinings, 1992). The
structures can be adjusted to correspond with cultures and objectives of organizations,

enabling quick command and facilitating operational convenience. These structures should

follow the simple management structure or specific structure owing to principles initiated

by Mintzberg which provide freedom, power of pressure, and support work units holding

negotiation power (Rail, 1988; Green and Collins, 2008). The sports work should not be

mixed with other tasks, but should be under the direct command of top executives. The

top executives with authority should perform the management by themselves for rapid

sports developments and their apparent results. In this regard, the organizational structure

of sports in educational institutes should be split into three parts as a minimum.

1) The academic function is related to teaching and research so as to develop

relevant sports knowledge. Its job functions are intensively different owing to levels of

education. In sport school level, the work is directly under academic unit and director.

While in university level (Institute of Physical Education), the work is directly under

faculty, major subject, and department. The unit for monitoring the academic progress of

athletes needs to be established.

2) The function of sports development to excellence in Sport Schools and Institutes

of Physical Education should have an independent committee which is directly under the

top executive by engaging all relevant parties including the third party who is a sports

expert. The establishment of sports skill development unit is required by assigning the

task to experts due to their types of sports profession as determined by the educational

institutes without redundancy. The teachers from major subject / Department / Faculty of

Physical Education or Faculty of Sports Science should hold main responsibilities. The

task can be operated in cooperation with the external experts to increase experience with

learning by doing at the same time. The sports training center and sports science center

for excellence should be set up, under the supervisions of a group of advisors who are

experts in international and national levels from external sports agencies and companies,

which display obvious supports in sports.

II. Staffing

The good staffing would lift up organizational efficiency. This comprises the

process relating to recruitment, development, motivation, and retention. The significant
The objective of staffing is increasing operational efficiency of staff. The management of staff in sports is not different from that of other fields. However, the process of development carries different practices (Chilladurai, 2006). The staff in relation to tasks of sports in educational institutes consists of three main groups as the following.

The sports executives hold authority in decision making due to level of importance (chancellor, dean, director, head of department, head of subjects, head of divisions etc). The qualifications of good executives in sports are possessing wide knowledge and vision in management and sports, adoration and understanding in sports, network, flexibility, justice, and access to staff in job functions and athletes. The executives should give opportunities to staff in all functions to participate in sports development.

In Sport Schools and Institutes of Physical Education, the operational staff comprises of teachers in academic fields, coaches, and sports team managers. They need to possess expertise and gain experience in sports directly both in national and international levels. They must be able to actually operate their tasks and being the role model for the athletes (Preacco, 2009). It is necessary for the educational institutes to employ permanent sports personnel who hold degrees in sports science and physical education to be in charge of sports directly. If the permanent staff is inadequate, the organizations need to seek the third parties who actually have knowledge to give supports. The organizations must usually take care of, give morale support to, and encourage their staffs.

The athletes are core products of sports development which Sport Schools and Institutes of Physical Education are the main organizations where are required to have awareness in creating athletes. These educational institutes must manage the students to study academic subjects and practice sports side by side. In sports development, three consecutive processes (Green, 2005) must be included which are recruitment, retention, and transition because the final outcome which can fulfill the task of sports development is all of those students who are able to apply sports for excellence and profession.

IV. Leading
Leading is one of management strategies in order to enable the related staff to achieve the targets of organization. The executives must use strategies in commands, controls, persuasions, and motivations for individuals and groups to achieve operations as planned. In relation to sports management in the Sport Schools and Institutes of Physical Education, the completeness of academic dimension must be maintained while supporting excellence in sports to keep academic and sport values. These two sides should be balanced. The sports should be a part of developing quality of life of students in terms of health, intelligence, and morality to be further becoming their income and profession in the future. Holm (2009) and Padis (2009) mentioned that the educational institutes need to create popularity of playing sports first and then they can build up highly competitive team. Additionally, the Sport Schools and Institutes of Physical Education need to create environment in their places to be sports community with clear support from state agencies (Green, 2005; Kao, 2007). The number of hours for students to practice sports must be increased. The standard competitions or activities need to be held by starting from sports for excellence, and sports for profession respectively. These rely on cooperation from all parties in all sectors to establish systematic management which has connections in all levels of education, sport associations as well as the Sports Authority of Thailand and National Olympic Committee of Thailand.

The processes which need to be focused on and applied for the development in ability of athletes are sport scientific training and sport socialization (Nakornkhet, 2012). Such concept is in line with that of Samahito (2013) which holistic knowledge is adopted by numerous countries as a basis for sport development. The holistic knowledge covers three dimensions which are high performance athlete, boosting up healthiness by mass sports/recreation sports, and development of sport industry. These also include sport business management and sport technology development for full development of athletes. The knowledge of sports science plays its important roles in developing the capacity of athletes to excellence and profession, through the operations carried out by National Sport Science Institute, where gathers experts in several fields from educational institutes to be its committee members.
The Sport Schools and Institutes of Physical Education should train the students how to play sports and their rules in parallel with promoting sports for health. Then, it would be further developed into sports for excellence and profession by focusing on four dimensions of activity i.e. 1) teaching sports and related subjects to support athletes, 2) arranging systematic trainings and support factors for sports development, 3) supporting the elite athletes by sending them to participate the international sport competition in the major events, and 4) creating networks for sports cooperation with other organizations to exchange knowledge and keep updated.

V. Evaluating

The evaluation must be on the grounds of same system and standard, and must hold efficient criteria in practice for fairness. The principles of operational evaluations in accordance with the modern concept of Permchat (2005) contain at least three complements i.e. operational outcomes, organizational targets and objectives, and participations of staff and executives in determining their goals. Also, they have to focus on 360° feedback which engages stakeholders. The evaluation of Sport Schools and Institutes of Physical Education would be under the supervision and control of Office for National Education Standards and Quality Assessment (ONESQA) which would assess the overall educational institutes. There is no clear format of evaluation in sports operations in Thailand’s educational institutes. The researcher agreed with Goff (2000) that one of the indices of sport success in Sport Schools and Institutes of Physical Education is quality of athletes in two dimensions which are sportsmanship and graduation based on the curriculum. The evaluation must be conducted in terms of performance and three operational procedures comprising data collection, assessment, and applying its results for task improvement.

Guideline of Managing Sport in Sport Schools and Institutes of Physical Education for National Sports Development

1. Providing fundamental education for Sports Schools with the direction of management as follows;
1) The Sports Schools should be established along with the Institutes of Physical Education in every campus to be sources of research to acquire new knowledge;

2) All of Sports Schools must create prominent points of sports for competitions in Olympic Games and Asian Games at least two sports per one school;

3) All of Sports Schools must provide fundamental subjects according to basic education regulated by the Ministry of Education in parallel. The subjects need to be linked with contents of basic programs to further education in university level;

4) The management of Sports Schools must be complete in terms of planning, organizing, staffing, leading, and evaluating in order to lead to the target of national sports development in accordance with the National Sports Development Plan;

5) The staff responsible for teaching of Sports Schools must be screened carefully and they need to possess high sports skills and morality which is appropriate in transferring knowledge to students and be able to lead the athletes to excellence and profession;

6) The schools must support and promote athletes for their personal development to be able to usually and consecutively participate in international competitions to increase their experience;

7) The Sports schools need to implement a project to assess the academic performance of students intensively and seriously for their sports and academic accomplishments leading to enable them to acquire a career in the future. This is creating brand to the schools and assurance to the parents in sending their children to study in the schools;

8) The schools must cooperate with the Sports Authority of Thailand for the supports of professional coaches both Thais and foreigners to transfer their sport skills to the students, aiming for their rise of sport capacity;

9) The executives of school should collaborate with universities to provide opportunities to students occupying high academic performance to further their studies in special projects for the future of students; and
10) The sports training center of schools must be set up for excellence of schools by seriously applying sports science.

2. The management in higher education level for the Institute of Physical Education as follows;

1) The organizational restructuring for managing and academic sides must be implemented urgently, leading to specific educational institutes which comply with international standard. These specific educational institutes must be efficiently linked with educational institutes and organizations both domestic and offshore;

2) The management must truly focus on creating excellence to sports personnel covering athletes, coaches, referees, sport scientists, and executives;

3) All 17 campuses of the Institute of Physical Education countrywide should have plans for recruitment, support, and development while studying without redundancy, so as to intensively and seriously create graduate who are skillful in specific sports;

4) The personnel must be speedily developed to support the openings of graduate programs in the fields, which are necessary for the national sports development, to be genuinely specific educational institutes for sports;

5) It is highly necessary to create network for academic collaborations with the Institutes of Physical Education or foreign sports university because knowing each other would lead to appropriate, correct, and quick development; and

6) Love, harmony, and understanding among personnel among 17 campuses of Institutes of Physical Education relevant to actual targets and missions must be created to drive the organization forward stably for the benefits of nation.
Suggestions

The factors of success in sports development in Sport Schools and Institutes of Physical Education for the national sports development is supervising the operations to be proceeded as planned. The mechanism which drives the operations is personnel consisting of two sides. The first is producer covering executives, teachers, lecturers, coaches, and sport scientists etc. And the second is products covering student athletes. These two parts must be mixed in suitable proportion. That is, the organizations must recruit genuine skillful personnel to train athletes who are ready in terms of capacities and skills. By this way, the institutes would definitely achieve the success. The sports team requires teamwork with frequent assessments both themselves and athletes. The personnel need to be open-minded, realistic, flexible, and changed for the better. The budget, important support factor, must be adequately allocated and suitable for the plans. One way to acquire budget is implementing the “1 School, 1 University, 1 Sports Association, 1 State-Enterprise” Project, and finally, the establishment of “National University of Sport” has to be reconsidered as a strong foundation of national sports development.
References


The Management of Recreational Sport Organizations in an Urban Area of a Newly Developing Country - Taking the Example of Ho Chi Minh City

1Thi Thao Vy NGUYEN
Doctoral student of PE Graduate Institute, College of Physical Education
National Taiwan Sport University

2Kong-Ting YEH
Professor, College of Management
National Taiwan Sport University

3Min-Kai HSIEH
Doctoral student of PE Graduate Institute, College of Physical Education
National Taiwan Sport University
Abstract

Purpose: This study was to explore and compare the current situation of recreational sport organization types in Ho Chi Minh City (HCMC) based on determining the features of the participants, human resources, financial sources and satisfaction level on material facilities of units of the 3 following organizational types: public (state owned), private and non-profit. Subjects of this study were thirty people who represented the 3 components: state, non-profit and private in HCMC. Method: The instrument was questionnaires examining two main parts and 19 question items. Collected data was analyzed via the SPSS statistical package. Data analysis included factor analysis and internal consistent reliability statistic for the validity and reliability of the questionnaires; descriptive analysis for examining current situation; and one-way ANOVA for conducting the differences between groups. Conclusion: Conclusions were drawn as a result of research findings of the recreational sport organizations in HCMC. The private was the highest turn over in the three sectors of recreational sport in HCMC, and this sector also had the highest investment. However, the managers in private sector still did not satisfy about their facilities. Participants who enjoyed in the private sector were the largest in the three sectors. Regarding participants, the group ages from 31 to 50 years old was the most popular in recreational sport among Hochiminh city’s citizens. From the findings, managing authorities were suggested to find solutions for boosting investment and development of sport organizations and facilities belonging to the non-profit component and improving the quality of recreational sport in the organizations and facilities belonging to the state sector. Results: Base on the results of this study, private sector had the highest turn over and annual investment, however, this sector did not satisfy with their performance.

Keywords: recreational sport, types of organization, participation.
Introduction

A large number of different types of organizations make up the sport industry, that wide array of public, private, and voluntary organizations involved in the provision of sport products and services (Slack, 1997). Recreational sport organizations are now an integral and pervasive part of the sport industry in HCMC as well. Having thorough knowledge of these organizations can help the managers both in public and private sectors to better understand the problems they are facing. It can help them find out the solutions to the development of recreational sport movement in order to meet the diverse needs and demands of individuals, families, groups, clubs and societies.

Sport Organizations

This definition of a sport organization is based on definitions of an organization provided by Daft (1989) and Robbins (1990), and is as follows: ‘A sport organization is a social entity involved in the sport industry; it is goal-directed, with a consciously structured activity system and a relatively identifiable boundary’ (Slack, 1997).

Types of Organizations

The leisure-service system (Kraus, 2001) is described as many different names – the leisure providers or providers of leisure services and facilities (Torkildsen, 1999), deliver centers (Mull, 2005), park and recreation agencies (Hurd, 2008). Despite the names, they consist of many organizations that create and distribute recreation, parks, and leisure services programs. They range from non-profit, governmental agencies to profit-oriented, commercial ones. Such organizations may be involved in travel and tourism, entertainment services, food and hospitality services, and the provision of areas and facilities (Edginton, 2005).

Three sectors

A way of viewing different types of leisure service organizations can be applied from the work of the Drucker Foundation (The Drucker Foundation). This foundation believes that ‘a healthy society requires three vital sectors: a public sector of effective governments, a private sector of effective businesses, and social sector of effective community organizations’. Likewise, leisure facilities and activities have been traditionally provided by three sectors as shown in figure 1. (Roberts, 2001).
There are distinct differences in philosophy, objectivity and approach between public, voluntary and commercial sectors (Torkildsen, 1999). Each of the sectors has unique characteristics in term of governance, finance resources, and organization (Hurd, 2008).

**Public sector.** Organizations formed through legislation at the municipal, state/provincial, and federal levels dedicated to providing services to citizens at these levels; Municipal organizations – Administrative entities at the local level, such as a city, county, or town governed by a mayor, city manager, or council.

**Non-profit sector.** the U.S. term or Voluntary sector, the Canada term for a sector with nongovernmental and noncommercial organizations that are formally constituted for the public benefit.

**Commercial sector.** Sector with legally recognized businesses established for the purpose of generating a profit.
Henderson et al. (2001) notes that Public agencies are funded primarily by taxes and provide recreation, parks and leisure services at the local, county, state, and federal levels of government. Private agencies are non-profit organizations that receive their support from donations, fund-raising activities, and membership fees. Commercial organizations include those agencies that have profit as their primary motive (Edginton, 2005).

However, there is overlap between the public, voluntary and commercial sectors and that, in many cases, the three will be involved in the same kinds of provision and services. They are also increasingly dependent on one another (Torkildsen, 1999). Often, contractual relationships are established between public authorities and private or commercial businesses to operate major sectors of a community’s recreation program. For example, in Dallas, Texas, the city’s Park and Recreation Department has contracted for years with a private operator to manage five major tennis centers. With the partnership agreement, the Department’s revenues have increased annually and its expenditures have been reduced, while a high-quality tennis program has been maintained at the same time that other services have been cut back (Kraus, 2001). Clearly, each of the types of organizations plays a different role in the overall system, while at the same time interacting with and supplementing the other types; and it is important to emphasize that in actual practice they often join together in cooperative ventures.

**Types of recreational sport organizations**

A number of respected authors have described the leisure-service system in modern society as consisting of two or three components. This approach is incomplete. Actually, there are ten different types of leisure-service organizations in modern society, as shown in table 1. (Kraus, 2001).  

*Table 1. Ten major elements in the modern leisure-service system (Kraus, 2001)*

(Note: The same program elements, facilities, leisure needs, and outcomes may be found in all ten types of agencies.

Each column should be read vertically, rather than across the page)
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Organizations</th>
<th>Services</th>
<th>Consisting of</th>
<th>for</th>
<th>Areas</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Government recreation and park agencies</td>
<td>Trade associations</td>
<td>Direct program leadership</td>
<td>Full spectrum of involvement in:</td>
<td>Personal values (health, emotional wellness, mental development)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nonprofit community organizations</td>
<td>Professional societies</td>
<td>Provision of facilities for undirected public use</td>
<td>Games &amp; sports</td>
<td>Social and community-based outcomes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Commercial recreation businesses</td>
<td>Special-interest groups</td>
<td>Education for leisure</td>
<td>Outdoor recreation</td>
<td>Economic benefits, employment, taxes, other fiscal returns</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Employee service and recreation programs</td>
<td>Sponsors of special programs or events</td>
<td>Information-referral services</td>
<td>Cultural activities</td>
<td>Environmental values, both natural and urban settings</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Armed forces morale, welfare, and recreation units</td>
<td>Professional preparation institutions</td>
<td>Enabling facilitation</td>
<td>Creative arts</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Private membership organizations</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Hobbies</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Campus recreation programs</td>
<td>Private groups that subcontract leisure functions</td>
<td>Advocacy and leadership in special areas</td>
<td>Special events</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Therapeutic recreation service</td>
<td>Other civic agencies and citizen’s groups</td>
<td>Jointly sponsored campaigns and events</td>
<td>Club &amp; other social groups</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sport management organizations</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Other social services</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tourism and</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>With needs influenced by:</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Age group</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Gender</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Socioeconomic status</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Racial/ethnic factors</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Likewise Mull (2005) mentions ten Types for recreational sport. According to Mull, the delivery center incorporates the term Types, which refers to specific societal structures that incorporate separate organizations or management systems that share the same purpose. To visualize the relationship between Types and organizations, see table 2., which illustrates different Types and related organizations. Because sport activity as a means of leisure enjoyment is so popular, recreational sport is an important aspect of these management Types and organizations. Specific organizations can have all kinds of resources to help meet that organization’s needs and interests. Although there is great diversity among Types and organizations, much about recreational sport management is similar.

Table 2. Types and agencies for recreational sport

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Types</th>
<th>Agencies</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>City or community</td>
<td>Chicago, IL; New York, NY; Denver, CO; South Bend, IN; Lawrence, KS</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Educational</td>
<td>Public schools; Colleges and universities; Private schools; Military schools; Community and junior colleges</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Military</td>
<td>Army; Navy; Marines; Air Force; Coast Guard</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Type</td>
<td>Examples</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>--------------</td>
<td>---------------------------------------------------------------------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Correctional</td>
<td>City and county jails; Juvenile detention centers; Federal penitentiaries; State penitentiaries</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Private club</td>
<td>Tennis clubs; Country clubs; Health clubs; Boat clubs; Riding clubs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nonprofit</td>
<td>YMCAs; YWCAs; Boys – Girls Clubs; Boy Scouts; Girl Scouts; Churches</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Commercial</td>
<td>Tennis courts; Golf courses; Sky diving; Riding stables; Bowling centers; Skiing</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Corporation</td>
<td>IBM; Coca-Cola; Caterpillar, Inc.; Procter and Gamble; Microsoft, Inc.; Ford Motor Co.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Natural environment</td>
<td>Yellowwood State Forest; Hoosier National Forest; Glacier National Park</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Yellowwood National Park; Badlands National Park</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Vacation</td>
<td>Hotels, Resorts; Theme parks; Cruises</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Types of recreational sport organizations in Vietnam*

There are many different types of recreational sport organizations in Vietnam. Some organizations are established and running to make profit for the owners and others are not profit-oriented. For example, the private fitness club - WOW California Xperience is a profit organization; however, the recreational sport department in HCMC University of Sport offering the same fitness services is not profit-oriented. Moreover, the fundamental distinction between public and private organizations is that the public organizations derive their funding mainly through taxation, i.e. provided by the central and local government and private organizations get their funding through business and investment. For example, the HCMC Department of culture, sport and tourism gets a subsidy of more than 100 billions VND from the People’s committee every year for the sport cause activities.
Recreational sport organization also can differ from one another in the size and services. It can be seen that at the same city level, but the HCMC taekwon-do association is much larger than those in other provinces in the membership.

Though recreational sport has taken shape in Vietnam for a long time, it is still a new introduced field and in the fledgling phase of development. Many sport scientists and managers have tried to classify the recreational sport organizations, but this work is still in progress and a matter of argument. Duong (2008) defines three types of recreational sport organizations. According to him, all sport providers can be regarded as recreational sport service organizations except the professional clubs.

**Sport clubs in school**

Sport club in school provides programs and facilities for both physical education and recreational sport. It can be public or private club subject to in which educational Types the school is. School sport club serves its students mainly free of charges, and provides services with reasonable prices for the community as social welfare policy.

**Public sport centers in residential areas:**

Sport field, playground, recreational area, park, center of culture and sport in residential areas, in most cases belong to the government, provide recreational sport opportunities for local inhabitant, especially the elderly and the low income people. Business is not includes in the management function of these organizations.

**Recreational sport and health service businesses**

The commercial organizations are fast growing with diversified scales, including recreational sport and health service corporations, companies, private clubs and centers.

As it has been seen, many different types of organizations provide a wide range of recreational sport services and facilities which are bringing much benefit to HCMC people. According to Barney (1995), the organizations can be classified by material facilities, equipment, geographical location, or human resources with the experiences of the managers and staff, or financial resources as capital reserves, debt and surplus revenue.

Hayward (2002) defines that a sports facility is “the facility where the people carry out entertaining activities”. The material facilities play an important role in the recreational sport because they create conditions to satisfy the diverse needs of space and
equipment of the participants. The recreational sport facilities can be classified by outdoor and indoor characteristics, functions (including human resources, policies, procedures, equipment, safety standards, maintenance work and regulation) or applied science and technology (Mull, 2005). To satisfy the recreational needs, the managers need providing material facilities along with attracting customers to use through effective management policies and activities (Torkildsen, 2005). The material facilities must be enough large to serve the customers to use the service simultaneously. This is not only the responsibility of the city government, but also of all types of recreational sport organizations in HCMC.

The recreational managers think that the team of employees is more and more important to the success of the organization (Ilam, 1997). In many ways, the vitality of an organization is determined by workforce (Hurd, 2008). The organization cannot itself accomplish the goals, satisfy the customers’ needs, and attract the community. The employees of the organization are the factor to implement the above works. The workforce is the human; the department of personnel is the unit to use such human resources (Flannery, 1999). The workforce can be considered as human resources - a term to put the human on the top of every issue. According to Slack (1997), the appreciation of the human will bring the success to the LL. Bean organization – this is a company in the Freeport postal group, Maine. Thus, the human resources being applied how determine the effectiveness of a sport organization.

Gillentine (2005), the financial aspect in the sport business is increasingly aware over last 20 years. The finance of the sports develops under the business principles of the organization unless it involved professional players or assets. The budget affects all aspects of the company. Every budget source has its own purpose and supports the managers to make decision. The budget arrangement is related to the decision (purchase of new facilities, payment to athletes, increase of ticket fares, expansion of seats, transfer, investment, marketing, etc.). The budget shows whether the use of resources is efficient, impacts on goals, objectives, strategic plans of the organization (Hurd, 2008). The use of the budget is included in the annual financial plan - divided into two sources - capital and management budgets. Once established, the budget becomes the instrument to manage and control the expenditures, a method to maintain the healthy management. This is especially true for the state organizations enjoying the budget from taxes (Sawyer, 2001). The recreational sport organization’s revenues vary under the policy priority level, customers’
needs and team of employees. The revenue represents the income achieved by the organization. The followings are the activities to produce revenues of the recreational sport program: charges, taxes, sale of products or rent of real estate, offer of souvenir gifts and charitable contributions, transfer, fundraising, sponsorship, bonds, tax debit, business cooperation for profit, non-profit cooperation (Mull, 2005).

Currently in HCMC, some recreational sports organizations are established and operated under the non-profit direction and the other recreational sport have the orientation to collect profits (commercial). Based on the rational basis which has been presented, the study conducts the classification and survey of some characteristics of the various recreational sport organizations in Ho Chi Minh city under 3 components: state, non-profit and private on 4 key contents: budget source, human resources, participants and satisfaction level on material facilities of the unit.

Definition

1. Recreational sport:

Recreational sport is a specific sport form with dominant recreation characteristic. It is one type of leisure activities bringing physical fitness, fun, relaxation, wellbeing, and social involvement to participants. Participants in sport activities show much interest in participation and do not focus on winning or losing, i.e. lucky winner and good loser. Thus, almost sports played at oneself choice in any delivery centers in HCMC to achieve such purpose and expectations are regarded as recreational sports. They are martial arts, table tennis, billiards, bowling, swimming, body building, aerobic, dance sport, yoga, taichi, basketball, volleyball, badminton, tennis, golf, chess, e-sport games, etc.

2. Recreational sport organization:

A governmental, voluntary or commercial unit in HCMC involves in the recreational sport service field; it is goal-directed, with a consciously structured activity system and a relatively identifiable boundary. It is regarded as the recreational sport service organization, recreational sport service provider or recreational sport delivery center in HCMC.

3. Type of recreational sport organizations:
It refers to specific societal structures that incorporate separate organizations or management systems that share the same purpose. The whole complex structure of all types of recreational sport service organization constitutes the recreational sport service system in HCMC.

4. Human resources:

Human resources include administrators, managers and staffs who are recruited and working in recreational sport organizations in HCMC.

5. Budgets:

Financial plans detailing revenues and expenditures of a recreational sport organization in HCMC for a fiscal year.
Methods

Sampling

The subjects for this quantitative study are 30 managers in 30 locations (Clubs, Sport Centers, Parks, Culture Houses, Universities, etc.) representing the 3 components: state, non-profit and private in HCMC. Such organizations were listed by the types, which they belonged to, i.e. (1) city/district authorities, (2) public universities, (3) private universities, (4) private clubs, (5) voluntary societies, (6) public park agencies and (7) recreation complex.

Research instrument

The research tool of this theme is the survey form. This survey form was researched on the theoretical basis of many authors such as Torkildsen (2005), Gillentine (2005), Hayward (2002), Robert (2001), Henderson (2001), Edginton (2005), Hurd (2008), Barney (1995), Duong (2008). After building the survey form, the group of researchers sent the survey forms to a group of experts for validity examination. The expert group consisted of ten people who were professionals, leaders, and managers of sports and entertainment sports in Vietnam. The experts examine the validity and feasibility of contents in the survey form (content validity). Their feedback and suggestion for repairs helped make the survey form valid. Finally, contents of the survey form are in highly close layout and questions in the form are in high correlation.

After conducting the inspection of the validity and reliability of the survey form, the group of researchers established a complete survey form including 2 parts and 19 question items: 1) General information: 4 question items; 2) Particular information: including 4 main contents: budget source (4 question items), human resources (3 question items), customers (4 question items) and satisfaction level on material facilities of the unit (4 question items).

Data Analysis

Data in the study are inputted and processed on the SPSS data analyzing software for Windows version 16.0. Followings are the main descriptions:

Descriptive statistics is applied to examine the mean, standard deviation of the budget source.
The one-factor variance method (one-way ANOVA) is used to inspect the difference of the average value of the groups:

- One-way ANOVA between sectors and characteristics of exercise participants
- One-way ANOVA between sectors and human resource management
- One-way ANOVA between sectors and budget source.
- One-way ANOVA between sectors on self-satisfaction of recreational sport facility system

The calculation steps are as follows:

At Menu of SPSS select Analyze> Compare Means> One-way ANOVA

In this dialog box, put the dependent variables (factors that need to analyze the average value) in the box Dependent List and put the independent variable (the groups) to Factor box. Then click the button contrasts, Post hoc, and Option to choose the necessary statistical quantities.

In the dialog box Post hoc, if the number of samples is equal between the groups, click to choose Duncan method, even if the number of samples is not equal, then we use the Scheffe’s method. Then click the Continue button to return the first dialog box, then click OK.

The result shows us P value,

+ If P value > $\alpha = 0.05$, the result is that there is no statistical difference between the groups in the factor.

+ If P value < $\alpha = 0.05$, the result is that there is a statistical difference between the groups in the factor.

However, if we want to know how different such groups in the factor are, we have to use the Post-hoc method.

There is a case of $P < \alpha = 0.05$, and then after the Post-hoc inspection, it shows that the group A is different to the groups B and C in terms of statistical meaning.

And there is a case of $P < \alpha = 0.05$, and then after Post-hoc inspection, it indicates that there is no difference in statistical meaning between the groups A, B, and C.
If not using the SPSS program, the implementer can not calculate the value of P. Thus when having the result F, the implementer will compare with t table and have the result: this F value is located in the area giving up or accepting the H0 hypothesis.

And then comparing each pair of groups to know that among the groups having differences in statistical meaning or not.
Results

Characteristics of objects participating in practice under forms of organization

Table 3. One-way ANOVA between the components and characteristics of exercise participants.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Customer characteristics (Exercise participant)</th>
<th>Components</th>
<th>f</th>
<th>p</th>
<th>Post-hoc (Scheffe’s)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>State ( (n=12) )</td>
<td>Non-profit ( (n=6) )</td>
<td>Private ( (n=12) )</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total number of participants</td>
<td>360,417</td>
<td>950,000</td>
<td>1,390,833</td>
<td>1.058</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Participants under 18 years old</td>
<td>59,583</td>
<td>181,667</td>
<td>441,667</td>
<td>1.721</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Participants from 18 to 30 years old</td>
<td>107,833</td>
<td>368,333</td>
<td>375,833</td>
<td>1.066</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Participants from 31 to 45 years old</td>
<td>100,333</td>
<td>185,000</td>
<td>288,667</td>
<td>.818</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Participants from 46 to 65 years old</td>
<td>72,167</td>
<td>121,667</td>
<td>215,909</td>
<td>.820</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Participants over 65 years</td>
<td>47,008</td>
<td>97,500</td>
<td>116,955</td>
<td>.556</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Participants are male</td>
<td>180,667</td>
<td>565,000</td>
<td>702,917</td>
<td>1.103</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Participants are female</td>
<td>179,750</td>
<td>385,000</td>
<td>687,917</td>
<td>1.054</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The survey result shows that in components there aren't significant differences in the number of male and female participation in exercise. It can be said that amount of women tend to arrange their time and housework to participate in recreational sport are much more or equal to men in terms of quantity.

The total number of exercise participants in the private facilities is higher than that in the state ones: 1,390,833 people compared to 360,417 people. It can be said that exercise participants are willing to pay higher costs to enjoy better services. This may be one of the factors evaluating the performance of the private components to be better than that of the state component. It can be explained that the annual income of the private component is somewhat significantly higher than the state component’s.
About the age of exercise participant: participants in the state facilities are almost from 18 to 45 years old; those in the non-profit facilities are almost from 18 to 30 years old. Participants in the private facilities are almost under 18 to 30 years old and tend to be evenly distributed in different ages, including the age of 65. This depends on the development and organization strategy of recreational sports, which are diversified and suitable to the features, and needs of participants in recreational sport of different ages.

### Characteristics of human resources in recreational sport by the types of organization

**Table 4. One-way ANOVA between the components and human resource management**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Human resource management</th>
<th>Components</th>
<th>Post-hoc (Scheffe’s)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>$f$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>State $(n=12)$</td>
<td>Non-profit $(n=6)$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Full-time</td>
<td>12.25</td>
<td>25.50</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Part time</td>
<td>23.25</td>
<td>52.17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Direct management</td>
<td>.58</td>
<td>1.67</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Business Administration</td>
<td>2.25</td>
<td>5.67</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Recreational sport</td>
<td>.50</td>
<td>2.33</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other</td>
<td>14.58</td>
<td>23.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Income/year (million VND)</td>
<td>74.17</td>
<td>68.33</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Regarding the full-time and part-time workforce between the three components, the number of full-time employees in the component of state and non-profit is greater than the number of part-time ones, as opposed to the private component.

About specialized training: Human resources who provided specialized training for such activities as sports management, recreational sport and business administration are
still the least among 3 components. It can be seen this is one of the reasons that limit the effectiveness of management activities of sports facilities in HCMC.

The survey result shows no difference in the statistical term between the components and the human resources management except for the annual income. Annual income in the private component ($\mu_3 = 110.42$) is significantly higher than that in the other two ($\mu_1=74.17, \mu_2=68.33$).

**Features of financial resources in recreational sport by the types of organization**

*Table 5. Descriptive statistics on budget source.*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Budget source</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Mean value</th>
<th>Std. Deviation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Annual financial investment from the budget</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>State component</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>1.33</td>
<td>.492</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Non-profit component</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>2.17</td>
<td>.753</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Private component</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>1.00</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Annual financial investments from revenue</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>State component</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>1.33</td>
<td>.778</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Non-profit component</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>2.67</td>
<td>1.633</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Private component</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>3.33</td>
<td>1.826</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Annual turnover of the organization</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>State component</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>1.83</td>
<td>.937</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Non-profit component</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>3.17</td>
<td>1.472</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Private component</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>3.58</td>
<td>1.379</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Note: The mean value under likert 5-point scale*

*Table 6. One-way ANOVA between components and budget source*
In view of the annual financial investments from budget, the non-profit component ($\mu_2 = 2.17$) has a higher level than the state component and the private component ($\mu_1 = 1.33$ and $\mu_3 = 1.00$). Regarding the annual financial investment from revenues (reinvestment), the private component gets the highest level ($\mu_3 = 3.33$) and is followed by non-profit component ($\mu_2 = 2.67$). The lowest is the state component ($\mu_1 = 1.33$). Concerning the annual revenues of the organizations, the private component and social organizations ($\mu_2 = \mu_3 = 3.58$ and $3.17$) gain significantly more than the state component ($\mu_1 = 1.83$).

**Satisfaction on recreational sport facilities in organizations**

Managers’ shelf-satisfaction is divided into 2 types including self-evaluation and ability to meet the participants’ need (Table 5).

Table 7. One-way ANOVA between satisfaction of recreational sport facilities

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Self-satisfaction</th>
<th>Components</th>
<th>State ($n=12$)</th>
<th>Non-profit ($n=6$)</th>
<th>Private ($n=12$)</th>
<th>$f$</th>
<th>$p$</th>
<th>Post-hoc (Scheffe’s)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Self-evaluation level</td>
<td></td>
<td>2.83</td>
<td>2.67</td>
<td>3.58</td>
<td>2.313</td>
<td>.118</td>
<td>($\mu_2 &gt; \mu_1, \mu_3$)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Self-satisfaction level</td>
<td></td>
<td>1.33</td>
<td>1.83</td>
<td>1.17</td>
<td>4.703</td>
<td>.028</td>
<td>($\mu_2, \mu_1 &gt; \mu_1, \mu_3$)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Results show that there is a statistical difference between components’ self-satisfaction. Managers in the non-profit component ($\mu_2=1.83$) and state component ($\mu_1=1.33$) are more self-satisfied on material facilities than those in the private component ($\mu_3=1.17$).

The following conclusions were drawn as a result of the research findings of the recreational sport organizations in HCMC. Private component gets the highest turnover among the 3 components of recreational sport in HCMC and also grasps the highest investment. However, managers in the private component still do not satisfy about their facilities. Participants who enjoy in the private component are the largest of all. Regarding the participants, the age group from 31 to 50 years old is the most popular recreational sport population among Hochiminh city’s citizens. According to the findings, managing authorities are suggested to find solutions to boost the investment and development of sport organizations and facilities belonging to the non-profit component and improve the quality of recreational sport in the organizations and facilities belonging to the state. This result is a basis for authorities in the state sector, non-profit organizations, businesses, and private facilities to make plans and suitable programs of recreational sport as well as search appropriate solutions and policies to attract participants in recreational sport, train human resources meeting the requirements of recreational sport development and set up the investment solutions for every type of organization and management of recreational sport in HCMC.
Discussion

Among the types of organizations, recreational sport facilities of the private component are accounted for a higher proportion than those of the state and non-profit ones. This shows that there should be solutions to promote the investment and development of sport organizations and facilities of the non-profit component and improve the recreational sport in sport organizations and facilities belonging to the state component.

Participants under 18 years old exercising in non-profit organizations accounted for the highest rate, followed by those in the state organizations; the lowest rate belongs to the private organizations. This is reasonable because most people participate in exercising in the non-profit sport facilities are students.

The study result shows that participants aging from 31 to 45 and from 46 to 65 select suitable recreational sport to exercise in all 3 types of organizations.

Regarding participants aging over 65, their selection of exercising is of the highest percentage at the state facilities and at the lowest at the private ones. It shows that people over 65 years old should choose the state and non-profit sport facilities due to their economic conditions and the type of simple recreational sport.

The analysis of professional qualifications of employees working in the mentioned types of organizations shows that people with professional qualifications in recreational sport and sports management accounts for a very low rate; whereas the ones with professional qualifications of business administration accounting for the second grade, however this is the staff needed for the business organization of recreational sport. Most of the staff working in 3 types of organizations own different qualifications. Based on the result of this study, management agencies should plan to develop human resources to meet the requirements of recreational sport development in HCMC.

Findings in this study are consistent with the actual operation of given types of organizations. The private organizations have higher financial investments thanks to the fact that their revenues are higher than those of the state and social organizations. In contrast, concerning the annual financial investment budget, social organizations account for the highest proportion thanks to their non-profit activities. Annual revenues are in accordance with the actual operation, in which the sales of the private organizations is the highest, followed by social organizations, whereas the sales of state organizations is much
lower than the other two types of organizations. Findings of this study provide the factual basis for the development of investment solutions for every type of organization and management of recreational sport.

The private sector is not easily satisfied with itself because customers’ needs are increasing and diversifying. Therefore, they have to change the management work to meet social demands and supply better products and services to their target and potential customers.

Limitations and future directions

Because of the specific characteristics of HCMC sport and research design, the results of this study was limited by some dominant types of recreational sport organizations in the aspects of the facilities, human resources, budgets and active participation.

Future researches are recommended to investigate and compare more types of recreational sport organization in HCMC. Further study is also suggested to explore expenditures of participants when they enjoy recreational sport and examine the constraints or the reasons, which make the citizens hardly, participate in the recreational sport organizations.
References


How Three Japanese City Marathon Brands Overcame Double Jeopardy

Frank M. Go*

Rotterdam School of Management, Erasmus University

Chin-Kuang Chen

Graduate School of Tourism, Rikkyo University

Remco Beek

Rotterdam School of Management, Erasmus University

*Corresponding Author: Frank M. Go
Rotterdam School of Management, Erasmus University
Email: fgo@rsm.nl
Abstract

This study examines whether sport events contribute towards place marketing, urban development, and city re-imaging. In particular, non-elite sport events such as city marathons have a participatory character that also contributes to social cohesion and a healthier population. However, many cities desiring to copy such success find themselves surrounded by an increasingly competitive environment and therefore face daunting challenges including the trap of Double Jeopardy theory. Through the lens of the service-dominant logic (Vargo & Lusch, 2004) a literature review helped to identify crucial concepts and practices that when presented in the Service Dominant Value Cycle (SDVC) Model offers a systematic framework so that stakeholders know how to contribute optimally to developing a successful city marathon. SDVC Modeling applied in qualitative case studies serves to develop a comprehensive understanding of both the value co-creation process and areas of tensions in three highly successful city marathons in Japan. First, the study seeks to contribute to advance understanding of sport event planning from the service-dominant logic perspective applied to marathon staging in the Japanese urban context. Second, the study takes a service-dominant logic approach in an effort to develop a blueprint, which city authorities might lever for organizing city marathons. Finally, the study provides evidence-based insights based on a cross-case analysis of the three discussed city marathons in Japan.

Keywords: value co-creation, mediating effect, brand penetration, Japanese marathons, service-dominant logic
Introduction

Why do certain goods and services claim a disproportionate share of the market? Most service providers may desire to have their brand achieve large volume sales and high customer loyalty. However, proponents of William McPhee’s (1963) theory of Double Jeopardy (DJ) opine that only large brands can attract such loyalty because these are likely to attract, through their larger market share, higher repeat buying and more loyal users than brands with smaller market share (Ehrenberg & Goodhart, 2002). Goodhardt, Ehrenberg, and Chatfields (1984) extended the applicability of the negative binomial distribution (NBD) to the numbers of purchases of a brand of consumer goods to account for brand choices, known as the NBD Dirichlet theory of repeat purchase. The generalization of the multiple brand case successfully models the repeat category and broad purchases within a variety of markets and accounts for a number of generalizations, including DJ. DJ constraints planning, because marketing inputs cannot increase loyalty by much or for long unless the brand’s penetration is increased, typically by much more (Ehrenberg & Goodhart, 2002). Through an empirical lens, the World Marathon Majors (WMM) brand, including Virgin London, BMW Berlin, Bank of America Chicago and ING New York City represents a world of hits, which, in turn, attracts gullible sponsors. Global cities stage the WMM brand, which features a relatively small number of elite runners, whose performance attracts a disproportionate share of a global audience. In consequence, the WMM brand follows the pattern of the massive escalation in the property rights attached to the staging of elite sports events, set by the Olympics, and corroborated by the increase in the rivalry between cities (Coleman & Ramchandani, 2010). The practical implication of the DJ theory is that market share growth depends substantially on expanding the size of a brand’s customer base (Sharp, 2010). However, Dyson, Farr, and Hollis (1997) countered this claim by pointing out that the DJ theory examines ‘aspects of buying behavior in steady markets with readily substitutable brands’. Following their argument, and supported by our research we claim that the non-elite urban marathon brands differ substantially from the WMM brand. This raises an issue of import: Why cannot the role of marketing be the creation of a deviation from the DJ assumptions by altering the situation to the benefit of non-elite urban marathon brands? This perceived exception to the DJ rule derives from the observation that the cases studied here should not assume loyalty, because in order to become a well-known brand, runners must not only buy what each of the three smaller Japanese cities have on offer, but ‘like buying it’
(Baldinger & Robinson, 2006). This emphasis on ‘like buying it’ has important implications for non-elite urban marathons, because in contrast, to the WMM brand their marathon brands have a completely different character in that the sporting results are less relevant to participants (Coleman & Ramchandani, 2010) than social engagement.

This social engagement perspective as a driver of value co-creation contrasts with the traditional literature, which treats, where appropriate, the elite sport events from a comparative analytical perspective. An approach characterized as static and idealistic in that it interprets elite sport events as a product for benchmarking in terms of economic impacts and media coverage (Kasimati, 2003; Chung & Woo, 2011). However, from an integrative perspective there is hardly any literature that addresses the potential for benefiting from the potential deviation of the DJ by constructing a niche brand. To tap this potential deviation implies the necessity of building interaction between various styles and models of strategy derived from the value co-creative processes that characterize the staging of urban marathons, including knowledge about their history and traditions.

We address this lacuna by means of quantitative and primarily a qualitative case study approach. Moreover, through interviews we try to understand how their practices enabled of three city marathon organizations to overcome DJ and achieve the rank of most successful Japanese urban marathon. Finally, it was our intention to learn how the marathon organizers negotiate the tensions between marathon sponsoring and stimulating organic community relations.

To identify the relevant determinants we apply a cross case analysis, following a service-dominant logic approach (Vargo & Lush, 2004). Our study concludes that when it comes to best practice the central piece of advice to marathon organizations, which do not belong to the WMM brand league, is to create and sustain a differential advantage. The three cases studied in Japan achieve same by leveraging the mediating role of their marathon’s brand penetration between city branding and participants’ loyalty. The authors hope that their paper will contribute to the debate about value co-creation and provide insights for researchers to explore the use of the mediating role of marathon brand penetration between city branding and participants’ loyalty in their region or country to dodge the effect of the Double Jeopardy theory.
Conceptual Framework

The marketing discipline is rooted in the assumption that the managers of sport events have the capability to control service production and delivery processes, independently, and therefore, the outcomes for their customers. Vargo and Lush (2004, p. 3) identify schools of thought that influence the thinking and acting of contemporary managers. The Classical and Neo-classical economics School (1800-1920) based on a regime of adding utility-value and value-in-exchange through manufactured, standardized output; the School of Early and Formative marketing theory (1900-1950), which hold that transaction output and institutional marketing performance ‘provided time and place utility’ (Vargo & Lush 2004, p. 3). The Marketing Management School of Thought (1950-1980) holds the philosophy that ‘customers do not buy things but need or want fulfillment […].’ Accordingly, marketing involves consumption, however, ‘value is determined in the marketplace and such “embedded value”’ must therefore have usefulness’ (Vargo & Lush 2004, p.3) resulting in a differential competitive advantage. This view recognizes that knowledge is in part socially constructed.

From 1980 a defining shift takes place in the paradigm of marketing as a continuous economic and social process, which Vargo and Lush coin the service-dominant logic (2004). Instead of regarding knowledge as discrete object Vargo and Lush (2006) refer to service-dominant logic as knowledge from the practice-based epistemology characterized by: First, it emphasizes ‘service’ (singular) to connote a process aimed at thinking and doing something for someone (p. 43). Second, it considers the relationship between service and good, beyond their binary. Third, it seeks ‘resource integration for all economic entities’ (p. 44). Fourth, it aims for the co-creation of value as distinguished from co-production (p. 44). Fifth, networks and interaction between actors play a key role in value creation exchange (p. 44). Finally, but not least, it holds that the ‘market place can falsify market hypotheses’ (Vargo & Lush, 2004, p. 3) i.e., render knowledge contestable. By extension, it challenges claims that e.g., a marketing campaign could effectively build place brand image (Go & Govers, 2011, p. 228); and reinforces the notion that the practice-based perspective of knowledge about sport event staging is actually embodied in people, culturally embedded and socially constructed. The consideration of the contestable nature of knowledge is most relevant to managing the mediating effect of sport event of city brand penetration between the staging of non-elite sport events and the participation of various stakeholders. Put differently, both the
literature and practice have shown greater interest in the concept of value co-creation which implies that value depends on the collaborative process as opposed to a single organization (Vargo & Lush, 2004).

Our intention is to highlight the potential common powers that stakeholders can mobilize for collaboration instead of discussing the variants of stakeholders’ models. The cast of stakeholders involved to some degree in sport event staging points to a large number of participants, in a variety of roles, from a range of backgrounds with different objectives and often with conflicting agendas. In consequence, management has only a limited influence on some of the factors that contribute to the creation of the marathon’s brand value for customers. According to this conceptualization the role of management transgresses its traditional boundaries and should be widened and deepened by way of the emerging service-dominant logic of marketing (Vargo & Lusch, 2008, p.7) comprised of ten foundational premises (FPs) as follows:

FP1: Service is the fundamental basis of exchange
FP2: Indirect exchange masks the fundamental basis of exchange
FP3: Goods are distribution mechanisms for service provision
FP4: Operant resources are the fundamental source of competitive advantage
FP5: All economies are service economies
FP6: The customer is always a co-creator of value
FP7: The enterprise cannot deliver value, but only offer value propositions
FP8: A service-centered view is inherently customer orientated and relational
FP9: All social and economic actors are resource integrators
FP10: Value is always uniquely and phenomenologically determined by the beneficiary.

From the service-dominant logic flows the consideration that each sport event stakeholder involved in value co-creation can only offer a value proposition, while value is co-created by various stakeholders, including the firm and the customers. The following sections identify core knowledge domains that are relevant to understand the roles, process, opportunities and areas of possible tensions.

**The Role of Event Brand Image**

The effects of an event’s brand image on a city’s brand image have not been demonstrated convincingly. But, evidence from the sponsorship literature suggests that the
strongest benefits of brand image mediation will accrue when stakeholders perceive a meaningful match between the sport event’s brand image and the host city’s brand image (Gwinner & Eaton, 1999). The knowledge of brands is embedded in associative networks of stakeholders and is a relevant descriptor of brand image (Keller, 1993). Furthermore, Gwinner and Eaton (1999) indicate that the pairing of two brands can strengthen its association set sharing ‘common elements with the association set of the brand with which it is paired’.

Also, evidence presented by Peracchio and Tybout (1996) and Gwinner and Eaton (1999) suggests that consumers with strong psychological schemata, such as elaborate amounts of interconnected product knowledge are likely to be less impacted by the inconsistencies in communication compared to consumers who possess weak psychological schemata. While the presentation of city associations from the past can be entangled in a branding narrative, it is the human memory that must interact to recall brands. Put differently, the conception of brand value capturing has become a multi-layered driven process, involving three overlapping relationships, including the local government (security and control), business (sponsors) and customer participants (runners, fans, volunteers and local residents).

The Role of City Brand Identity

Marathon races, the focus of our study, are typically staged in specific places or jurisdictions, which remain hierarchically organized. Warnaby (2009) suggests that the knowledge domain lacks a theory to accommodate the ‘context specificity of places’. The concept of value co-creation can only be created through the contributions of various stakeholders, including athletes, fans, sponsors, the police, who are supposed to ensure safety. However, the place concept is characterized by ‘fuzziness’, i.e., ‘while many place products have a clear spatial definition – in terms of, for example, administrative boundaries – others can be more formally defined and often have administrative jurisdictions and elements of contestation’ (Medway, Bennison, and Warnaby, 2008, cited in Warnaby, 2009, p. 407).

Moreover, as information mutations spread into the physical realm and boundaries blur, academics and practitioners alike recognize the logic, increasingly, that each sport event stakeholder involved in value co-creative processes can only offer a value proposition. However, the collaborative process renders the decision making process more complex, due to the different objectives, interests and backgrounds of the cast of
stakeholders. In consequence, there is the risk that the group decision making process typically changes in an ineffective and inefficient cooperative process. The latter evolves in a tiresome manner because stakeholder theory (Freeman, 1984) shows that powerful stakeholders have significant influence on organizational outcomes. In turn, this may result in the arising of contradictions or ‘group think’ which frustrate a collaborative process among the firm, the customer and other stakeholders (Carpenter & Fredrickson, 2001), particularly, when the objectives of powerful stakeholders conflict with those of weaker ones, leading to a certain degree of equivocality and uncertainty.

The Role of Participants’ Loyalty

The above observations and terms suggest that we look at the broader, multi-layered context, rather than using a supply or demand perspective, in which the marathon has a mediating role in the relationship between city branding and participants’ loyalty. Musser and O’Reilly (2006, p. 4) refer to Web 2.0, as “a set of economic, social, and technological trends that collectively form a more mature and distinctive medium characterized by user participation, openness, and network efforts”. As rapid Web 2.0 technology enables information diffusion to take up root in individual user space, it upends the conventional strategic responses of sport managers. The mutations that followed transformed the boundaries of the sport knowledge domain. Against the backdrop of decentralization sport managers must consider to which extent their participants (runners, fans, volunteers and local residents) feel informed, socially included, and empowered. This calls for a platform, which supports the interactive processes between participants and the sport organizations. Such interaction is manifest in collaborative processes and relevant to stimulating the mediating effect of marathon brand penetration between the participants’ brand loyalty and the host city brand.

Research Lens

Through the lens of the service-dominant logic, a literature review identifies relevant concepts and methods likely to contribute to the mediating effect of the marathon and city brand loyalty. In that value is created by various stakeholders, sport managers, customers and municipal managers can only offer a value proposition. Within a wider arena involving the interdependencies of stakeholders the managing of branding is not simply a process of adding value to a product. Rather it constitutes a series of interlocking arenas involving challenges in which stakeholders contest notions of value proposition,
the sense of and approach to co-creating value and the regime by which feedback is gauged and used for evaluative purposes and learning.

Figure 1 Service Dominant Value Cycle (SDVC) Model

**Phase I. Develop value proposition**
1. Engage potential partners
2. Incorporate place brand assets

**Phase II. Co-create value**
1. Administrative and operational elements
2. Design and programming
3. Social support and interaction

**Phase III. Gauge feedback**
1. Evaluate and learn from feedback
2. Maintain the relationship

**Success metrics**
1. Participants’ brand loyalty
2. City branding effects
3. Community building effects
4. Sustaining legacy

Figure 1 depicts an interactive methodology, which permits the identification of the set of ongoing, interactive relationships, involving the perceptions of individuals and inter-organizational forms of service provisioning. Within this wider arena, stakeholders may contest notions of ‘quality’, ‘programming’, ‘social interaction and support’. From an experiential perspective a research gap emerges in the traditional literature, which interprets sport events as a commodity. This extension of the service-dominant logic by considering functional, experiential and symbolic benefits (Gnoth, 2002), resulted in the Service Dominant Value Cycle (SDVC) model (Figure 1).

The model has three phases that constitute a self-reinforcing value cycle that contributes to a successful city marathon. Figure 1 presents the conceptual framework of the SDVC model: Phase 1 concerns the challenge of value proposition development. Phase 2 addresses the attributes needed for co-creating value. Phase 3 identifies the variables that are relevant in the gauging feedback process. Towards this end we follow a two-pronged research protocol. The first step aims to ‘unpack’ the relevant concepts of service-
dominant logic with an eye to building our theoretical framework. The second step concerns a detailed review, which serves to delineate the salient theories and concepts, which produce a measure of accommodation between the organizational processes and social relations that result in practical implications and guidelines needed for developing and implementing strategies for joint value creation by a cast of stakeholders. They must be capable of bridging the infrastructural-, governance- and the cultural gaps, to develop strategies for implementation that comply with joint value creation.

**The Value Proposition Development Challenge**

Following Vargo and Lusch’s (2008) FP7, marathon organizers cannot 'create' value independently; they can only attract customers by developing a value proposition, prior to the event’s staging, based on the identification of the marathon brand assets, and subsequently, engage stakeholders in a collaborative process. In essence, a compelling value proposition would respond to the motivation of runners. And from a partnership perspective lever a sustainable integrative approach in consideration of the legacy, which addresses the interests of all stakeholders involved (Seitanidi & Ryan, 2007).

(1) Engage potential partners: The essence of a partnership serves a mutual benefit. In this regard, the literature indicates that both financial and social support is relevant to the integrative value co-creation process involving event sponsorship. Marathon participants represent an identifiable, unique market for sponsors (Kim, Smith, & James, 2010). Moreover, sports sponsorship is an effective approach to positively communicate the sponsor’s values and corporate community involvement (Plewa & Quester, 2011; Seitanidi & Ryan, 2007). These benefits motivate corporate and governmental sponsorship. However, due to the grim economic outlook sponsorship budgets have experienced drastic cuts (O’Reilly, 2009). Marathon organizers depend increasingly on the contribution of volunteers drawn from the local community. Without the social support in the form of volunteers it would be impossible to sustain the operation of marathons (Taylor, 2004). The volunteers express a higher level of motivation in their relations with the event organizer than corporate sponsors. Same is particularly manifest in their passion and enthusiasm. Fairley, Kellett, and Green (2007) found that volunteers who provided their services to the Olympic Games share four characteristics that may help to explain their motivations: (a) nostalgia, (b) camaraderie and friendship, (c) a sense of event connection, and (d) acknowledgement of expertise sharing.
(2) **Incorporate place brand assets:** From an integrative perspective the staging of urban marathons offers potential for applying the mediating effect of brand penetration between various styles and models of communication strategy and participant’s brand loyalty derived from the co-creative processes. Just like there is space for developing a mutual beneficial relationship between sport event and its sponsorship partner, the hosting city and the sport event can also benefit from one another through coordinated collaboration. On the one hand, the city marathon can be used e.g., to strengthen the city brand image by applying the instrument of city branding towards users and increase visibility of the destination through media. On the other hand, the marathon can leverage the host city’s brand identity to project an attractive image to participants. Consider the mediating effect of the brand penetration of Marathon host cities New York City and London. Both these are perceived by millions as powerful symbols which carry special meaning for runners the world over. This implies, firstly, intense competition and that ‘race organizers are no longer selling the running, but rather, the location at which to undertake the running’ (Coleman & Ramchandani, 2010, p.31). Secondly, smaller cities with a less established city marathon must consider a particular niche. This approach would enable them to leverage their city brand assets, attain a differential advantage and use the mediating effect of brand penetration between place brand assets, including heritage, capabilities, people, values and priorities, a local or global frame of reference, as well as the performance record (Aaker, 2004) and participants’ loyalty.

**The Challenge of Value Co-creation**

From the perspective of the “FP9: All social and economic actors are resource integrators,” implies a second challenge, which service providers face: They cannot create value independently, but always depend on the engagement of customers and other stakeholders in the relational process of value co-creation. The main task for the event organizer is to create and manage a temporal space that facilitates value co-creation. In contrast to value proposition development, where the focus is on the objectives and motivation of participants and partners, the challenge of value co-creation concerns the implementation of an experientially-oriented value creation process. Towards this end we apply the experience prism (Morgan, 2007), including three practices that contribute to value co-creation: (1) administrative and operational element; (2) design and programming; and (3) social support and interaction.
(1) **Administrative and operational elements:** In most marathons, runners follow a similar process that starts from registration, arriving at the venue, running, and ends at finishing. Event organizations standardized the processes of services by normalization practices. Throughout the process, a marathon has to offer a certain level of service quality often taken for granted by participants. These services include clear information, transportation, ample supply of water, first-aid facilities and toilets, as well as a time-keeping system. Having these basic functions ready is just like putting on a well-functioning and hassle-free space for all the participants to interact with each other, to have fun together, and to leave with a memorable experience. By improving these standardized activities and processes, the event organizers may increase runner’s satisfaction while save operating costs at the same time. In addition, they may apply creative ideas to create additional opportunities for value co-creation.

(2) **Design and programming:** Design and programming are the elements that create the personality of the event (Morgan, 2007). Event organizers often bundle the marathon with other pre-event and after-event activities to offer additional attractions to runners and visitors. Chalip and McGuirty (2004) investigated a variety of activities to be bundled with a marathon. Their findings suggest that different segments of runners favor different kind of activities. While dedicated runners enjoy bonding with other runners in the official marathon party, sport tourists show more interest in joining a city trip or other tour packages. These fringe events present an additional opportunity for value co-creation; however, different segments of participant value them differently. As suggested by Chalip and McGuirty (2004), a mixed bundling strategy may appeal to a broader customer segment. For example, the participation of celebrity guest runners attracts media attention, while the competition among elite athletes establishes the status of a premier event. Their participation also attaches further meaning for non-elite runners and drives social memory. Finally, a charity program imbues further meaning to the running. Charity runners in London Marathon managed to raise over £500 million for good causes since the race began in 1981 (Virgin London Marathon, 2012).

(3) **Social support and interaction:** The runners do not run in isolation. For many marathons, spectators and crowds along the running route serve as an integral part of the running experience. Together with the 'location' element, it is the 'people' element, which makes the experience truly memorable. In the context of a city marathon, spectators, staff, volunteers, families, friends, and other runners co-create the running experience. Their
social support enhances value co-creation through the four common channels of social support (Willis 1991). Firstly, spectators provide emotional support through cheering. Secondly, staff and volunteers offer tangible support. Third, event organizers give information support. Fourth, families, friends, and other runners provide companionship support.

**The Challenge of Gauging Feedback**

In that FP10 states that “value is unique and the determined phemenologically by the beneficiary” which raises the challenge of gauging feedback. The third phase completes the self-reinforcing value cycle that connects the past with the next edition of the marathon and is crucial for learning from the feedback of customers and other stakeholders, manage the (dis)confirmation of expectations relative to perceived performance, to refine value co-creation processes so as to achieve brand loyalty.

(1) **Evaluating and learning from feedback:** As opposed to a 'make-and-sell' strategy applied in the good dominant mindset, the service dominant logic proposes a 'sense-and-respond' strategy (Vargo & Lusch, 2004). Thus, the strategy requires that the event organizer evaluates and learns from the interaction with all stakeholders and decides how to best respond to their needs and actions. Feedbacks must be analyzed, in order to improve the value proposition. Apart from learning from the event experience, event organizers may learn from the cooperation of the partnerships among sponsors, government, society and other relevant stakeholders. The marathon may benefit from the knowledge transfer during the cooperation process of the sponsorship partnership.

(2) **Maintain the relationship:** The service-dominant logic emphasizes the development and maintenance of customer relationship. It is of crucial importance for marathon organizers because getting customers to participate in a marathon is not a single transaction, rather a recurring relationship that requires an integrative approach rather than a transactional approach. The collaboration, value co-creation, and learning, all require establishing and keeping a long-term relationship and stakeholder dialogue.

**Success Metrics**

(1) **Participants’ brand loyalty:** There is need for a metric for measuring the mediating effect of the marathon’s brand penetration between collaborative processes and brand loyalty. Particularly, the runners’ feedback is utilized to assess whether the marathon’s public purpose (e.g. city branding and community building) is achieved and the marathon legacy sustained from the participants’ perception.
(2) **City branding effects:** Previous research shows that favorable image and reputation motivate runners to participate in a marathon (Funk, Toohey, & Bruun, 2007). This research examines the mediating effects of marathon brand penetration between collaborative processes and the enhancement of the host city’s brand reputational benefits including destination awareness, image improvement, and future visiting intention (Dimanche, 2003).

(3) **Community building effects:** A healthy population and a dynamic and coherent society typically characterize an active community. Physical and mental health is one of the benefits an individual can gain from running on a regular basis. Running contributes to social and psychological well-being while the intensity is strong enough in cardio-vascular returns (Long, 2004).

A successful marathon helps to achieve an active community at least through two channels. The first channel is through sport promotion. In the Psychological Continuum Model Funk and James (2001) distinguish four hierarchical stages in marathon participation: awareness, attraction, attachment, and allegiance. A successful marathon raises awareness of the event. In the attraction stage, various cultural and social influences (family, friends, media, etc.) strengthen the intention to participate. As their running experiences accumulate, experienced runners become influential to those potential participants who are still in the awareness and attraction stage (Funk et al., 2007). Thus, a virtuous circle forms and this phenomenon is evidenced in Japan, where a running boom was triggered by a series of successful marathons.

The second channel is through the participation of volunteers and local citizens. Their active participation helps to build a sense of community that local people take pride in it (Coleman & Ramchandani, 2010). Moreover, volunteers and local citizens draw social and psychological benefits from their participation (Long, 2004). Senior citizens, who act as volunteer, contribute to the reduction of the social exclusion of older people and the development of intergenerational solidarities (European Commission, 2010). It is in this way that volunteering enables seniors to make a transition and continue their participation, albeit in a different capacity and at a different scale of intensity.

(4) **Sustaining legacy:** Sustainability is a relevant metric to measure the mediating effects of marathon brand penetration between collaborative processes and brand loyalty. These effects to sustain the marathon legacy are examined from three aspects. First, the economic sustainability relies on financial viability, attracting sufficient runners,
volunteers and sponsorship. Second, social sustainability implies the need to raise the collaborative processes with the participants, without compromising the well-being of those non-participants i.e. local residents living along the running route. Third, environmental sustainability implies the need to mediate the effects of the marathon brand penetration by managing the carrying capacity to avoid negative impact on the local environment and by extension brand loyalty.
Methodology

To answer the question 'How do cities successfully organize a city marathon and hence overcome Double Jeopardy?' we conduct multiple case studies in the context of three urban marathons in Japan. The adoption of a case study approach is justified to understand the development of a complex phenomenon within its context, and is deemed suitable to answer how and why questions, when researchers have little control over the event (Yin, 2002). Guided by a protocol, we follow a replication strategy across the three cases to identify complementary and contradictory findings. Investigating multiple cases also allows the comparison between similar but different contexts. In addition, the entire set of data and findings is stored in the case study database to reinforce the reliability and validity of our findings.

Selection of Cases

The geographical context of this research is set in Japan. The 'running boom' in Japan triggered a proliferation of running-related activities. With more than 1,500 marathons and road races taking place in Japan each year, how do we narrow our targets? Since the value co-creation is not only limited to economic value and city brand value, a marathon that focuses entirely on place marketing may leave social benefits such as active ageing un-exploited. As demographic ageing is a tough challenge, we investigate successful marathon cases particularly to identify how social benefits such as active ageing can be included in the value co-creation process. The selection of cases depends on two criteria: first, the marathon is successful and, second, the marathon has multiple purposes (e.g. city branding, community building, sport promotion).

The case selection procedure starts with an investigation of the 'Top 100 best marathons and road races in Japan'. RUNNET, the largest marathon races information provider in Japan annually selects the top 100 races, based on the votes cast by the race participants. RUNNET started compiling the top 100 marathons from 1997. In 2010, they evaluated more than 1,500 races in Japan to compose the top 100 list. Both runners and event organizers recognize the top list. Many race organizers cite the credential as a proof of their success. Events that appear on the top 100 list clearly satisfy the first criteria: the marathon is successful.

In the next step, we carry out a preliminary content analysis of the 100 race websites to examine the location, characteristics, number of participants, and purposes of each race. The procedure helps us to match those races that satisfy the second criterion and
results in a general impression of the races, which, in turn, through a subsequent process of filtering enables the identification of the most successful cases. After the preliminary analysis, we short-list five races as potential targets for case studies. Next, we address a request for interview to the respective organizing committee of the short-listed marathons. Three positive responses form the foundation for multiple case studies.

Data Collection

The empirical investigation includes data collected from three sources. The first source of data comes from the organizing committee of the marathon. Personnel from the marathon’s organizing committee conducted interviews based on a semi-structured questionnaire. The interview serves to, first, investigate, how the city council and event organizer perceive the relational process as a mechanism for co-creating value with marathon participants. Second, to offer ‘space’ for identifying the perceived best practices and shed light on how these might contribute to develop a successful marathon. Third, to supplement information collected with the data retrieved from the official website of the marathon.

The second data source is from the media and press coverage of the marathon. Using a two-step process the search for information addresses the local scale first. Local newspapers deemed influential in the prefecture of the hosting cities for marathons, thereby searching, particularly, for the online sources for those local newspapers for the 2009 to November 2011 period. The data provides insight from a different angle. Thereafter, we follow the same procedure at the national level.

Thirdly, RUNNET serves as a platform for runners to share their experiences and comments. Runners rate and comment on marathon races and in so doing provide an important third source of information. Their ratings are based on 18 items, with a total of 100 points the highest possible rating. Besides numerical ratings, comments and feedbacks from runners provide a rich content for analysis. In particular, the narratives reveal insight into how the runners evaluate the running experience. The number of comments or feedback is highly correlated with the number of runners of the race, though more feedback does not necessarily mean higher satisfaction. In 2010, the Tokyo Marathon received 500 feedbacks and an average of 90.7 rating points, while the Tokyo Akabane Half Marathon had 338 feedbacks and an average of 40.7 points. Triangulation of data collected from multiple sources allows an in-depth study of the cases and increases the construct validity of the research findings.
Table 1 *Summary of the Data Collection Process*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Cases</th>
<th>Shimonoseki Kaikyo Marathon 2011</th>
<th>Noto-Wakura Manyo-no-Sato Marathon 2011</th>
<th>Shinshu Nakagawa Half Marathon 2010*1</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Initial contact</td>
<td>October 2011</td>
<td>October 2011</td>
<td>October 2011</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Interview</td>
<td>November 2011</td>
<td>November 2011</td>
<td>November 2011</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Press &amp; Media coverage</td>
<td>15 entries from Jun to Nov 2011</td>
<td>7 entries from Sep 2010 to Mar 2011</td>
<td>4 entries from Mar 2009 to Jan 2011</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Runners’ feedback</td>
<td>142 feedbacks left between 6 Nov 2011 and 1 Dec 2011</td>
<td>82*2 feedbacks left between 13 Mar 2011 and 6 Apr 2011</td>
<td>67 feedbacks left between 5 May 2010 and 6 Jul 2010</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Review of case report for internal validity</td>
<td>February 2012</td>
<td>February 2012</td>
<td>February 2012</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note. 1. The 2011 edition was cancelled due to the great earthquake.
2. Excluded 10 feedbacks from non-participants.

**Data Analysis Process**

Guided by the service-dominant logic, our aim is to identify: (1) practices that contribute to success, and (2) specific activities that support the practices. The analysis involves two steps. In the first step, we apply qualitative research techniques suggested by Miles and Huberman (1994) and Strauss and Corbin (1998). We analyze qualitative data collected from event organizers and media to identify practices, specific activities, and their relationship with success. Practices suggested by the SDVC Model (Figure 1) serve as the starting point for analysis. Specific activities identified from the empirical analysis are consolidated, subsequently, to relevant practices. In the second step, we analyze qualitative data collected from runners to examine how they perceive and value the identified practices and activities. The narratives are spontaneously posted by committed runners on a public internet platform without prompting by the researcher. It enables an observation into the value co-creation process in a way that conventional surveys cannot (Morgan, 2007). Care must be taken to ensure the reliability and proper interpretation of the results. In this regard, each individual case analysis is guided by the case study protocol, which set a clear guideline on the interpretation of narratives. Finally, preliminary case study reports are reviewed by key informants for internal validity.
Results and Discussion

The basic information of the three cases covered in this study is summarized in Figure 2. Geographically, the three cases are all located away from a major metropolitan area. In terms of population, all three cases are rather small in size, yet the differences still enable a meaningful comparison between small cities and villages. Despite the differences in location and size, they face the same conundrum of stagnant population growth and demographic aging. To respond to the challenge, the city authorities have shifted from a more close-minded attitude to a new one that actively attracts and welcomes outside resources (e.g., people and capital, among others) to revitalize the local community.

Figure 2 General Information of Cases

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Case 1: Shimonoseki Kaikyo Marathon</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Location: Shimonoseki City, Yamaguchi Prefecture</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Population: 283,279 (as of Oct, 2011)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Main organizer: City council</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Case 2: Noto-Wakura Manyo-no-Sato Marathon</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Location: Nanao City, Ishikawa Prefecture</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Population: 58,236 (as of Oct, 2011)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Main organizer: City council</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Case 3: Shinshu Nakagawa Half Marathon</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Location: Nakagawa Village, Nagano Prefecture</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Population: 5,240 (as of Oct, 2011)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Main organizer: Local runners’ club</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 2 reports the number of marathon participants from year 2009 to 2011. It can be observed that the scale of the event is positively related to the size of the city in the sense that bigger cities can generally attract more people and capital and, hence, afford to host a bigger event. Nevertheless, size is just one of the attributes that matters to the staging of a city marathon. Based on the collected data, the study will, in the following sections, provide evidence-based insights into the crucial factors and practices that contribute to a successful staging of a social inclusive marathon event.
Table 2 The number of runners and volunteers

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Case 1</th>
<th></th>
<th>Case 2</th>
<th></th>
<th>Case 3</th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Runners</td>
<td>Volunteers</td>
<td>Runners</td>
<td>Volunteers</td>
<td>Runners</td>
<td>Volunteers</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2009</td>
<td>9,759</td>
<td>2,754</td>
<td>5,037</td>
<td>888</td>
<td>1,640</td>
<td>350</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2010</td>
<td>10,600</td>
<td>3,236</td>
<td>5,655</td>
<td>1,093</td>
<td>2,140</td>
<td>350</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2011</td>
<td>10,967</td>
<td>3,137</td>
<td>6,755</td>
<td>1,271</td>
<td>2,200</td>
<td>N/A</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Note.* For case 3, the number of runners in 2011 represents those who had registered before the event was cancelled due to the great earthquake.

**Background**

Shimonoseki Kaikyo Marathon (Case 1) takes place at Shimonoseki City, which is a historical channel city that used to be the gateway to Japan from Korea and China. To promote a positive image of Shimonoseki, and to create a coherent community, the city organized the first Shimonoseki Kaikyo Marathon in 2008. The organizing committee of the marathon consisted mainly of staff from the sport promotion department of the city council.

Noto-Wakura Manyo-no-Sato Marathon (Case 2) is hosted in Nanao City, which is famous for its hot spring resort and sea food cuisine. The marathon started in 2008 as Nanao City aimed to foster a sense of unity among citizens and promote local cuisine and sport participation. The marathon is organized by the city council, while most organizing committee members come from the city tourism promotion department.

Shinshu Nakagawa Half Marathon (Case 3) takes place in the small village of Nakagawa. Unlike the first two cases that are initiated and organized by the city councils, it is organized by a local runners’ club. The predecessor of the half marathon is a 10-km road race that had only around 300 to 800 participants in its 25-year history. Over the years, aiming for more public finance support, the runners’ club has hoped that the village council could take over as the main organizer, though without success. It was not until 2008 when the runners’ club rebranded the road race as Shinshu Nakagawa Half Marathon that the marathon began to gain popularity. Thus, from a local road race that caters only to local running enthusiasts, the marathon is transformed to an event that attracts nonlocal visitors and a broader participation base from local residents, whether as runners or volunteers.
The Value Proposition Development Challenge

(1) Engage potential partners: Marathon organizers often approach potential sponsors by presenting the marathon as a good opportunity to promote their products. For Case 1, due to its relatively larger scale, they are able to attract sponsorship not only from local businesses but also large corporations such as Coca Cola and Mizuno. While Case 2 follows a similar approach as Case 1, Case 3 emphasizes more on local social network and relationship that have been built over a long period of time. The organizing committee has approached local farmers to sponsor farming products and a small amount of financial support (equivalent to 50~100 U.S. dollars).” The interviewee describes the process: “Although we cannot guarantee the sponsors any visible benefits, we aim to expand the scale of the marathon and raise its reputation, so that the sponsors are proud to be associated with our marathon.” (Organizing committee member; Case 3)

The second group of partners includes volunteers from local nonprofit organizations (NPOs), schools, sport clubs, city council staff, and residents. In Case 1, the city council’s network is utilized to mobilize a significant number of volunteers from a variety of NPOs. Case 2 also utilizes its influence on several NGOs to mobilize volunteers; additionally, the organizer approaches citizens in a smart fashion. As the street poster put it: “This year we will have the most ever 6,800 runners and 1,100 volunteers to support the marathon. The rest depends on your participation.” (Poster; Case 2)

The narrative is followed by four short stories of a runner and three groups of volunteers. Each of them communicates the meaning and benefits of supporting the marathon. In sum, the numbers signify the scale of the event; the stories attach meanings to it; and the poster as a whole stresses the importance of civic participation.

In Case 3, the organizer approaches volunteers through a smaller and more intimate social network. One of the organizing committee members works in the post office and therefore could mobilize a significant number of acquaintances. Also, housewife networks are utilized to recruit female volunteers. The interviewee summarizes the process as follows: “An interesting event will attract voluntary participation, whether it is sponsoring or volunteering. Instead of bluntly asking for money, we think the first step is to use our creativity to design an interesting event.” (Organizing committee member; Case 3)

It is to be noted that the active participation of local residents, whether as volunteers or simply as spectators, can be regarded as a special form of sponsorship. This
particular kind of socially inclusive sponsorship is one of the characteristics of many city marathons and will be further illustrated in the following sections.

(2) Incorporate place brand assets: The common elements utilized in the three cases are local attractions and cuisine, which are incorporated into the value proposition with the aim to stand out from competitors.

An important consideration in utilizing place brand assets is the place brand strategy gap (Govers & Go, 2009). From what is observed in our case studies, the projected image from their value proposition appears to be consistent with their place identity. In Case 1, the featuring of seashore and historical sites in the running route takes advantage of its historical heritage and geographic location. Additionally, the use of puffer fish in cuisine is well justified, as the city is known as the fugu (pufferfish) capital in Japan. In Case 2, the featuring of onsen (hot spring) and local seafood is warranted because, first, oysters raised in the Noto Bay area are in season and have a richer taste, and second, the local Wakura Onsen is a high-class hot spring resort that welcomes the largest number of hot spring visitors in the region. In Case 3, the organizer takes advantage of the village’s membership in the association of “Most Beautiful Villages in Japan.” Nakagawa Village has been actively using the symbol to develop its brand as a small village where nature and culture are well preserved. Recognizing this advantage, the organizer sets the theme as “Running through the spring valleys while enjoying the natural attractiveness of the village.”

The Challenge of Value Co-creation

(1) Administrative and operational elements: These elements can be regarded as the infrastructure needed to stage a marathon. In the three cases, the organizers have shown their expertise and capability in the following aspects: easy registration, convenient access to the venue, clear information, amply supplied water stations and medical facilities, logistics such as baggage checking and parking, as well as toilets and rest areas. Overall, the runners are mostly satisfied with the operational fronts, as many of them comment positively: “The water station was more than enough. Different selection of food supplies was provided at exactly the right place. I think the marathon organizer really understood the needs of the runners, and put our needs at the first place.” (Runner #38; Case 3)

Furthermore, technology, creativity, and networking are utilized to gain competitive advantage. First, new technology is applied in Case 1, in which a runner’s friends and families can track their supporting runner’s most updated time and location on
the Internet. Second, the application of creativity is found in the following instances. In Case 1, trash bins at the water station are tilted slightly to the front so that it would be easier to put trash inside. In Case 2, signposts for the number and distance of hills are specially adopted for its hilly course. Third, the importance of networking is stressed in Case 3. The administration of the marathon benefits from the organizing committee’s network of firms specializing in marathon operations. The relationships allow the organizer to cut costs and utilize the know-how of other firms.

(2) Design and programming: The place brand assets included in the value proposition are leveraged to facilitate value co-creation. The first design element the cases have in common is to incorporate local attractions into the running route. In Case 1, the running route features two sections of seashore and many attractions. In Case 2, the marathon route takes runners through the hot spring resort and the Noto bay area. In Case 3, runners are able to enjoy countryside scenery and a good view of nearby mountains. Even in sections without such good views, the roadside is decorated with flowers.

The second design element the cases have in common is the application of local specialty foods, which can be naturally blended into the running experience, since water and food supplies are indispensable elements in a marathon. Fugu (pufferfish) and somen (traditional hand-made noodles) are featured in Case 1. As for Case 2, the featured local specialty foods include oyster, pork, bread, and green onion, which are grown and made locally, and re-interpreted using an original menu. In Case 3, as the local specialty foods are not nationally well known, clever ideas are applied to strengthen the impact. At the hilliest section of the race, runners are treated with an ice bar, which costs little money but greatly energizes the runners. The implication is: if put at the right place, even such simple stuff as an ice bar can greatly enhance the runner’s experience.

In all three cases, the food experiences are exceptional for many runners. For example: “I could feel the passion of the race organizer. I took home with me the finisher’s towel, an apple juice, a pear that I won from the lottery, a rice ball, a banana, and a bottle of natural mineral water. Rarely have I seen a marathon from which you get so many souvenirs.” (Runner #16; Case 3)

The third common design is activities organized around the main running event. In Case 1, professional runners and celebrities are invited to give a running lecture and share their personal running stories. Moreover, a marathon festival featuring running wear, local specialty products, and tourism promotion is held on the race day and the day before. In
Case 2, an oyster festival featuring oysters, local specialty products, and tourism promotion is scheduled on the same day as the marathon. In Case 3, runners and their families can enjoy a post-race marathon festival featuring marathon merchandise designed in cooperation with local businesses. Across the three cases, these additional activities present an opportunity for place promotion and also motivate runners to stay longer, hang out with friends and families, and get to know more about the host city.

(3) Social support and interaction: While place brand assets provide the ingredients of design and programming for a marathon, local residents provide social support and interaction. Local residents are involved in the marathon as staff, volunteers, or spectators. Along with runners’ friends and families, they provide social support through the following channels proposed by Willis (1991). The first channel is through tangible and information support. In all three cases, live performances such as a brass band and Japanese drums are arranged along the running route to cheer the runners. Moreover, staff and volunteers give guidance and serve food and water at the water station. Even some local residents voluntarily prepare water or food for runners.

The second channel is through emotional support and companionship. In all three cases, volunteers and local residents cheer the runners, encourage them to keep going, and provide a sense of social belonging. Social support and interaction are the most-cited positive element by the runners. Many of them are impressed by the wholehearted support of volunteers and local residents, as shown from the following feedback: “What I learned from this marathon was the cooperation between all the involved people. Needless to say, runners ran with utmost effort. What’s more were the inputs from the cheering crowds, staff, and volunteers.” (Runner #19; Case 1)

“Before today, the longest distance I ever covered was only 15 kilometers. Though I was not well prepared for my first marathon, I felt really supported by the spectators and the rich supplies along the running route. The cheering and the food were really full of passion! I was so surprised I could finish. Really appreciated!” (Runner #26; Case 2)

“I was most impressed by the hospitality of the villagers. I felt like being welcomed from deep inside their hearts. I’ve run in many marathons, but I’ve never seen such a warm place as Nakagawa village.” (Runner #36; Case 3)

As the above comments show, the social support element further signifies that the marathon experience is co-created not only by runners, but also by citizens, volunteers, and race staff. More importantly, the active participation of volunteers and local residents
presents a form of socially inclusive sponsorship. Rather than sponsor in the form of money, they sponsor their time, passion, ingenuity, and affection for their hometown.

By summarizing the data quantitatively, Table 3 serves the purpose of comparison across cases and value co-creation practices. For example, among the participants of Case 1 who leave feedback on RUNNET, 44% of them praise the administrative and operational elements. Though design and programming seem to be the core elements of a marathon, it is found that social support and interaction is the most praised value co-creating practices. In all three cases, around three-quarters of the runners praise the social support and interaction experiences. Most of these experiences surround the interactions between runners, volunteers, and local citizens. The finding suggests that human aspects are more highly valued than operational and programming aspects.

Table 3 Runner’s perception of value co-creating practices

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Case 1</th>
<th>Case 2</th>
<th>Case 3</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Administrative &amp;</td>
<td>44%</td>
<td>41%</td>
<td>57%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>operational elements</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Design &amp;</td>
<td>36%</td>
<td>41%</td>
<td>78%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>programming</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Social support &amp;</td>
<td>74%</td>
<td>70%</td>
<td>78%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>interaction</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note. Original data are gathered from RUNNET. The numbers indicate the percentage of runners who praise the respective element in their feedback.

The Challenge of Gauging Feedback

(1) Evaluate and learn from feedback: The race organizers gather runners’ and volunteers’ feedback from two sources. The first is through questionnaire, done either on the Internet or with pen and paper. The second is through RUNNET, where numerous runners leave feedback and comments. The feedback is taken into account to improve the next edition of the marathon, and the improvement is evidenced by the comments of some repeaters: “I suggested last year, the brass band and other live performances were better to be deployed in the later (hilly) half of the race. I didn’t know if it was because of my suggestion, but they really did it.” (Runner #75; Case 1)

It is worth noting that the sponsors do not appear to be the main focus of feedback evaluation. This phenomenon may reflect that the sponsorship identified in our case
studies is patronage in nature. That is, sponsors financially support the event mainly out of their passion or corporate social responsibility rather than expectations of direct and immediate returns from the sponsorship (Zinger & O’Reilly, 2010). An engaging sponsorship requires the sponsor to make additional investment on top of the sponsorship budget; therefore, a smaller market presented in the three cases may prevent sponsors from doing so, based on a cost/benefit judgment.

(2) Maintain the relationship: The interviewees from the organizing committee in the three cases all stress the importance of maintaining a relationship with runners and stakeholders, especially in Case 2: “Although our marathon has a rather young history, we’ve received more and more requests for survey and interview. (…) We always respond to those requests, no matter how busy we are. Even when we don’t know the person on the other side of telephone or email, we cherish all leads and connections that may contribute to the future development of the marathon.” (Member of organizing committee; Case 2)

The Internet plays an important role in keeping dialogue with participants. In Case 1, the organizing committee invites runners and volunteers to post their personal running stories on the race website. In Case 2 and 3, a blog is maintained by members of the organizing committee. The blog shares running tips and experiences, challenges and accomplishments in organizing the marathon, and information about other local sport events.

Though the internet presents an efficient channel to keep contact with a large number of participants, the quality and effectiveness of communication may be limited. Case 3 shows its advantage of being small, which allows a smaller and more intimate circle of relationship: “We don’t think a good marathon is characterized by a huge number of runners because the hospitality would be meaningless if it is not conveyed to every participant. (…) What counts most is not the number of runners, but the strength of connection with each and every participant.” (Member of organizing committee; Case 3)

Success Metrics

(1) Participants’ brand loyalty: Table 4 reports the runners’ satisfaction level and loyalty toward the three marathons. Satisfaction is measured by the average ratings given by runners. Loyalty is measured by the percentage of runners who express their willingness to participate again next year. Case 1 gets an average rating of 95.0 points, putting it among the top 5 highest-rated marathons held in Japan in 2011. The success is also evidenced by runners’ intention to participate again next year, as 68% of the runners
express their willingness to participate again. For Case 2, the average rating is 89.8 points, and 39% of the runners explicitly express their intention to participate again next year. For Case 3, the average rating is 94.5 points, and 58% of runners explicitly express their intention to participate again next year.

Table 4 Runners’ Level of Satisfaction and Loyalty

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Case 1</th>
<th>Case 2</th>
<th>Case 3</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Satisfaction</td>
<td>95.0 points</td>
<td>89.8 points</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Loyalty</td>
<td>68%</td>
<td>39%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Note. Original data is gathered from RUNNET.*

1. Satisfaction is measured by the average ratings (max: 100 points) given by the runners.
2. Loyalty is measured by the percentage of runners who spontaneously and explicitly express their willingness to participate again next year.

(2) City branding effects: In Case 1 and 2, the interviewees from the organizing committee expect the marathon could promote a positive image of the hosting city. Indeed, many runners become aware of the tourist attractions and specialty products of the hosting city after participating in the marathon: “Before I visited here to run the marathon, the only thing I knew about Shimonoseki was the strait and tunnel. The running route was enjoyable and full of variation. I was especially impressed with the Yume Tower, landmark of the city.” (Runner #10; Case 1)

Because Case 3 originates from a small event catering to passionate local runners, the main focus is on satisfying runners rather than place marketing. Nevertheless, the organizer has been utilizing the place brand assets to promote the event and thereby indirectly contributes to a better place reputation through successful staging of the marathon. Runners’ feedback provides evidence that the marathon positively promotes place image and reputation. For example, one runner says, “The best thing about Nakagawa Marathon is the hospitality. From student volunteers to local residents, I feel the whole village welcomed us. The marathon is so nice that I am considering moving there.” (Runner #29; Case 3)

(3) Community-building effects: The marathon organizers explain how an active community could be promoted through the staging of the marathon. The first channel is through the promotion of regular exercise. There have been more and more citizens inspired by these marathons and start running. Narratives from a first-time marathoner
show how a successful marathon could promote sport participation: “I was attracted by the lively atmosphere of the marathon. Though I am already in my forties, though I might be reckless, I decided to challenge myself along with my girl friend.” (Runner #25; Case 1)

The second channel is through the active participation of volunteers and local residents, which contributes to building an active community and bridging the generational gap. It is observed that local residents take pride in the event and are motivated to take part in it: “Though I am embarrassed to praise my home town, I am very happy that such a successful marathon is held here. Someday, after I couldn’t run anymore, I would like to join the volunteers and assist in the operation of the marathon. To my fellow runners, do visit Shimonoseki next year!” (Runner #8; Case 1)

Furthermore, residents of all ages cheer for the runners in front of their houses or along the running route. Many runners leave with a positive impression that the host city is characterized by an energetic and coherent community: “The most attractive characteristic of this marathon is the hospitality presented by all villagers. I’ve participated in many marathons, and I’ve never seen one that touched my heart as much as this did.” (Runner #36; Case 3)

The staging of marathon also plays an important role in promoting active aging because it encourages senior citizens to engage in exercising, which is evidenced by one of the runners saying: “Nothing is comparable to the achievement of finishing a marathon. I was able to turn my training into success, thankful to the supportive cheering. It motivated me to run again even though I will be 67 years old next year.” (Runner #33; Case 1)

(4) Sustaining legacy: With respect to economic sustainability, the three cases expect that by building a meaningful and unique hallmark event, participants and sponsors would naturally be attracted. The members of the organizing committee stress the importance of differentiation: “Although now we are still in a favorable position supported by the current running boom, we strive to maintain the popularity by our two greatest assets: the premium running route and the welcoming hospitality.” (Member of organizing committee; Case 1)

“Because we are far away from big cities, it’s more difficult to secure a large number of participants. That’s why we focus on differentiation. We hope our distinct appeal can bring more participants from outside of the prefecture.” (Member of organizing committee; Case 2)
Unlike the first two cases, which receive financial support from local administration, Case 3 experiences a tougher challenge in securing financing. Speaking about economic sustainability, the interviewee says: “As we learned from the experience of other marathons, we expect our marathon can be self-financed if we have 3,000 runners and each of them paying 3,000 yen registration fee. Aiming to reach this goal, we’ve set the capacity at 3,000 runners and we are closing in the target. Currently the gap is financed by sponsorship and donation from local businesses and residents, and even by some organizing committee member’s own pocket money.” (Member of organizing committee; Case 3)

With respect to social and environmental sustainability, the organizers are all aware of the inconvenience brought to local residents by road closure and an influx of people. In Case 1, the city council tries to communicate the purposes and benefits of the marathon to local businesses and residents. The aim is to build trust and understanding, and further to win their support. In Case 2, the strategy is to encourage local residents to participate actively in the marathon, whether as runners or volunteers. By involving local residents in the marathon, the city authority expects to raise awareness of the benefits that hosting a marathon may bring to the city. With this understanding in mind, residents are more willing to withstand the temporary inconvenience and are even motivated to participate in the marathon. In turn, the active participation is expected to enhance community cohesion and sport participation. In Case 3, the organizer focuses on enhancing the mutual understanding between runners and local residents. The basic idea is to have both runners and residents thankful to each other. The approach is echoed by some runners: “The residents seemed very tolerant of the inconvenience brought by the road closure. I felt that the marathon has become a regular event that all citizens are part of it.” (Runner #122; Case 2)
Conclusion

The current study utilizes a service-dominant logic framework to investigate crucial concepts and best practices in staging a city marathon. From a theoretical perspective, this study applies the concepts of service-dominant logic to develop the SDVC model. From a practical perspective, this study introduces the concepts of service-dominant logic into a sport event management setting. In this context, the study provides a blueprint for city authorities and event organizers to plan and organize a hallmark event, especially in co-creating value with stakeholders.

The implications of this study suggest that more research is needed in the area to validate the findings presented here. First, this study mainly investigates the value co-creation process from the perspective of event organizer and runners. Sponsors and volunteers are crucial stakeholders in the participative process to enhance the mediating effect of marathon brand penetration between the runners’ feedback and their brand loyalty. Thus, an investigation into a larger set of stakeholders would shed light on the interaction of stakeholders throughout the collaborative processes. Future research should integrate the analysis of relevant dimensions and perspectives of stakeholders (e.g. local business, corporate partners of the event) to reveal the potential of the multidimensional approach, in the integrative stage of value co-creation through sponsorship partnerships, aimed at stimulating political, economic and socio-cultural dynamics and sustaining the marathon’s legacy.

Secondly, the main limitation of this research is that the findings provide insight and best practices that are relevant to the unique situation of the small cities investigated, which implies that the results are tentative as opposed to generalizable. Thirdly, the replication of the outcomes in contexts outside Japan will contribute to the generalizability of our findings. Since value co-creation is a feature for almost all types of events, we believe that the SDVC model can be adapted to serve other types of events notably musical and cultural festivals.


College Football Consumers’ Reaction towards Supporting an Environmentally Friendly Stadium

Liyan Jin,

James J. Zhang

Kevin K. Byon,

Daniel P. Connaughton

CORRESPONDENCE:

Dr. James J. Zhang, Professor and Director
International Center for Sport Management (ICSM)
354 Ramsey Center
University of Georgia
Athens, GA 30602
Tel. (706) 542-4420
E-mail: jamesz48@uga.edu
Abstract

The purpose of this study was to investigate college football consumers’ reactions toward green stadiums initiatives (GSI) in an intercollegiate sport setting by assessing their beliefs (behavioral, normative, control, and recognition), attitudes (behavioral and recognition), subjective norms, perceived behavioral control, and donation intentions, along with the interrelationships among these concepts. Survey participants were college football consumers (N=287) of a major collegiate athletic program located in the Southeastern region of the U.S., who were aware of the GSI. A confirmatory factor analysis confirmed the validity and reliability of the measures employed in the study and a structural equation modeling analysis revealed that social influence and perceived behavior control were predictive of donation intention toward GSI, while behavioral and recognition attitude were not relevant to intention.

Keywords: Environmental Sustainability; Green Building; LEED; College Athletic Donation
Introduction

Worldwide, various problems pose a significant threat to the quality of the environment. Examples of such include are not limited to global warming, air and water pollution, deforestation, loss of biodiversity, and desertification (Intergovernmental Panel on Climate, 2007). Human behavior is deemed as a critical contributor to many of these problems and their solutions (Gardner & Stern, 2002). Sport activities are not an exception. For instance, construction of sport facilities may cause environmental degradation, loss of animal/plant habitats and natural drainage, soil erosion, and deforestation. At the same time, the sport industry possesses unique features such as mass media distribution, communication power, emotional involvement, youth appeal, and social interaction that can be, and often are, used to contribute to address urgent social and environmental issues (Headlee, 2006).

Buildings consume 40% of the world’s materials, 55% of the wood cut for non-fuel use, 40% of the world’s energy, and 36% of the carbon dioxide emissions that cause global warming (United Nations Environment Program [UNEP], 2009; U.S. Green Building Council [USGBC] Research Committee, 2008). Additionally, indoor air often contains pollutant levels two to five times higher than outdoor air (U.S. Environmental Protection Agency [USEPA], 2013). To reduce the consumption of natural resources and negative environmental impact of conventional buildings, the green building concept was initiated and has become widely embraced by higher education institutions in the United States. Over 500 American colleges and universities have committed to achieving green building certification in all of their new construction and major renovation efforts (American College and University Presidents’ Climate Commitment [ACUPCC], 2012a, 2012b).

Football is the most influential sport in collegiate athletic programs and often considered as the front porch of a university (Stinson & Howard, 2008). Football stadiums, as vital social hubs and centralized infrastructure, can serve as a platform to deliver environmental messages to massive amounts of people at once. Thus, using football stadiums as a vehicle to promote environmental conservation is likely to yield positive results regarding the positive pro-social/psychological effects that result from spectator sports (Platow et al., 1999). Therefore, green college football stadiums present a viable opportunity to accelerate the green building movement and help shift a society
toward environmental sustainability by influencing both the minds and hearts of individuals.

The additional costs associated with greening a stadium may pose a significant financial burden for many athletic departments. Some researchers, however, have suggested that private athletic donations that help support athletic programs have the potential to grow (Gladden, Mahony, & Apostolopoulou, 2005; Mahony, Gladden, & Funk, 2003). Many aspects regarding college athletic donations have been studied; however, very few have examined supporting an athletic department’s environmental activities as a potential donor motivation. The main reason for the lack of research attention in this particular area is likely because college athletics are just beginning to take action on this relatively recent issue. With an increasing emphasis on environmental concern and commitment, including green buildings, from both of the sport industry and higher education, collegiate sports will have to address this growing and important matter. In order to remain financially stable, athletic department fundraising must spend sufficient time prospecting and cultivating potential donors through innovative ways, rather than relying on the usual contributors and the traditional methods of fundraising (Tsiotsou, 2006). Thus, it is important to investigate college football consumers’ reactions toward supporting green stadium initiatives (GSI).

The theory of planned behavior (TPB) has been used to successfully predict a variety of environmental behaviors (e.g., Han, Hsu, & Sheu, 2010; Kaiser, Wölfing, & Fuhrer, 1999; Mannetti, Pierro, & Livi, 2004) and donation behaviors (e.g., Powpaka, 1996; Ferguson & Chandler, 2005). Research primarily focusing on environmental donations is limited, not to mention the number of studies that have adopted the TPB to predict intentions toward donating to an environmental cause. Jin, Mao, Zhang, and Walker (2011) used the TPB to examine college students’ intention to donate to collegiate GSI and revealed that attitude and subjective norm together accounted for nearly 29% of the variance in donation intentions, while perceived behavior control was not related to donation intentions. The college-student sample in Jin et al.’s study could not represent various backgrounds of the whole college football consumer population; therefore, the generalizability of their findings may be limited. Furthermore, research has also shown that recognition is an important personal need that is firmly rooted in human nature (Laitinen, 2009), and that it plays as a critical motivation in charitable giving by providing positive attention from others and affecting one’s sense of the performance quality.
(Haggberg, 1992; Honneth, 2002; Laitinen, 2009). Thus, it is necessary to further study intentions toward donating to GSI with a more diverse sample and by applying an extended version of the TPB with recognition (beliefs and attitudes) included. Built on the theory of planned behavior, the purpose of this study was to examine college football consumers’ (behavioral, normative, control) beliefs, attitude, subjective norm, perceived behavior control, recognition (beliefs and attitudes), and intentions associated with donating to GSI in a collegiate athletic program, and how these variables influence each other.
Review of Literature

Driven by rising public concerns about global climate change, cost and availability of energy sources, and impact of the built environment on human health and performance, green building is a dynamic, rapidly growing, and evolving area. Sport organizations at all levels have adopted various green building practices, ranging from basic recycling programs to developing eco-friendly stadiums and arenas. The sport industry has the potential, on a regular basis, to reach millions of fans and businesses through diverse social media and other channels. Via various eco-friendly practices, such as renewable energy, recycling, water conservation, safer chemicals and healthier food, the sports industry is educating millions of fans about the importance of protecting and conserving the environment and natural resources. Meanwhile, sport organizations are demonstrating to their fans and business partners’ practical, cost-effective ways of fulfilling their environmental responsibility.

Green Building in the Sport Industry

Mega-Sport Events. Since 1996, when the environment became the third element of the Olympic Chapter, green practices have been a key requirement for cities in planning and hosting the Olympics as well as for post-game usage. The construction of venues is a major part of Olympic Games preparation in which environmental concern is an integral aspect. It is strongly recommended that Olympic facilities use durable and safe construction materials, consume less energy and fewer non-renewable resources, and produce less pollution into the air, water, and soil. Complying with the International Olympic Committee’s environmental movement, host cities must be strongly dedicated to the environment and sustainable development, including but not limited to green sport facilities. For example, the Beijing Olympic village was the first Olympic facility to obtain the Leadership in Energy and Environmental Design (LEED) certification (UNEP, 2009b), and Torino designed its Olympics villages and venues (e.g., Richmond Olympic Oval) for the 2010 Winter Games in accordance with LEED rating system.

As the world’s largest single sport event, the FIFA World Cup is also paying attention to green sport facility practices. The 2006 World Cup stadiums in Nuremberg and Munich, Germany were the first two soccer stadiums in Europe to adopt the European Eco-Management and Audit Scheme, which is a management tool for organizations to
assess, report and enhance their environmental performance (FIFA, 2006). Soccer stadiums in Hamburg and Gelsenkirchen introduced the ÖKOPROFIT environmental management system (FIFA, 2006). Similarly, all twelve stadiums for the 2014 World Cup in Brazil strove to meet the minimum LEED requirements (Malloy, 2013) and five of them achieved LEED certification (USGBC, 2014).

**Professional Sports.** Many professional sport organizations in North America have also invested in green sport facilities. For instance, in 2003, the Philadelphia Eagles collaborated with the Natural Resources Defense Council (NRDC) to be among the first professional sport teams in America to green their stadium by focusing on energy and water efficiency, ecological-friendly paper products, and recycling (NRDC, 2012). In 2004, the NRDC become the nation’s key environmental advisor to professional sports by providing comprehensive guidelines on eco-friendly practices. Since then, the NRDC has been assisting stadiums and arenas to reduce their environmental impact by commissioning energy, waste, and water efficiency audits. Of the 126 professional sports teams (MLB, NBA, NFL, NHL, and MLS) in America, at least 38 teams have partially changed to renewable energy for their operations and 68 or more have developed energy efficiency programs (NRDC, 2012). Many teams saved over $1 million as a result of shifting to more efficient, healthy and ecologically intelligent operations (NRDC, 2013). As of 2012, there have been fifteen professional sports venues that had received LEED certification (NRDC, 2013).

**Intercollegiate Sports.** While many professional sport organizations in the U.S. have embraced green building initiatives, the majority of collegiate athletic departments have just recently begun to implement basic green practices with just a few forth putting extensive efforts. Some collegiate athletic programs have demonstrated strong dedication to green building initiatives by achieving LEED certification for at least one of their athletic facilities. For example, in 2007, the Burton-Shenkman Football Complex at University of Connecticut was awarded with LEED Silver (University of Connecticut, 2007). In 2009, the University of Florida’s (UF) Heavener Football Complex received the LEED platinum rating (UF, 2009). In 2011, the newly constructed Apogee Stadium at the University of North Texas achieved LEED Platinum certification (University of North Texas, 2011). More recently, the University of Washington renovated its football stadium
including a 70,000 square-foot football operations building seeking LEED Gold Certification (Washington Husky, 2013).

Intercollegiate sports are a prominent part of higher education and a significant element of American culture. College athletics can influence an institution’s image, reputation, applications, alumni attachment, interaction with external parties, and government funding (Toma, 2003; Lovaglia & Lucas, 2005). Therefore, a particular emphasis should be placed on implementing environmental policies in areas associated with college athletics, including green building requirements. Moreover, football stadiums, as important social hubs and centralized infrastructure, can serve as an excellent platform to spread environmental messages to massive amounts of people at one time. Thus, green college football stadiums present a viable opportunity to accelerate the green building movement and help shift society more towards environmental sustainability by influencing both the minds and emotions of individuals.

Athletic Donations and Donor Motives

According to the NCAA (Fulks, 2008, 2012), private contributions, ticket sales, and NCAA/conference distributions made up the majority of revenue generated by Division I athletic programs. However, ticket sales and NCAA/conference distributions fluctuate based on winning records, particularly those of football and men’s basketball teams. To build and keep competitive teams/programs, and thereby maintain or increase revenue from these two sources, athletic departments often must invest significant financial resources. Additionally, ticket sales are a fairly constant revenue source primarily determined by a facility’s capacity; the amount of tickets that an athletic department can sell is limited. For an athletic program with already good ticket sales, except for raising ticket prices, it would be difficult to substantially improve this revenue stream. Some may argue that revenue from donor contributions is also influenced by athletic performance; nonetheless, research suggests that the effect of team success on athletic donations could be positive, negative or neutral, varying case by case (Covell, 2005; Litan, Orszag, & Orszag, 2003; Stinson & Howard, 2004). Even when athletic performance does influence giving, it may only affect rare donors who primarily give to secure tickets, and not major donors who are often strongly connected to the team and contribute the majority of athletic gifts for philanthropic reasons (Stinson & Howard, 2004, 2010). Furthermore, the combined cost for fundraising, game-day expenses, and
guaranteed payments to opponent’s accounts for less than 12% of the total spending of athletic programs, but fundraising itself contributes to 30% of the generated revenue (Fulks, 2012). Therefore, athletic fundraising is considered as a low-cost high-reward endeavor.

Historically, fundraising programs have assisted in counteracting the financial pressures Division I athletic programs have faced. The significance of fundraising has been widely recognized as the proportions of private donations in the total revenue of Division I athletic programs have steadily increased over the years. For instance, in 1965, fundraising represented 5% of the Division I athletic programs’ total revenue (Fulks, 1994). Between 1985 and 1989, 15% of total revenue came from booster and alumni donations (Fulks, 1994). It was reported that, in 2001, 18% of Division I-A programs’ total revenue came from fundraising (Fulks, 2003), which rose to 20% in 2004 (Howard & Crompton, 2004). In 2008, the NCAA reported that athletic contributions accounted for 25% of total revenue, while ticket sales comprised 23% of total revenue (Fulks, 2008). In 2011, donations made up 28% and 29% respectively of the total revenues generated by the Football Championship Subdivision (FCS), which were much higher than the 16% from ticket sales (Fulks, 2012). Additionally, college athletic fundraising is viewed as a revenue stream that has vast potential to further grow and support athletic programs (Gladden et al., 2005; Mahony et al., 2003). Thus, athletic contributions can recognized as a vital funding source for intercollegiate athletic programs.

Athletic donor motives have been frequently studied in an attempt to gain a better understanding of how and why some people make donations to intercollegiate athletic programs. An extensive range of donor motivations has been identified via scales that measure the motives of giving to athletic departments. For instance, Billing, Holt, and Smith (1985), Staurowsky, Parkhouse, and Sachs (1996), and Verner, Hecht, and Fansler (1998) have all made significant attempts at developing scales and found the following major athletic donor motives, including but not limited to: tax deductions and tickets, providing athletic scholarships, attending games with family and friends, quality and prestige of the athletic program, creating partnerships, inside information, loyalty, participating in secondary events, philanthropy, power, special seating and parking, and public recognition.
Furthermore, Mahony et al. (2003) developed an instrument with 12 athletic donor motivation factors, and revealed that the most important motivational factors, in order, were future success, current success, tradition, priority seating for men’s basketball, psychological commitment, priority seating for football, and community pride. Similarly, Gladden et al. (2005) reported that the top three motives that people donate to Division I athletic departments were: to support and improve the athletic program, for ticket-oriented benefits, and to help student-athletes. Additional research found that an increase in emotional motivation (e.g., identification, affiliation, support, prestige, loyalty, and meeting friends) led to increased donations to athletics (Tsiotsou, 1998), and that primary donor motives vary among institutions with different characteristics (Gladden et al., 2005).

**Theory of Planned Behavior.** The TPB (Ajzen, 1985) is one of the most influential and well-supported social psychological theories concerned with individual motivational factors as determinants of the likelihood of performing a specific behavior. The TPB proposes that the most significant determinant of an individual’s behavior is behavioral intention, which can be predicted from the individual’s attitude toward performing the behavior, subjective norms, and perceived behavior control related with the behavior. An attitude is “… the degree to which a person has a favorable or unfavorable evaluation or appraisial of the behavior in question” (Ajzen, 1991, p. 188). A person’s attitude is determined by his or her behavioral beliefs (beliefs about the consequences of performing the behavior and the evaluation of the importance of the outcomes). Subjective norms are defined as “… the perceived social pressures to perform or not to perform the behavior” (Ajzen, 1991, p. 188). It is determined by the person’s normative beliefs; whether important referent individuals approve or disapprove of performing the behavior and the person’s motivation to adhere to those referents. Perceived behavior control is an individual’s perception of how easy or difficult it is to perform a task. It is a function of control beliefs about the likelihood of occurrence of various facilitating or constraining factors, weighted by the perceived impact of those factors in making behavioral performance easy or difficult. The predicting effect of PBC declines when volitional control over the behavior is high (Madden, Ellen, & Ajzen, 1992). The TPB suggests that perceived behavior control, attitude, and subjective norm toward a behavior are independent and direct determinants of behavior intention. The
relative weights of the three constructs in predicting intention vary depending on the behavior and population under investigation (Ajzen, 1991). Identifying the relative influence of each construct on behavior intention provides guidance as to how to form or alter a behavior. Once the significant correlations are uncovered, analyses of the underlying beliefs corresponding to the identified constructs could provide future information for intervention efforts.

**Recognition as a Donation Motive.** As an extended ingredient of TPB, recognition is referred to as “a public expression of appreciation given by a group to individuals who undertake desired behaviors” (Fisher & Acherman, 1998, p. 4). Laitinen (2009) suggested that the need for recognition correlates to four human basic needs: security, love, belongingness, esteem, and self-actualization. Experiences of being recognized contribute to people’s feeling of being valued and understood (Honneth, 2002). Furthermore, recognition typically attracts positive attention from others and improves the perceived quality of one’s performance and therefore, is often deemed as a critical motivational factor (Laitinen, 2009).

Previous studies on charitable giving identified recognition as a key motivation (Haggberg, 1992). Being recognized publicly delivers an organization’s respect and appreciation to their supporters which may positively contribute to the recipient’s status and prestige (Belk, 1995). In most cases, people prefer their donations to be known by others if there is such a choice, suggesting that recognition is often favored by and essential to donors (Andreoni & Petrie, 2004). Realizing that recognition is a strong desire and motivation of those who give to charities, it has become an important strategy often used by charitable and nonprofit organizations to recruit and sustain donors and volunteers (Fisher & Acherman, 1998). For example, the American Red Cross, American Legion, YMCA, and United Way have implemented special events and dinners to recognize the contributions of those who supported them. Most universities have policies on donor recognition, such as recognizing distinguished contributors by naming buildings, libraries, and streets in their honor.

Succinctly, due to the importance of recognition in collegiate athletic giving, the influence of beliefs and attitudes toward being recognized as a green athletic donor on giving intentions was examined as expanded factors to the TPB in this study. Therefore,
based on the TPB, the concept of recognition, and previous research findings, the following hypotheses were tested in this study:

H₁ Beliefs of the consequences of donating to GSI would be positively related to athletic donors’ attitudes toward the behavior.

H₂ Beliefs of the consequences of being recognized as a green athletic donor would be positively related to athletic donors’ attitudes toward the green donor recognition.

H₃ Normative beliefs of donating to GSI would be positively related to athletic donors’ subjective norm.

H₄ Beliefs of the presence and significance of required resources to donate to GSI would be positively related to athletic donors’ perceived behavior control.

H₅ Attitudes toward donating to GSI would be positively related to athletic donors’ intention to donate to GSI.

H₆ Attitudes toward being recognized as a green athletic donor would be positively related to athletic donors’ intention to donate to GSI.

H₇ Subjective norm toward donating to GSI would be positively related to athletic donors’ intention to donate to GSI.

H₈ Perceived behavior control of donating to GSI would be positively related to athletic donors’ intention to donate to GSI.

H₉ Attitudes toward donating to GSI, attitude toward being recognized as a green athletic donor, subjective norm, and perceived behavior control will mediate (at least partially) the relationship between all belief variables to donate to GSI.
Method

Questionnaire

The questionnaire included the following sections: (a) behavioral belief of donation, (b) normative belief of donation, (c) control belief of donation, (d) behavior attitude of donation, (e) perceived subjective norm of donation, (f) perceived behavior control of donation, and (g) behavior intentions of donation. Items measuring these concepts were derived from several recent studies examining consumer behavior associated with GSI, mainly Han, Hsu, and Sheu (2010), Jin et al. (2011), and Jin et al. (2015). In particular, measures for recognition belief and recognition attitude of donation were adopted from Jin et al.’s (2015) study. In these previous studies, rigorous measurement procedures were carried out to develop the measures and ensure their sound measurement properties in terms of validity and reliability. A total of 36 items were included in the questionnaire to measure the specified constructs and they were phrased into a 7-point Likert scale, ranging from 1 = ‘strongly disagree’ to 7 = ‘strongly agree.’ For the purpose of sample description, demographic background variables were included in the questionnaire, including gender, age, ethnicity, marital status, household income, and university affiliation. Additionally, given the primary purpose of this study was to better understand donor behavior toward GSI, a screening question (“Have you ever heard of the Green Buildings and/or the Green Stadium Initiatives?”) was used to verify the minimum eligibility for study participation and ensure that an individual had some basic awareness for GSI.

Procedures and Participants

After the questionnaire was formed, it was submitted to a panel of experts for a test of content validity in terms of item relevance, representativeness, and clarity. The panel contained three professors with expertise in green marketing, environmental sustainability, and social psychology. With minor modifications and revision for wording clarity, all of the items were retained. Following the approval from the Institutional Review Board, data collection preparation began with training seven research assistants and identifying primary tailgating zones of a major public university located in the southeastern region of the U.S. Data were collected during spontaneous tailgating events before three consecutive home football games at the chosen university campus and during the university’s
homecoming parade in the same month. Consequently, a total of 322 surveys were collected, of which 35 had substantial missing values (i.e., more than 10%) and were hence deleted during data cleaning stage. Consequently, a total of 287 surveys were included in subsequent data analyses.

Of the respondents, 59.2% were male and 40.8% were female. A majority of them were married (72%). Caucasian (90.8%) accounted for the largest ethnic group. The sample represented diverse age groups, starting from the largest group of 26-35 years old (21.3%), 46-55 years old (20.6%), 56-65 years old (20.6%), 56-65 years old (20.6%), and 36-45 years old (15.6%) to the smallest group of 18-25 years old (15.2%), and also represented consumers from middle to high income families, including 42.9% with a family annual income of $100,000 or higher, 17.2% with $75,000 - $99,999, and 15.7% with $50,000 - $74,999. In terms of university affiliation, approximately 49% of them were university alumnae, 18.4% were a member of a university faculty or staff, or a family member of faculty, staff, or student, 8.2% were current university students, and 8.2% were local residents of the college town.

Data Analyses

Procedures in the SPSS 17.0 (Norusis, 2008) were used to calculate descriptive statistics and the Cronbach’s alpha coefficient. By employing the Mplus 7.11 program (Muthén, & Muthén, 2012), a confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) was conducted to examine psychometric properties of the measures in the proposed model, and a structural equation modeling (SEM) analysis was conducted to investigate the relationships among the latent constructs in the model. Before conducting the CFA, data screening was performed to check the distributions of variables and test the assumptions for CFA. Univariate outliers were examined via Boxplot and Mahalanobis distance was assessed for detecting multivariate outliers. Linearity was examined via the evaluation of deviation values and multicollinearity was evaluated via variance inflation factor (i.e., VIF < 10; Hair, Black, Babin, Anderson, & Tatham, 2005). The measurement model was evaluated with the robust maximum likelihood (ML) estimation (Muthén, & Muthén, 2012) and Satorra-Bentler adjusted chi-square (S-B $\chi^2$) scaling method (Satorra & Bentler, 2001). To
assess model fit, the following fit indexes were adopted, including $\chi^2$, $\chi^2$/df, RMSEA, SRMR, and CFI: Hair et al., 2005; Hu & Bentler, 1999; Kline, 2005). A non-significant chi-square value is desirable because it suggests no difference between expected and observed covariance matrix structure. Fit would be considered good when the value of $\chi^2$/df is less than 3.0 (Kline, 2005). RMSEA values less than .06 indicate a close fit, between .06 and .08 show an acceptable fit, and greater than .10 indicates a poor fit (Hu & Bentler, 1999). A CFI value greater than .90 indicates an acceptable model fit, and values above .95 indicate a close fit (Hu & Bentler, 1999). Reliability of the measures was calculated by Cronbach’s alpha ($\alpha$), construct reliability (CR), and average variance extracted (AVE). The cut-off values of .70 ($\alpha$), .70 (CR), and .50 (AVE) were used to determine internal consistency of the measures (Bagozzi & Yi, 1988; Fornell & Larcker, 1981; Nunnally & Bernstein, 1994). Construct validity was assessed via examining convergent validity and discriminant validity. An item with factor loading equal to or greater than .707 would be considered as acceptable, demonstrating good convergent validity (Anderson & Gerbing, 1988). An inter-factor correlation below .85 generally indicates good discriminant validity (Kline, 2005). A more robust way to demonstrate discriminant validity is when a squared correlation between two constructs is lower than the AVE for each construct (Fornell & Larcker, 1981). Same fit indices were chosen for conducting the SEM analysis.
Results

Testing the initial model with nine factors (i.e., Behavioral Belief, Behavioral Attitude, Recognition Belief, Recognition Attitude, Normative Belief, Perceived Social Norm, Control Belief, Perceived Behavior Control, and Behavioral Intention associated with athletic donation) by conducting a CFA, the S-B $\chi^2/df$ (1134.55/558 = 2.03) was lower than the suggested cut-off value of 3.0 (Kline, 2005). The RMSEA value of .069 revealed that the model had an acceptable fit (Hu & Bentler, 1999). The CFI value of .916 was within the acceptable range (> .90; Hu & Bentler, 1999). However, the correlation between two factors Normative Beliefs and Perceived Social Norm (r = .996) was substantially greater than .85, which would likely cause multicollinearity issues in the SEM stage. According to Kline (2005), variables associated with multicollinearity problems should be eliminated or combined into a composite variable. Taking into consideration the empirical and theoretical reasons, Normative Belief and Perceived Social Norm were combined into one factor and labeled as Social Influence. Consequently, the revised measurement model with 36 observed variables under eight factors was tested. The results showed that the revised measurement model fit the data reasonably well (S-B $\chi^2/df$ = 2.03, RMSEA = .069, and CFI = .915).

Descriptive statistics for the retained eight factors are presented in Table 1.

Table 1. Summary Validity and Reliability Results for the Overall Measurement Model

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Factors and items</th>
<th>$\lambda$</th>
<th>CR</th>
<th>$\alpha$</th>
<th>AVE</th>
<th>M</th>
<th>SD</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Behavioral Beliefs</td>
<td>.97</td>
<td>.97</td>
<td>.87</td>
<td>5.11</td>
<td>1.42</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Protect our environment</td>
<td>.88</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Be more socially responsible</td>
<td>.93</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Experience a healthy and environmental friendly stadium</td>
<td>.94</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Perform an environmentally friendly practice</td>
<td>.95</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Enjoy environmentally friendly amenities</td>
<td>.96</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Recognition Beliefs</td>
<td>0.95</td>
<td>0.95</td>
<td>0.80</td>
<td>4.63</td>
<td>1.44</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>---------------------</td>
<td>------</td>
<td>------</td>
<td>------</td>
<td>------</td>
<td>------</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Be a “greener” team fan</td>
<td>.82</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Be socially recognized as a green donor</td>
<td>.88</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Show the public of my desire and ability to support college team’s environmental programs</td>
<td>.92</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Feel special as being associated with environmentally conscious athletic donors</td>
<td>.94</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Be more attached to the stadium</td>
<td>.90</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Control Beliefs</th>
<th>0.85</th>
<th>0.85</th>
<th>0.66</th>
<th>4.27</th>
<th>1.37</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Difficult to overcome financial limitations to donate to the team’s GSI</td>
<td>.76</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Donating to the university’s GSI would cause me serious financial problems</td>
<td>.83</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Will not have enough financial resources to donate to the university’s GSI</td>
<td>.84</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Behavioral Attitude</th>
<th>0.94</th>
<th>0.94</th>
<th>0.73</th>
<th>5.04</th>
<th>1.36</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Category</td>
<td>Value</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-------------------</td>
<td>-------</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Favorable</td>
<td>.69</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pleasant</td>
<td>.83</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Exiting</td>
<td>.78</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Good</td>
<td>.93</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Beneficial</td>
<td>.94</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Wise</td>
<td>.94</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Recognition Attitude**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Category</th>
<th>Value</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Favorable</td>
<td>.81</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Exiting</td>
<td>.82</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pleasant</td>
<td>.94</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Beneficial</td>
<td>.97</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Wise</td>
<td>.98</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Social Influence**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Category</th>
<th>Value</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Social Influence</td>
<td>.95</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
My family (or relatives) think I should donate to the university’s GSI | 0.88
My colleagues (or co-workers) think I should donate to the university’s GSI | 0.88
My friends think I should donate to the university’s GSI | 0.87
Most people who are important to me think I should donate to the university’s GSI | 0.82
People whose opinions I value would prefer that I donate to the university’s GSI | 0.83
Most people who are important to me would want me to donate to the university’s GSI | 0.89

### Perceived Behavior Control

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Description</th>
<th>Score</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I have complete control of making donations to the university’s GSI</td>
<td>0.60</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>If I wanted to, I could easily make donations to the university’s GSI</td>
<td>0.82</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>For me, donating to the university’s GSI is easy</td>
<td>0.88</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Behavioral Intention

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Description</th>
<th>Score</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I will try to donate to the university’s GSI in the next five years</td>
<td>0.90</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I will make an effort to donate to the university’s</td>
<td>0.93</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
I intend to donate to the university’s GSI in the
next five years.90

Cronbach’s alpha values for the factors ranged from .80 (Perceived Behavior Control) to .97 (Behavioral Belief). Similarly, all CR values were substantially larger than .70, ranging from .81 (Perceived Behavior Control) to .97 (Behavioral Belief). The AVE values were also greater than the recommended cut-off point (> .5, Fornell & Larcker, 1981), ranging from .60 to .87 for the same factors. These findings strongly supported the internal consistency of the items within the respective factor. Construct validity was evaluated by evaluating the convergent validity and discriminant validity of all eight factors. To examine the convergent validity, factor loadings and t-values were analyzed. Results showed that factor loadings of all items were equal to or greater than .707, except for two items with slightly lower values (.69 for an item under Behavioral Attitude and .60 for an item under Perceived Behavior Control). The t-values for all factor loadings were significant at the .001 level. Considering the theoretical relevance and minimal deviance from the cut-off point of .707, these two items were retained. The discriminant validity was tested via examining inter-factor correlations and comparisons between the AVE values and the squared correlation coefficients. Results indicated that all pairs of inter-factor correlations were below the recommended cut-off point of .85 (Kline, 2005).

Table 2. Intern-correlations and Standard Errors among the Factors

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Correlation Matrix (Standard Error)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Factor</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>BB</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>RB</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>BA</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>RA</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SI</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CB</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>BC</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>BI</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

BB
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>RB</th>
<th>BA</th>
<th>RA</th>
<th>SI</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>.828** (.035)</td>
<td>.465** (.076)</td>
<td>.409** (.077)</td>
<td>.236** (.078)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>.448** (.075)</td>
<td>.448** (.077)</td>
<td>.424** (.077)</td>
<td>.439** (.071)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>.409** (.076)</td>
<td>.448** (.077)</td>
<td>.831** (.077)</td>
<td>.504** (.060)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>.448** (.075)</td>
<td>.831** (.077)</td>
<td>.416** (.077)</td>
<td>.416** (.057)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>.831** (.036)</td>
<td>.416** (.077)</td>
<td>.416** (.077)</td>
<td>.416** (.077)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>CB</th>
<th>BC</th>
<th>BI</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>-.047 (.081)</td>
<td>.190* (.075)</td>
<td>.316** (.069)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>-.078 (.088)</td>
<td>.288** (.078)</td>
<td>.522** (.066)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>-.239** (.086)</td>
<td>.285** (.081)</td>
<td>.454** (.069)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>-.210* (.086)</td>
<td>.304** (.081)</td>
<td>.470** (.069)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>-.</td>
<td>.624** (.070)</td>
<td>.849** (.061)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>-.</td>
<td>.024 (.079)</td>
<td>-.193 (.061)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>.393** (.101)</td>
<td>.624** (.121)</td>
<td>.737** (.112)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Note: * Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed). ** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

BB = behavioral beliefs; RB = recognition beliefs; BA = behavioral attitude; RA = recognition attitude; SI = social influence; CB = control beliefs; BC = behavior control; BI = behavioral intention.

All squared correlations were less than the AVE values for the respective constructs (Table 3), indicating good discriminant validity among the factors. In summary, the findings of the measurement model demonstrated adequate support of the psychometric properties of the model.

Table 3. Assessment of Discriminant Validity in terms of AVE and Inter-Concept Relations

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Factor</th>
<th>BB</th>
<th>RB</th>
<th>BA</th>
<th>RA</th>
<th>SI</th>
<th>CB</th>
<th>BC</th>
<th>BI</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>BB</td>
<td>.87</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>RB</td>
<td></td>
<td>.69</td>
<td>.80</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>BA</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>.22</td>
<td>.20</td>
<td>.73</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>RA</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>.17</td>
<td>.15</td>
<td>.69</td>
<td>.83</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The hypothesized structural model was estimated to examine the relationships involving the eight latent variables. The overall model fit was acceptable (S-B $\chi^2/df = 2.5$, RMSEA = .083, CFI = .873). The SEM results showed that Behavioral Belief exerted a positive influence on Behavioral Attitude ($\gamma = .46, p < .01$), suggesting when respondents’ behavioral beliefs toward donating to GSI increased by 1.0 standard deviation, their behavioral attitudes toward donation would increase by 0.46 standard deviation. Thus, $H_1$ was supported. Recognition Belief was also found to have a positive impact on Recognition Attitude ($\gamma = .44, p < .01$), indicating that recognition attitude of donation would increase by 0.44 standard deviation when respondents’ beliefs toward being recognized as a green athletic donor increased by 1.0 standard deviation. Therefore, $H_2$ was supported. Since Normative Belief and Perceived Social Norm were combined into one factor, Social Influence, hypotheses related to these two factors (i.e., $H_3$ and $H_7$) could not be tested. However, the results revealed that Social Influence had a positive impact on Behavioral Intention to give to GSI ($\gamma = .74, p < .01$), showing that 1.0 standard deviation increases in Social Influence would lead to an increase of 0.74 standard deviation in
Behavioral Intention for donation. Although the path from Control Belief to Perceived Behavior Control was positive ($\gamma = .01$, $p > .05$), it was not statistically significant. Hence, $H_4$ was not supported. Similarly, the influences of Recognition Attitude ($\beta = .06$, $p > .05$) and Behavioral Attitude ($\beta = .02$, $p > .05$) on Behavioral Intention were not statistically significant, indicating that $H_5$ and $H_6$ were not supported. With regard to the relationship between Perceived Behavior Control and Behavioral Intention, a positive and significant impact ($\beta = .40$, $p < .01$) was uncovered. Therefore, $H_8$ was supported (Figure 1).

Figure 1. Final Structural Model Depicting the Interrelations among Concepts

Note. Dashed lines represent non-significant paths

* Path significant at the .05 level

** Path significant at the .01 level

The structural model revealed the variation explained in Behavioral Attitude, Recognition Attitude, and Behavioral Intention. As indicated, 70.8% of the variance in Behavioral Intention was explained by Social Influence and Perceived Behavior Control. A total of 21.6% of the variance in Behavioral Attitude was accounted for by Behavioral Belief, and 19.7% in Recognition Attitude was explained by Recognition Belief.
Discussion

Impact of Beliefs

This study suggests that respondents in general had positive beliefs and attitude toward donating to GSI. They confirmed that constructive consequences were associated with donating behavior and performing the behavior was favorable, beneficial, wise, and pleasant. Similarly, respondents also had positive beliefs and attitude toward being recognized as a green athletic donor. The SEM results showed that donation beliefs had a direct and positive influence on donation attitude, accounting for nearly 22% of the variance; and that recognition beliefs also exerted a direct and positive influence on recognition attitude, explaining about 20% of the variance. These were consistent with the TPB, which indicates that an individual’s strong beliefs of desiring outcomes associated with executing a behavior will have a positive attitude toward the behavior. The results also aligned with Han et al.’s (2010) study on consumers’ intentions to visit a green hotel, where positive beliefs of the behavior outcomes led to positive attitude, explaining about 24% of the variance.

This study indicated that respondents had slightly positive control beliefs about possessing adequate financial resources to donate to GSI. However, their perceived behavior control was almost neutral, suggesting that they were not sure whether it was easy or difficult to donate to GSI. The SEM results showed that control beliefs were not related to perceived behavior control, which was shared by Smith and McSweeney’s (2007) study on charitable donation intention. However, these results contradicted the TPB by indicating that perceived behavior control is determined by salient beliefs regarding sufficient resources, skills, and opportunities and the occurrence of various constraining factors. In the present study, measurement of control beliefs focused on monetary issues, indicating that behavior control toward donating to GSI was not related to beliefs concerning financial resources. Control beliefs of other undetected factors may play a role in determining behavior control. For example, respondents may believe that their donation behavior would not make a difference to the development of GSI or donating to GSI would not contribute to solving environmental issues. Another possible barrier was demonstrated by Smith and McSweeney (2007) who suggested the unpleasant approach adopted by a charity organization could significantly prevent people from making monetary donations. However, the specific solicitation method used by the collegiate athletic program under investigation and how current donors reacted to it were
not clear due to the inaccessibility of information. A lack of knowledge regarding GSI may also increase the uncertainty which may lead to the perceived neutral behavior control. Further studies are needed to uncover the potential salient barriers that influence perceived control toward donating to GSI.

**Antecedents of Intention**

As expected, the results suggest that social influence and perceived behavior control exerted a direct and powerful impact on donation intention toward GSI, explaining a total of 70.8% of its variance. It is worth noting that Social Influence showed a much stronger influence than Perceived Behavior Control on donation intention, with the former accounting for 54.8% of the variance and the later explaining 16%. The powerful impact of social influence may be explained by findings derived from existing research on normative social influence. Some research has suggested that witnessing other people’s behaviors strongly impacted one’s own actions (Cialdini & Goldstein, 2004; Terry & Hogg, 2001). Research has demonstrated that communicating a descriptive norm on how the majority of people act in a given circumstance, via written information, can stimulate compliance of the targeting behavior (Parks, Sanna, & Berel, 2001; Schultz, 1999). For instance, Schultz (1999) indicated that normative messages presenting how much an average neighborhood family recycled increased the amount as well as the frequency of subsequent curbside recycling behaviors. Goldstein, Cialdini, and Griskevicius (2008) also found that informing hotel guests that the majority of other guests reuse hotel towels resulted in greater towel reuse than the standard industry message focusing on the importance of environmental protection. Similarly, social information on the high donation amount others make would influence one’s perceived social norm, which consequently led to a higher contribution (Croson, Handy, & Shang, 2009). Shang and Croson (2009) also discovered that positive social information could result in an average increase between 10% and 30% in charitable contributions. Thus, if respondents believed that their family, friends and colleagues were not donating to environmental initiatives like GSI, they would form a negative social norm toward the behavior, which led to negative donation intention.

Cialdini (2001) indicated that individuals usually refer to social norms to obtain accurate interpretations of and effective responses to situations, especially when the situations are novel, uncertain, or vague. In this study, green buildings are a relatively new concept, particularly in college sport programs. According to the NRDC’s (2013) report
on how campus sport is going green, only 24 collegiate sports venues had achieved LEED certification while twelve others had participated in the LEED certification process. It is reasonable to assume that green college sport venues are a novel issue for the majority of the college sport consumers. Likely, respondents did not have sufficient understanding of various requirements, potential benefits (economic, social, and ecological), and construction and maintenance advantages involved with green sport venues.

Another possible factor that contributed to the strong impact of social influence may be the immediate physical surroundings involving family and friends. Goldstein et al. (2008) conducted an experimental study that found the normative characteristics of an individual’s approximate setting were more influential than those of more general or distal settings. Therefore, it makes sense that social influence played such a critical role in determining one’s donation intention toward GSI, considering the level of uncertainty associated with the behavior object, norm salience, and physical proximity of important referent groups.

**Behavioral and Recognition Attitudes**

Surprisingly, this study found that donation attitude and recognition attitude were not relevant to intention to donate to GSI. Laitinen (2009) indicated that the need for recognition is part of human nature, and important for maintaining positive self-relationships such as self-esteem and self-respect. However, specific recognition relating to GSI donations may not be an important need, since pro-environmental behavior has not become a main focus of most people’s daily life or a significant part of college sports. With respect to donation attitude, respondents reported positive attitude, which was not correlated with their slightly negative donation intention. The discrepancy between donation attitude and intention may partially result from social desirability bias, reflecting normative pressures such as acceptance from the source or valued groups. Some researchers argue that when examining ethically-related issues, people tend to overemphasize the ethical concerns and reply with socially acceptable answers (e.g., Auger & Devinney, 2007; Carrigan & Attalla, 2001). Therefore, respondents may become more likely to report positive evaluation toward a pro-environmental behavior in a public setting, such as tailgating with family and friends in the current study. However, respondents were willing to convey their negative donation intention toward GSI. This may be because individuals are often influenced by their immediate social net (e.g., family and friends) to obtain interpretations of and responses to novel issues (Cialdini, 2001),
such as GSI. That means social factors may be more powerful than internal factors such as one’s own attitude in deterring intention to donate to GSI. According to the reported negative social influence, respondents probably believed that their important referent groups did not or would not donate to GSI; hence, they felt comfortable revealing their true resentment toward an ethical behavior in public. Also, respondents perceived neutral behavior control, suggesting a lack of confidence in their donation behavior, which may also increase the possibility of being influenced by external factors rather than internal factors.

Findings of this study showed that social influence and perceived behavior control were predictive of donation intention toward GSI, while donation attitude and recognition attitude were found to be irrelevant. These findings confirmed previous statements by Ajzen (1991, p. 188) that: “The relative importance of attitude, subjective norm, and perceived behavioral control in the prediction of intention is expected to vary across behaviors and situations”. Kollmuss and Agyeman (2002) indicated that factors determining pro-environmental behavior are so complex that developing a model with all possible factors might neither be realistic nor helpful. In the current study, approximately 71% of the variance in intention to give to GSI was accounted for by social influence and perceived behavior control, implying that the TPB was powerful in predicting the target behavior among the involved population.

**Conclusion**

Greening buildings are a significant approach for achieving environmental sustainability. Promoting the green building movement through higher education, especially their athletic programs, has the potential to be very effective. Successful fundraising to support green college sport venues could help stimulate its development. Findings of this study provide important implications for fundraising managers of college athletic departments. Social influence was the most powerful force in respondents’ donation intention toward an intercollegiate athletic department’s GSI. However, at the current stage, it seems like the majority of the respondents had perceived social pressure to not donate to GSI. To establish positive and strong norms toward the donating behavior among college sport consumers, it is important to communicate the idea that GSI is a responsible human activity to do. Previous research showed that traditional environmental campaigns heavily dependent on providing information had limited influence on behavior change, while community-based social marketing was proven to be
more useful (McKenzie-Mohr & Smith 1999). Community-based social marketing employs behavioral change tools drawn from social science research to encourage preferred behavior, including incentives, commitment, prompts, communication, removing barriers, and evaluation. Successful cases of community-based social marketing programs suggest that effective communication must be personal, targeted, attracting, easy to comprehend and remember, and delivered by a reliable source (McKenzie-Mohr & Smith 1999). Direct and personal interaction through ways such as bike patrol students and information booths in shopping centers may be effective. Fridge magnets, bookmarks or door hangers with interesting information can also be used to increase social norm and prompt the preferred behavior. The strategies previously mentioned are applicable in communicating GSI-related information. Modeling the preferred behavior could also be helpful to encourage behavior change. Some studies suggested that communicating a descriptive norm on how other people act in a given circumstance via written information can stimulate compliance of the target behavior (Parks, Sanna, & Berel, 2001; Schultz, 1999). Thus, with proper permission, publishing the names of people who participated in the preferred behavior or showing a person who is donating to GSI through TV, video, PowerPoint presentation, social media, or other outlets may also improve donation behavior.

Findings of this study also indicated that respondents perceived neutral behavior control, which was positively related to intention to donate to GSI. To increase the behavior control, strategies that can increase facilitating factors or remove barriers would be helpful based on the TPB and effective community-based social marketing programs. For instance, to strengthen respondents’ beliefs that GSI would have a significant environmental contribution, it may be convincing to provide successful stories from professional and other collegiate athletic programs. For example, by following green building guidelines, between 2006 and 2011, MLB’s Seattle Mariners reduce natural gas use by 60%, electricity use by 30% and water use by 25% (NRDC, 2012). It is also important to convey the message that individuals are a critical contributor to a significant number of environmental problems. For instance, in the United States, individuals are responsible for 32% of the nation’s annual greenhouse gas emissions (GHE), equal to almost 8% of global GHE (Vandenbergh & Steinemann, 2007). That was larger than emissions released by every other foreign country except China (Vandenbergh &
Steinemann, 2007). More importantly, people should be persuaded that individual behavior can make a significant difference. Many of the most troublesome and unsolved environmental problems depend on limiting individuals’ environmentally destructive choices (Johnson, 2009). Strengthened personal environmental responsibility and confidence could serve as effective facilitators to enhance individuals’ pro-environmental behavior, such as donating to GSI. Moreover, it would also be useful to offer incentives such as small gifts, coupons, prizes, and game tickets to increase the attractiveness of performing the preferred behavior.

This study had several limitations which offer opportunities for future research. One limitation was the self-reported survey approach employed to evaluate consumers’ beliefs, attitudes, and intentions associated with donating to GSI. Previous research demonstrated that people tend to respond with socially acceptable answers when examining ethical behaviors (e.g., Auger & Devinney, 2007; Carrigan & Attalla, 2001). In the current study, respondents’ positive donation attitude may partially result from social desirability bias; however, donation intention seemed to reflect respondents’ true reaction. Further research should try to apply techniques to detect and exclude respondents who gave biased answers. Additionally, this study only examined college football consumers’ reaction toward donating to GSI in one college athletic program, which had a long winning history and strong athletic tradition. Thus, findings of this study may only be generalized to college athletic programs with similar backgrounds. Future research investigating college sport programs at different levels (Division I, II and III) with diverse sports histories is suggested. Furthermore, since the present college athletic program and particularly its football program had been competitive and successful, consumers may have believed that the program had sufficient financial resources to cover the construction and maintenance expenses related to GSI, which may have contributed to their negative social influence and low donation intention toward GSI. Thus, future studies should include perceived financial status of the athletic program to better understand its correlation with perceived norms and donor intention. Additionally, experimental studies regarding the power of social influence on donation intention and behavior relating to GSI should be conducted to further understand the mechanisms behind the relationship. Moreover, green college sport venues are a novel issue for the majority of college sport consumers as well as researchers. It may contain some unique phenomena that have not
yet been identified or discussed in previous research. Therefore, qualitative approaches such as in-depth interviews are recommended to uncover potential, hidden information and complement the findings of the present study.
References


Application of Big Data on Professional Sport—A Study on Construction of Marketing Index for Chinese Professional Baseball League

Wen-Ing Chen

Affiliation: Associate Professor / Office of Physical Education / Aletheia University

Mailing Address: 32 Chen-Li Street. Tamsui. Taipei 25103 Taiwan R.O.C

Email: au4380@au.edu.tw

Tel: 886-2-2621-2121#1717
Abstract

The current study was to explore variables along with their practical marketing implications in constructing customer database for Chinese Professional Baseball League in order to implement marketing strategies and tactics by incorporating local and international experts’ opinions. Delphi technique was used for multiple data collections and analyses. Content validity was utilized in the present study. Various techniques, such as follow-up calls, were employed to ensure reliability in the current study. Furthermore, comparison between standard deviations of survey items collected in different rounds of data collection was utilized to ensure that experts reached an agreement. Moreover, the survey data collection was terminated and the report was prepared if there were more than 70% of the items revealing agreements among experts. In line with government’s promotion of sport industry, the current study was to engage in big data marketing in order to increase added value of the sport industry in Taiwan. The results of the current study was of great positive impact on Taiwanese spectator sport service industry. Two rounds of Delphi questionnaires were performed. The results established 23 items, 98% of which reached medium level of agreement. Both gender and purchasing tickets were the most important variable. More marketing implications were discussed.

Key words: big data marketing, database marketing, sport industry, sport marketing, professional sport Delphi technique
Introduction

Research findings have indicated that sport industry has played a critical role in terms of economic development in various developed countries (Forbes, 2016). The sport industry in the United States, Europe and Japan has been prosperous and continue to thrive (The Sport Market, 2016). In the era of globalization, Asian area has been playing a crucial part in terms of sport industry development. In the past, Taiwan was competitive in the sport manufacturing industry in the world, which in turn creates niches and advantage for Taiwanese sport merchandise manufacturers. However, sport service industry becomes increasingly important due to the fact that citizens are concerned more and more about health. Furthermore, central government in Taiwan has been promoting the upgrade of sport industry in order to bring sport service industry to the next level. Therefore, to improve value-added competitiveness of sport as a whole, sport service industry becomes one of the primary goals in the White Book on Sport Policy.

In the sport service industry, spectator sport, especially professional sport, is one of main target segments. Chinese Professional Baseball League (CPBL) has been through two decades since its establishment. CPBL once struggled due to the game-fixing scandals. As a result, all franchises in the CPBL were dedicated to attract more spectators by using various marketing strategies as well as tactics. Additionally, many domestic sport marketing researchers have made considerable efforts in order to improve their marketing performance. While traditional marketing skills may continue to work nowadays, information-oriented marketing tactics may be an alternative in the sport marketing domain, especially the concept of database marketing (Lewis, 2004). Database marketing has been extensively used to improve corporate’s performance. However, its application on sport industry is still in its infant stage in North America (Fielitz & Scott, 2003). The application of database marketing in sport service industry in Taiwan is also limited.

Kotler (2003) defined database marketing as the process of establishing beneficial relationship with customers, and analyzing customer database in order to reach customers and facilitate the transactions. In addition, Hughes (2001) argued that database marketing was to provide customers with attentive and customized services by analyzing customer database rather than offer discounts. As a result, customers would be offered appropriate services or products at appropriate times if corporates use database marketing very well.

While there are numerous studies focusing on database marketing in the field of business research, the application of database marketing in the domain of sport in Taiwan
is still scarce. It is worth noted that the marketing index developed in the US context may not be appropriate in the Asian or Taiwanese context. Whereas the marketing index developed in the US may not be applicable outside the US regions, it is still inspirational for Asian areas. Therefore, it warranted researchers to develop marketing index that is appropriate in the specific regions or countries, in Asian and in Taiwan specifically.

In order to comply with the policy of promoting sport service industry as well as to copy the success of database marketing from the international cases, this current study was to establish the marketing variables that are deemed reasonable to be collected in the customer database by incorporating the opinions from practitioners, scholars as well as government officials.
Review of Literature

Database marketing has been well researched in the business domain. Guadagni and Little (1983) analyzed customers’ purchase behavior utilizing customer database and random utility model. However, the application of database marketing in the field of sport management was found to be limited. This section consisted of empirical analysis of database marketing in the field of sport, descriptive review of database marketing in sport, and other practical cases that applied the concept of database marketing in sport.

The Application of Database Marketing in the Field of Sport Management

Chen, Stotlar and Lin (2009) predicted type of tickets purchased using a professional basketball franchise along with Multinomial Probit Model. They found out that the prediction rate was around 60%, and suggested that professional franchises can better predict fans’ ticket purchase behavior based on their purchase history. Similarly, Chen and Lin (2008) forecasted fans’ ticket purchase behavior with approximately 70% prediction rate utilizing customer database provided by NBA Denver Nuggets. In addition, Chen, Lin, and Stotlar (2006) analyzed whether or not fitness club members would renew their membership using logistic regression with a correct prediction rate of 82%, which in turn assisted the fitness club in developing effective marketing implication.

Descriptive Review of Database Marketing in Sport

Chen and Lin (2006) suggested the classifications as well as application algorithms of database marketing. Moreover, Chen (2009) pointed out the potential benefits, definitions and a number of issues associated with database marketing. Chen further discussed about how to improve ticket sales performance by introducing a variety of international cases.

Practical Cases that Applied the Concept of Database Marketing in Sport

King (2002) argued that numerous franchises in Major League Baseball (MLB), including Colorado Rockies, San Francisco Giants, and St. Louis Cardinals have successfully increase ticket sales using variable pricing strategy. Variable ticket pricing is defined as professional franchises charge different prices for different games based on the popularity of the opponent team and the game schedule in order to increase franchise ticket revenues.

Based on the preceding review of literature, the application of database marketing began around three decades ago. While it has been extensively applied in the business domain, it still needs efforts in the field of sport marketing, especially in the areas outside

165
the US. The cases listed in the present study revealed that there is a great potential to increase ticket sales by means of database marketing. Therefore, this current study was to figure out the marketing variables that may be helpful for developing marketing strategies and tactics for domestic spectator sport in Taiwan.

**Purposes of the Study**

The purposes of the study were as follows:

1. To reveal the marketing variables that need to be collected in the customer database for CPBL.
2. To provide practical marketing implication based on the marketing variables.
Methods

Delphi Technique

This study was conducted using Delphi Technique consisting of 2 domestic sport practitioners and 18 sport management scholars in Taiwan. The time span for the current study ranged from July 1, 2012 to September 15, 2012. Typically, Delphi Technique runs through the following procedures.

Stage 1: Experts were invited to give opinions independently and anonymously.
Stage 2: Compile the opinions from the first round and inform the experts of the results.
Stage 3: Experts were invited to give opinions based on the overall feedback provided by all the experts.
Stage 4: Repeat the process until agreement was reached.

Survey Designed

Interviews. Semi-structured interviews were performed in this study in order to elicit comprehensive experiences and opinions. Additionally, review of literature served another source for the indicators in the Delphi survey.

First-round Delphi survey. The first-round Delphi survey was generated from the results of interviews along with relevant review of literature. Five-point Likert scale was utilized with 1 referring to “strongly disagree” and 5 denoting “strongly agree.” Experts were invited not only to express their opinions based on their own perceptions but also to provide additional comments on each item if necessary.

Second-round Delphi survey. The second-round survey was conducted and distributed to the experts to invite opinions from experts based on the results of the first-round survey.

Validity and Reliability

Validity was ensured due to the fact that Delphi Technique was based on experts’ professional opinions, which involves content validity as well as expert validity. On the other hand, reliability was achieved by the following strategies including returned envelopes and follow-up contacts (by email or phone calls). Hence, validity and reliability of the present study were ensured.

Data Analysis

Mode and mean were used in the current research for central tendency of the opinions. On the contrary, quartile deviation and standard deviation were employed for discrepancy
of the opinions. For open-ended comments, similar ideas or concepts were synthesized for the next round of survey.

The items with mean value less than 2.5 were eliminated from the survey. The items with quartile deviation less than 1 were regraded to be reaching consensus. Furthermore, more than 70% of the items reaching consensus implied that the current round of survey was satisfactory.
Results of the First-Round Survey

Twenty surveys were distributed with 18 being collected. Table 1 revealed the details on the items that deserved revision or deletion.

Table 1 Revision or Deletion on the Items for the First-Round Survey

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Revision / Deletion</th>
<th>Detailed Descriptions</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Deletion</td>
<td>“Hobby/preference” were considered difficult to measure and recommended to be deleted.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>&quot;Marital status” were recommended to be deleted.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>&quot;Life Style” was deemed hard to operationalize and recommended to be deleted.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>“Type of Consumers (Light-, Medium-, and Heavy-Users)” were considered difficult to measure and recommended to be deleted. Additionally, it was similar to “purchase frequencies”</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>“Team Identification” was deemed difficult to measure and recommended to be deleted.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>“The Number of Tickets Purchased in a Single Occasion” was considered similar to “Type of Ticket Purchased” and recommended to be deleted.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>“Purchase Frequencies” was deemed similar to “Number of Attendance in a Year” and recommended to be deleted.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Revision</td>
<td>“The Level of Age” was revised as “Age”</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>“The Number of Children” was revised as “The Age of Children”</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>“Cell Phone” was revised as “Cell Phone Number”</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>“Ticket Price” was revised as “Average Ticket Prices Spent”</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>“Number of Games Attended” was revised as “Number of Games Attended on a Monthly Basis”</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Occasions of Tickets Purchased “Home Game/Non-Home Game/Holiday Game/All-Star Game/Play-Off Game/Daytime Game/Evening Game/Promotional Game”</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
New Items
1. “Monthly Payment on Leisure and Recreation”
2. “To Own a Smart Phone or Not”
3. “To Use Social Media or Not”
4. “To Purchase Baseball Sport Lottery”

Results of the Second-Round Survey

Results of the second-round survey indicated that 92% of the items scored greater than 4. In addition, the standard deviations of 70% of the items in the second round turned out to be less than those in the first-round, implying that the opinions have come to converge. Table 2 showed revisions in the second-round survey.

Table 2 Statistical Summary for the First and Second Round Delphi Survey

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Item</th>
<th>Second-Round</th>
<th>First-Round</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>M</td>
<td>SD</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gender</td>
<td>4.71</td>
<td>0.61</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Age</td>
<td>4.43</td>
<td>0.65</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Educational Background</td>
<td>4.07</td>
<td>0.83</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Occupation</td>
<td>4.07</td>
<td>1.07</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Monthly Disposable Income</td>
<td>4.07</td>
<td>1.07</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Monthly Expenditure on Sport/Leisure</td>
<td>4.36</td>
<td>0.84</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Current Address</td>
<td>4.36</td>
<td>0.74</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Convenience for Attending Sport Events</td>
<td>4.54</td>
<td>0.66</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Age of Child</td>
<td>3.21</td>
<td>1.12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Number of Family Members</td>
<td>3.57</td>
<td>1.22</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>E-Mail Address</td>
<td>3.71</td>
<td>1.27</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cell-Phone Number</td>
<td>3.36</td>
<td>1.60</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Whether Own A Smart Phone or Not</td>
<td>3.43</td>
<td>1.22</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>---</td>
<td>---</td>
<td>---</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14</td>
<td>Social Media User or Not</td>
<td>4.36</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15</td>
<td>Whether a Team Follower or Not</td>
<td>4.43</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16</td>
<td>How Long is it to be a Fan</td>
<td>4.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>17</td>
<td>Average Monthly Game Attendance</td>
<td>4.36</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18</td>
<td>Average Monthly Game Watching Via TV/Internet</td>
<td>4.36</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>19</td>
<td>Average Spending on Team Merchandise</td>
<td>4.50</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20</td>
<td>Average Ticket Price</td>
<td>4.31</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>21</td>
<td>Way of Purchasing Ticket “online/ box office”</td>
<td>4.57</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>22</td>
<td>Occasions of Tickets Purchased “Home Game/Non-Home Game/Holiday Game/All-Star Game/Play-Off Game/Daytime Game/Evening Game/Promotional Game”</td>
<td>4.14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>23</td>
<td>Whether Purchase Baseball Lottery</td>
<td>3.64</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note: M refers to mean; SD refers to standard deviation; QD stands for quartile deviation.
Discussion

The purpose of this study was to explore the indicators that were suggested to be included in the customer database when CPBL would like to obtain marketing information from the big data approach. After two rounds of Delphi technique process along with the relevant literature, the variables deemed necessary to be collected were listed in Table 2. The findings from this study not only serve a reference for spectator sport in Taiwan but also contributed to the academic literature in the field of sport management.

The results of this study provided marketing managers with a thorough guide for better understanding customers. Therefore, how to achieve more effective marketing performance by using the big data approach may be an alternative strategic thinking. Marketing implication of the current study as well as directions of future study was provided.

“Cell Phone Number” and “E-Mail Address” may serve basic contact information, implying that phone calls or text messages can be a way of disseminating marketing messages to the consumers. However, the rapidly developed new technology such as “Social Media” and “Smart Phone” may be more effective in terms of customer communications. Specifically, “Social Media” and “Smart Phone” may be aligned with certain APPs to implement interactive marketing campaigns since interactions and quick communications have become increasingly popular among consumers. CPBL and its franchises may meticulously plan on the contents of marketing information based on consumers’ APPs using habits.

Demographic variables such as “Gender,” “Age,” “Educational Background,” “Occupation,” “Monthly Disposable Income,” “Current Address,” “Age of Child,” “Convenience for Attending Sport Events” and “Number of Family Members” can be analyzed to generate marketing information. For example, “Gender” was viewed as a critical variable. Marketing practice may be used to attract the specific group of consumers, say male or female, by inviting popular celebrity to show up in the game. In addition, “Gender” may be cross-examined with “Current Address” to derive useful marketing information. Further data analysis on the category of demographic variables depends upon the franchise’s needs.

Furthermore, “Whether a Team Follower or Not” and “How Long is it to be a Fan” were two psychological characteristics associated with the CPBL and its franchises. These two variables were recommended to cross-analyzed with other categories to generate valid
information. For instance, valuable information such as “male spectators who follow a specific team and live in the northern Taiwan tend to spend more money on game attendance” may be obtained from the data analysis.

Finally, the final category focused on consumers’ sport consumption behavior including “Monthly Expenditure on Sport/Leisure,” “Average Monthly Game Attendance,” “Average Monthly Game Watching Via TV/Internet,” “Average Spending on Team Merchandise,” “Average Ticket Price,” “Way of Purchasing Ticket i.e., Online/Box Office,” “Occasions of Tickets Purchased i.e., Home Game/Non-Home Game/Holiday Game/All-Star Game/Play-Off Game/Daytime Game/Evening Game/Promotional Game,” and “Whether Purchase Baseball Sport Lottery.” More specifically, “Monthly Expenditure on Sport/Leisure” may be indicative of the likelihood for consumers to spend on game attendance. These variables were suggested to cross-analyzed with other type of variables in order to gain helpful marketing information.

One thing that warranted notion was that the results from the present study were exploratory in nature. Further examination with quantitative methods may be recommended. The variables listed in this study were far from comprehensive, indicating that updates on the variables was necessary based on the consumer behavior trend as well as the market trend. Future study was suggested to continue refining and revising the variables to extensively capture what should be included in the database for better marketing practices.
References


Chief Editor

Dr. KANG, Cheng-Nan – Taiwan

Professor and Director
Department of Athletic
National Taiwan University

Education
Graduate Institute of Physical Education
National Taiwan Sport University (Ph.D., 2013)

Academic experience
Deputy Chief Editor of ASMR (2012-2014)
Secretary General of TASSM (2010-2012)

Research interests
sports tournament management, sports and leisure marketing management
sports facility management
sports tournament management

E-mail: kang@ntu.edu.tw

Deputy Chief Editor

Dr. CHEN, Chen-Yueh – Taiwan

Professor
Graduate Institute of International Sport Affairs
National Taiwan Sport University

Education
Sport Management (Ph. D.)/ University of Northern Colorado
Applied Statistics (Ph. D.)/ University of Northern Colorado

Academic experience
Secretary General of TASSM (2012-)

Research interests
sports marketing management
sport management

E-mail: chenchenyueh@ntsu.edu.tw
### Deputy Chief Editor

**Dr. Issadee KUTINTARA**  – Thailand

**Associate Professor**  
Faculty of Sport Science  
Kassesart University

**Education**  
School of Kinesiology  
University of Northern Colorado

**Academic experience**  
- Deputy Chief Editor of ASMR (2012-2014)  
- Deputy Secretary General (2014-2016)

**Research interests**  
sports marketing  
sport event management

**Email:** issadee@gmail.com

### Deputy Chief Editor

**Dr. Hirotaka MATSUOKA**  – Japan

**Professor**  
Faculty of Sport Science  
Waseda University

**Education**  
Sport Management (Ph. D.)  
School of Physical Activity and Educational Services  
The Ohio State University

**Academic experience**  
- Deputy Chief Editor of ASMR (2014-)

**Research interests**  
sports marketing  
sports consume behavior

**Email:** matsuoka-hiro@waseda.jp
## Editor Assistant

**Ms. CHOU, Yi-Ru**  – Taiwan

| **Graduate Student** | Master Program of International Sport Affairs  
National Taiwan Sport University |
|----------------------|-----------------------------------------------------------------|

**Education**  
Master Program of International Sport Affairs  
National Taiwan Sport University

**Academic experience**  
Secretariat Assistant of AASM (2015- )

**Email**: 1041505@ntsu.edu.tw
CALL FOR PAPERS

Asian Sport Management Review is to map, connect, and exchange the experiences, knowledge and wisdom of sport management intra-Asia and internationally. It will be published one issue every 6 months by electrical forms. Papers resources come from at least one paper a year in each AASM country member. Papers are collected and reviewed by the representative of each country, the name list and connect e-mail were in the last. The papers submitted should be written in English following APA format and served by .doc file in Word. The construct of contents included Title, Author(s) and title(s), organization(s), Abstract with keywords, Introduction, Rationale, Findings, Discussions, Conclusions and suggestions, and References. We look forward to your involvement to promote the Asian researching prosperity.

Please submit your papers to the representative of your country for the 12th edition and send back to Mr. KANG, Cheng-Nan < kang@ntu.edu.tw > from each country representative. We look forward to your involvement to promote the Asian researching prosperity.

The Connecting Information of the Representatives

Taiwan Kong-Ting YEH tingpower@gmail.com
Japan Etsuko OGASAWARA etsukojws@gmail.com
Korea Hyungil Harry KWON hkwon@cau.ac.kr
Thailand Chai NIMAKORN chainimakorn@yahoo.com
Malaysia Wirdati RADZI wirdati@gmail.com
Vietnam Quang-Thanh LAM lamquangthanh@hcm.vnn.vn
Philippine Geraldine GO-BERNARDO Geraldine_bernardo@yahoo.com
Mongolia Oyunbat Nasanbat oyunbeijing@yahoo.com

Edition Committee

Coordinators: Dr. KANG, Cheng-Nan (Taiwan) < kang@ntu.edu.tw >
Dr. CHEN, Chen-Yueh (Taiwan) < chenchenyueh@ntsu.edu.tw>

************************************************************************
Asian Sport Management Review
Volume 11 / August / 2016

************************************************************************

Publisher: TASSM associated with AASM
ISSN: 19994109
Address: Rm. 5211, SHIH-CHIEN Building, No.16, Sec. 4, Jhongshan N. Rd., Jhongshan District, Taipei City, Taiwan (R.O.C.)
Tel: +886-2-2886-1261 +886-2-2886-1262
Fax: +886-2-2886-1255
E-mail: tassm.org@msa.hinet.net
Website: http://www.tassm.org

Copyright © 2014 Taiwan Society for Sport Management (TASSM). All rights reserved. No part of this publication may be reproduced, stored, transmitted, or disseminated, in any form, or by any means, without prior written permission from TASSM, to whom all requests to reproduce copyright material should be directed, in writing.

All the researches could be also derived from CEPS (Chinese Electronic Periodical Services)

179