Motivation for sport spectating among the Taiwanese people

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MOTIVATION FOR SPORT SPECTATING AMONG THE TAIWANESE PEOPLE

by

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Bachelor of Art
Providence University, Taiwan
1996

Master of Science
University of Nevada, Las Vegas
1999

A thesis submitted in partial fulfillment
of the requirements for the

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ABSTRACT

Motivation for Sport Spectating among the Taiwanese People

by

Ching-ching Hsu

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The purpose of this research was to examine the motivation for sport spectatorship among Taiwanese people. Seven sport spectating motivation factors that have been found in U. S. studies to be involved in sport spectatorship (self-esteem, entertainment, eustress, aesthetic, escape, group-affiliation, and family-togetherness) were examined. In addition, this study looked at the differences in spectating motivation between Taiwanese males and females. Surveys were administrated to 188 Taiwanese people. ANOVA and MANOVA analyses were conducted to examine spectator motivations and differences between males and females. The results indicated that some factors were more descriptive of the sport spectating motivation of Taiwanese people than others, and that there were differences between males and females.
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CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

Zillmann and Paulus (1993) point out that "The symbiosis of athletic performance and spectatorship must have existed since the inception of sports as a social phenomenon" (p. 600). Since the sporting activity is unscripted and live, dramatic things may happen at any moment (Wenner, 1989). Sport spectatorship meets a variety of needs rather than simply relieving boredom (Gantz, 1981). In fact, sports spectatorship serves as a significant element in many people's leisure time.

Particularly, advertisers have been recognizing the appeal of sporting events. Sponsors use sporting activities that draw a large number of spectators as a vehicle for reaching consumers with their products and brand names. Teams generate a large revenue from ticket sales to spectators. Without the spectators, sponsors would cease to pay for sport-related advertising because there would be no one for the sponsor's brand names and products to reach. Professional teams could not survive losing these ticket sales. Sport spectators play an essential role in providing the financial support that allows the games to exist.

Sport spectating is motivated by a variety of factors. The reasons spectators go to the games or watch them on television may be associated with the needs of seeking group
interaction (Sloan, 1989; Zillmann, Bryant, & Sapolsky, 1989; Melnick, 1993; Easterman & Riggs, 1994), seeing the best performers of a skill (Guttmann, 1986; Smith, 1988), being entertained (Guttmann, 1986; Smith, 1988), bolstering self-esteem (Cialdini et al., 1976; Branscombe & Wann, 1991; Zillmann & Paulus, 1993), being stimulated and stressed (Sloan, 1989), escaping from the realities of life (Smith et al., 1981; Smith, 1988), and spending time with their families (Gantz, 1981; Guttmann, 1986).

**General Theoretical Framework**

Due to the lack of studies regarding the sports spectatorship of Taiwanese, the theories of sports spectatorship discussed in this paper will be drawn from the studies in the U. S. In the United States, several researchers have proposed theories as to why sports spectators are interested in attending sporting events, and watching televised sports. Seven theories of sports spectatorship will be discussed: (a) people’s need for seeking group interaction, (b) seeing the best performers of a skill, (c) bolstering their self-esteem, (d) the need for them to be stimulated and stressed, (e) escaping from the realities of life, (f) people’s need for entertainment, and (g) spending time with their families.

Studies conducted in the U. S. indicate there may be gender differences in sport spectator motivation (Gantz, 1981; Gantz & Wenner, 1991; Sullivan, 1991). Although gender differences may be more pronounced in Taiwan (Chia, 1995), no studies have directly investigated gender differences in sport spectator motivation among Taiwanese. Taiwan culture still emphasizes the feminine gender role for women, and Taiwanese girls...
are taught to conform to the gender role (Chia et al., 1995). Consequently, many Taiwanese women still associate specific, prescribed behaviors with the feminine role (Crittenden, 1991). Some researchers believe that one consequence of gender-role socialization is that females and males are likely to have different perceptions of self and activities (e.g., Eccles et al., 1990; Bussey & Bandura, 1992), which have impacted the sports participation of the two genders (e.g., Block, 1984; Basow, 1992; Gill, 1994; Hargreaves, 1994; Burn, 1996). And it is also believed by researchers that sports participation influences sports spectatorship (Gantz & Wenner, 1991). Therefore, theories regarding gender-differentiated socialization which may contribute to different gender-differentiated sport spectator motivation in Western and Chinese cultures will be addressed in this paper.

**Need for the Study**

Taiwan, Republic of China, is making efforts to upgrade the performance of its professional sport teams, as well as promote people's participation in sporting events, for the purposes of national prestige, people's health, and economic growth. To promote health, sports are encouraged both in school and at the adult level. Physical courses are given in primary and secondary schools and in colleges. The government also supports amateur sports. The first professional league, Chinese Baseball League, was formed in Taiwan in 1990 (Central Daily News, 1998). Due to the short history of professional sports in Taiwan, few studies focusing on sports spectatorship have been conducted. Nonetheless, sports spectatorship is growing in Taiwan. Research is needed to explore
why people attend sporting events or watch them on television. This information will provide insight into a growing social phenomenon, as well as provide managers with the information necessary to promote spectatorship.

Sports spectatorship is one of the major financial reasons for sporting events to take place. Without the spectators, the professional leagues would cease to exist. Television, radio, and the print media related to sport would also be greatly affected. Sponsors would stop paying for advertising related to sport if no one was interested in watching sports. Sport programming on television and radio would be drastically reduced. Without the fans, a large portion of sport would cease to exist. Probably amateur athletics would continue, but on a much smaller scale.

Purpose of the study

This paper will explore the sport spectating motivations of the Taiwanese people and differences in sport spectating motivation between males and females in Taiwan.

Research Questions

The following questions will be investigated in this study:

1. What is the motivation for sport spectating among the Taiwanese people?
2. What are the differences in overall sport spectator motivation for different age group?
3. What are the differences in overall sport spectating motivation based upon different education levels?
4. What are the differences between Taiwanese males and females in motivation towards
sport spectating?
CHAPTER 2

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

Overview of Taiwan

Taiwan, just 90 miles away from Mainland China, is a powerful economic island in Asia. Most of the current populations are descended from those Chinese who emigrated from the Chinese mainland's southern provinces before 1885, when Taiwan officially became a province of China. Although these people originally came from China, they are known as Taiwanese, as distinct from the Mainlanders who came from the China mainland from 1947 to 1949. The Taiwanese represent about 80 percent of the population in Taiwan while the Mainlanders represent less than 20 percent of the population (Taiwan, 1984).

When it became clear that the Chinese Communists would defeat the Nationalists in the civil war of 1947, Chiang Kai-shek and two million members of his loyal military, political, and commercial elite fled to Taiwan to establish what they claimed to be the true government of the Republic of China (Taiwan, 1984). Since then the Mainlanders have dominated Taiwan’s political elite. It was Chiang Kai-shek’s death in 1975, and the political liberation of the late 1980s and early 1990s, that have allowed the native
Taiwanese to take up their rightful place within the elite of Taiwan (Taiwan, 1984).

Since 1949, when China essentially split into Mainland China and Taiwan, different political and social changes have taken place in both nations, leading to two very different societies today. Taiwan has strong ties with the United States, and the national policy has been to model the United States and move Taiwan from an agriculture country toward democratization, industrialization and capitalism (Chia, Allred, & Jerzak, 1997).

Sport-Related History of Taiwan

Before Western influences entered China, traditional Chinese education stressed that educated gentlemen should be well learned in both literary and martial arts. Great emphasis was placed on this ideal so that the scholar could pursue literary studies during times of peace, and defend the country during times of war (Blower, 1996). Consequently, the martial arts provided excellent physical training. In contrast, the traditional Chinese culture emphasizes the idea that well-mannered ladies are not active and have no social contact with people other than their families (Bond, 1996). Traditional Chinese culture forbids Chinese women from participating in any athletic activities.

Before the introduction of Western sports, there was little emphasis on competitive games in China. However, the Chinese soon took to the sports and competitions introduced from the West at the end of the 19th century (Chang et al., 1983). These sports, such as soccer, baseball, and basketball become very popular in
Taiwan.

In particular, baseball is identified as being the epitome of the Taiwanese people's struggle against the pressure from the People's Republic of China (P.R.C.) (Central Daily News, 1998). Since the entry of P.R.C. into the United Nations in 1971, Taiwan's position in international affairs (except for the international economy) has been severely eroded as, one by one, the P. R. C. has taken over Taiwan's seat in international organizations and agencies (Chang et al., 1983). When the 1976 Olympic Games were held in Montreal, Canada, Taiwan sent a large team. However, the athletes withdrew from the games because Canada refused to allow them to compete under their national flag and national title because of the objection of P. R. C. (Chang et al., 1983).

The baseball fever of the Taiwanese people was aroused by the excellent performance of the China Baseball Team from Taiwan in the world-level baseball contests in the 1970's (Central Daily News, 1998). The achievement of the team not only demonstrated their power and competitive performance to the world, but also remedied the civilians' disappointment in Taiwan's position in international affairs (Central Daily News, 1998).

The baseball fever, indeed, helped to facilitate sports spectatorship in Taiwan. However, sporting events in Taiwan have not been commercialized as they have been in the U. S. Only three professional leagues were formed in Taiwan in the past ten years, including two baseball leagues, CBL (Chinese Baseball League) and TBL (Taiwan Baseball League) and one basketball league, CBA (Chinese Basketball Association). Therefore, the professional sports in the U. S., such as basketball and football, and
international games, such as the Olympic Games, and Australian Opens, are broadcast to meet the needs of sports fans in Taiwan.

Unfortunately, an incident occurred in early 1997 that hurt the development of professional sport in Taiwan. Teams that belonged to the first baseball league in Taiwan, the Chinese Baseball League, shaved points (Central Daily News, 1997). In order to control the outcomes of the games, the mob in Taiwan threatened and bribed the players not to do their best in the games. Taiwanese fans lost their faith in the CBL. The damage to the image of the CBL and the fast drop in attendance for the games were two predictable consequences due to the scandal. The resurrection of baseball fever and the recovery of the image of baseball require greater knowledge of sports spectatorship.

For the purpose of understanding sports spectatorship in Taiwan, theories of Chinese children’s socialization related to sports participation and spectatorship are discussed.

Chinese Childhood Socialization

LeVin (1982) argues that traditional values and practices in the socialization process will persist. Although materialism, as well as the importation of foreign ideas and values, are eroding both Taiwanese and Chinese values, Taiwan’s culture still reflects the mass education and the media which emphasize Chinese cultural values (Yang, 1996). High-school and college students have to learn to read ancient Chinese articles and Confucius philosophy. Hence, the legacy of these Confucian teachings on childhood socialization still carries significant weight in contemporary Chinese society.
In Chinese culture, achievement motivation tends to be socially oriented which means that standards of excellence are often externally given by parents or society (Blower, 1996). Moreover, Taiwanese children's socialization continues to focus on Chinese traditional values such as learning skills and achievement in school (Burton, 1986; Chen & Utal, 1988; Chalip & Stigler, 1986; Lummis & Stevenson, 1990; Steveson, 1987, 1992; Winner, 1989). Parents usually expect their children to have academic achievement. However, entrance to higher education is competitive and the academic standards at prestigious high schools and universities in Taiwan are even higher. Therefore, the academic requirement is often stressful for Taiwanese children and adolescents (Bond, 1996).

In addition, children in Taiwan are taught by parents and teachers to conform to socially desirable or culturally approved behaviors, while children in Western societies are taught to value independence and individualism (King & Bond, 1985). Tetlock (1981) suggested that individuals try to achieve the goals valued by their culture in order to get social approval. In Taiwan, parental values and expectations which emphasize conformity to social norms produce stress for individuals who have personal desires or inclinations that do not match those norms.

Childhood socialization, how parents rear their children and how children learn to become acceptable members of a society, is perhaps the most conservative or persistent part of a culture (Wu, 1996). Chinese parents, including Taiwanese, traditionally stress their authority over their children and expect unquestioning obedience from them (Chiu, 1987). As a result, Taiwanese children are to be highly-disciplined on behaviors (Chiu,
1987), and to be cooperative in a group (Chiu, 1987, 1989).

In addition, traditional Chinese culture places a high value on modesty, humility and the maintenance of social relationships (Crittenden, 1991). As a result of a 40-country comparison of cultural values, Hofstede (1980) has characterized Taiwan as a collectivist culture and the United States as individualist. The dimension of individualism versus collectivism reflects cultural values concerning the relationship between the individual and the group (Hofstede, 1980).

Individual-orientation is the “permissibility of an actor’s pursuing any interest private to himself” or to a small in-group, whereas collectivity-orientation refers to the actor’s obligation to pursue “the common interests of the collectivity” (Parson, 1951). A collectivist culture, such as Taiwan, emphasizes the value that places social harmony above individual initiative (Bond, Leung, & Wan, 1982). In addition, Taiwanese people have a strong need to have social contacts with people (Crittenden, 1991).

Parental roles and attitudes toward child rearing make a significant impact on the personality development of the child. Particularly, the Confucian tradition still can be seen clearly in the realm of parents-child interaction. This influence is well captured in the Chinese proverb “strict father, kind mother” (Ho, 1987). In traditional Chinese societies males were expected to behave as males, and females as females (Ho, 1989) with unambiguous sex-role differentiation. And the idea of females and males behaving according to sex-role norms is enforced by strong social sanctions. Researchers found that in kindergartens and elementary schools, Taiwanese children were found to have pronounced gender-role differentiation (e.g., Lummis & Stevenson, 1990; Wang &
Xreedon, 1989). This differentiation begins in early childhood and continues into adulthood (Ho, 1989).

**Gender-differentiated Socialization**

In order to understand the impact of gender-role socialization in Taiwanese culture, it’s important to understand gender-differentiated socialization in general. Gender is one of the fundamental dimensions along which children and adults organize the world (Bem, 1993). Sex typing begins very early in childhood, perhaps even before the age of two (Bauer, 1993). Children clearly identify themselves as female or male by age three (Burn, 1996). Besides, adults often encourage gender identification by frequently referring to the child’s gender and by saying to children “girls/boys do/don’t do this” (Burn, 1996, p. 11).

Even before elementary school, children demonstrate considerable knowledge of sex-typing of toys, clothing, activities, objects, and occupations (Serbin et al., 1993). Once the children note that there are differences between males and females, the children typically model themselves after same-sex models of behaviors. This is called differential modeling (Bandura, 1977).

Although children watch and learn from adults of both genders (Maccoby & Jacklin, 1974), research indicates they are more likely to perform gender-appropriate behaviors (Martin & Halverson, 1981). They grow up seeing women and men do appropriate behaviors according to gender norms and observing other people being punished or rewarded for what they do. Children also observe the frequencies with which
males and females perform certain behaviors and then use these as a guide to their own behavior (Perry & Bussey, 1979).

The concept of differential modeling can also be used to explain why more males than females watch sports. Sports typically incorporated the ideals of aggressiveness, competitiveness, and strength which are the values normally associated with masculinity in our society (King & Chi, 1979). While all sports are not viewed as masculine, mediated sport may highlight those ideas by broadcasting those sports labeled as masculine more frequently than those are labeled as not masculine (Gantz & Wenner, 1991). Moreover, along with action-adventure and suspense programs, men prefer watching sport while women would rather watch general drama, situation comedies, variety shows, and soap operas (Frank & Greenberg, 1980). Men more frequently watch sports at home than women do. Women are more likely to watch televised sports as a last resort (Gantz, 1981).

Most sports spectating behavior happens at homes (Gantz, 1981; Gantz & Wenner, 1991). Consequently, children observe that men more often watch sports than women, and associate watching sports labeled as masculine with masculinity. Therefore, gender-differentiated modeling contributes to the finding that females do not watch sports as frequently as men do.

Furthermore, parents and peers are significant agents to children in enforcing the appropriate behaviors according to gender. The former are more likely to make the children conform to the appropriate gender-role behaviors through rewards and the latter are more likely to make it through sanctions (Langolis & Downs, 1980).
Parental rearing has a global impact on the gender-role socialization of children. According to Lips (1989) "Perhaps because it is one of the earliest distinguishing pieces of information available about a child, gender appears to be an important dimension of socialization for parents in virtually every cultural, ethnic, and class group" (p. 197). Parents provide their daughters and sons with different kinds of toys, games, and environmental surroundings (Bradbard, 1985). Parents also have different attitudes towards boys and girls in child-rearing. For example, Perry et al. (1989) found that boys expected less parental disapproval for aggression than did girls.

Children’s toys also appear to play an important role in differential socialization. The different toys and play activities parents encourage for girls and boys influence not only children’s perceptions of what activities are appropriate for females and males, but also the problem solving, and social skills these children develop (Lips, 1989). In contrast to girls’ toys and games which typically aid in the development of expressive skills and cooperativeness, boys’ toys and games are more likely to encourage inventiveness, help develop skills that promote abilities relevant to the development of spatial abilities, and promote progressive attitudes, independence, competition, and leadership skills (Miller, 1987).

Particularly, Eccles and her colleagues (1990) suggested that sixth graders’ participation in sports is mediated by the adolescents’ confidence in their athletic ability and in the value they attach to athletic activities. However, parents who hold gender-differentiated expectations may distort their perceptions of their own children in gender-role stereotypic activities such as math and sports. Their expectations influence the
children’s own self- and task-perceptions and activity choices (Eccles et al., 1990). These perceptions of appropriate behavior lead, for example, to differential socialization of girls and boys into sports and the view that participation in athletics is often considered to be incompatible with the feminine role. For example, female athletes are evaluated by both men and women as farthest from subjects’ image of the ideal women (Griffin, 1973).

It has been reported that sex-typed subjects do resist sex-inappropriate activity for gender-related reasons and have feelings of discomfort when they actually do perform cross-sex activities (e.g., Bem, 1975; Bem & Lenney, 1976; Bem, Martyna, & Watson, 1976; Matteo, 1986). It has also been suggested that this avoidance could be due to a motivation to maintain a self-image as masculine or feminine according to the cultural norms of masculinity and femininity (e.g., Kohlberg, 1966).

Public attitudes toward gender roles may create “descriptive and injunctive norms” for the behavior of females and males (Burn, 1996, p. 3). These different sets of norms for male and female are operative beyond childhood and even adults tend to conform to these expectation in order to avoid social rejection (Burn, 1996). Violating such norms may produce anxiety and fear of sanctions from others. If the norms become internalized, their violation may even produce feeling of guilt (Russo, 1997). Stereotypic attitudes about gender have implications for a very wide range of behaviors. For example, social, educational, and vocational goals have shown to be affected by sex typing (Eccles, Wigfield, Harold, & Blumenfeld, 1993).

Gender-role attitudes have also been found to affect children’s decision making (Martin, 1989) and the development of personal interests and skills (Bussey & Bendura,
1992). In addition, gender is thought to form an aspect of self-identity and to influence many behaviors specifically relevant to the self, including the processing of self-relevant information (Bem, 1993), and self-esteem (Block & Robins, 1993).

Smith (1982) suggested that people rely heavily on social information to increase their knowledge about themselves and the world and to gain information about appropriate attitudes regarding social issues. In other words, an individual determines what is correct by finding out what other people think is correct. In regard to gender roles, when society perceives that men and women acting differently and the media emphasizes how different men and women are, children assume it is so and conform to these expectations.

Attitudes Toward Women in Taiwan

In modern times, women worldwide have a lower status than men (Basow, 1992). In a culture with a much longer history than the U. S., such as Chinese culture, male dominance is even more firmly entrenched (Hofstede, 1980; Lee, 1984). Chinese women have a long history of being submissive and obedient to the men in their lives: father, then husband, then son. This perspective is well captured in the old Chinese proverbs “Girls should always obey their father. Married women should obey their husbands. Widows should obey their sons.” In traditional Chinese culture they also have been perceived as housebound, submissive, second-class citizens (Chia, Allred, & Jerzak, 1997).

This view is not unique among countries in the world, but it is further emphasized
in Chinese culture through Confucian doctrines. For example, in the Analects, Confucius clearly said: “There are two types of people that cannot be cultivated: women, and men of little consequence.” Confucius’s moral evaluation of women is clearly expressed in the equation between women and “men of little consequence” or the “mean men.” (Zhang, 1995). There are also Confucian doctrines as “The virtue of a woman lies in the three obedience: obedience to the father, husband, and son”, and “The virtue of women lies in the lack of talent.”

Fortunately, with the onset of trade with the west, western civilization, lifestyles, and values have also been introduced to the Chinese. In Taiwan, rapid westernized industrialization in the last thirty years has made it the economic miracle and showcase of Southeast Asia (Ogden, 1995). Taiwan’s chief trading partner is the U. S. Taiwan also sends a large number of its college age students to the U. S. for advanced study. Consequently, many new societal orders are modeled after those of the U. S. (Ogden, 1995), not only at the basic physical level of housing, clothing, and food habits, but the personal level of basic attitudes and values.

As a result of the modernization of Taiwan, many social, structural, and attitudinal changes followed. One change that frequently follows modernization is the acceptance of more equalized gender status. However, since Taiwanese people are still socialized into the conservative Chinese values and culture, Taiwanese people hold less liberal attitudes towards women than American people (Chia, 1995). Chia and her colleagues (1995) also indicated that the Taiwanese people still have less liberal attitudes about gender-role norms for women as compared to Taiwanese men. Thus, Taiwanese women mostly
participate in the activities which are stereotypically labeled as feminine ones in order to conform to the feminine gender role.

In addition, the exposure to sex-stereotyped books could also contribute to an increase in children's sex-typed play behavior (Ashton, 1983). The education system in Taiwan reflects the patriotic values that persist in Chinese society. Primary and secondary school textbooks constantly portray stereotypical gender roles and convey male-centered messages (Awakening Foundation, 1988; Ou, 1985). For instance, out of twelve volumes of elementary school social studies textbooks, 97.97 percent of the characters presented are males who play a wide variety of roles (Hsieh, 1994). The female characters portrayed in the textbook are basically mothers and housewives (Hsieh, 1994). Working women are primarily designated as “household keepers.” In addition, two fictional figures in the textbook include the only queen in Chinese history who is described negatively, and one revolutionary heroine (Awakening Foundation, 1988).

Moreover, the gender socialization process makes gender-typed women (those who conform to gender stereotypes) perceive sports as incompatible with the feminine role (Colley, 1987), and resist gender-inappropriate activity (Koivula, 1995). Hence, the idea of conformity to the feminine gender role discourages Taiwanese women from participating in activities which are labeled as nonfeminine and inappropriate, such as sports.

Summary

Since China split into Mainland China and Taiwan, the two societies have become
very different politically, economically, and socially. In the past thirty years, Taiwan has been rapidly civilized, westernized, and industrialized (Taiwan, 1984). However, many traditional Chinese values still persist in Taiwan (Taiwan, 1984). The emphasis on gender-role differentiation, and social harmony in the traditional Chinese values are expected to influence Taiwanese people’s sports spectating behavior. Particularly, gender-role beliefs impact the self- and task-perception of Taiwanese women. Hence, the activities labeled as masculine, such as sports, may be resisted by Taiwanese women in order to conform to the gender norm and maintain their self-image as feminine.

Although little research has been conducted on gender differences in sport spectator motivation or the motivations of the Taiwanese people, general theories of sport spectating motivation have been proposed. For the purpose of understanding the sports spectating behavior of Taiwanese people as a whole, the theories concerning spectating motivation are discussed. These seven theories are associated with the needs of seeking group interaction (Sloan, 1989; Zillmann, Bryant, & Sapolsky, 1989; Melnick, 1993; Easterman & Riggs, 1994), seeing the best performers of a skill (Guttmann, 1986; Smith, 1988), bolstering their self-esteem (Cialdini et al., 1976; Branscombe & Wann, 1991; Zillmann & Paulus, 1993), being stimulated and stressed (Sloan, 1989), being entertained (Guttmann, 1986; Smith, 1988), escaping from the realities of life (Smith et al., 1981; Smith, 1988), and being together with their families (Gantz, 1981; Guttmann, 1986). Although there is overlap between these seven theories, they will be discussed separately in this paper.
Spectator Motivation

Sport Spectatorship and Group Interaction

William McDougall (1908) discusses the existence of a gregarious instinct in humans and suggests that a reason for people attending sporting events is social contacts provided by the crowd itself. Some researchers who have studied crowd behavior (Mann & Pearce, 1978; Mehrabian, 1976; Sloan, 1979) note the strong attraction of people for the company of others who share similar interests. Moreover, the attendance of sports spectators is viewed by Mehrabian (1976) as “conducive to socializing; it may lead to the development of the new friendships or the renewal or intensification of old ones” (p. 284).

In fact, sporting contests provide an excellent opportunity for people to get together and share a common interest (Smith, 1988). Furthermore, sports fans can socially interact with other fans even though they may be strangers and of different social status. The equal conversations with other fans after the contest also fulfill the need for humans to interact with other people. Sports may contribute to social harmony because it brings people together to share the same interest.

In addition, sport provides an obvious topic of conversation for people. People watch the games, read about them in newspapers and magazines, and talk about them. When people talk about sport, they may appear to be arguing, but they are often having fun (Lever, 1983). Smith et al. (1981) found that 81 percent of their sample reported an improved quality of life because they were sport fans, mostly because they could
socialize with friends.

In particular, an individual’s favored sports team provides ties with the larger social structure and a sense of belongingness (Branscombe & Wann, 1991). As a result of industrialization, geographic mobility, and urbanization, many traditional and social ties have declined. Sports spectatorship provides individuals with “something grander than themselves” that they can feel a part of, without requiring any special skills, knowledge, or acceptance of particular institutional values (Branscombe & Wann, 1991). Hence, sport team identification serves as a supplement of traditional family and community-based attachments to the larger social structure.

Further support for this idea comes from Melnick (1993) who proposes “Sportfanship . . . enriches their social psychological lives by helping them experience the pure sociability, quasi-intimate relationships, and sense of belonging that are indigenous to the stands” (p. 46). People’s identification with a group of fans and the teams is even more important now because many social ties are weaker than they were in the past.

Sapolsky and Zillmann (1978) suggested that under different social conditions, viewers get different degrees of enjoyment from a televised sports. They also suggested five effects of the presence of others in viewing sports.

1. The presence of others creates a transformed state of mind;
2. The presence of others facilitates individual’s expression of affect, and this is a result of the expression of affect in others which raises the individual’s emotionality to a higher level;
3. In the presence of others, the individual tends to be highly susceptible to suggestions;

4. Enjoyment or disappointment exhibited by others might result in more intensive affect reactions;

5. The presence of others serves as a source of arousal which facilitates socialization.

It is commonly believed that watching sports alone is less enjoyable than watching it with friends or in the cheering crowd. However, most sports spectating behavior still happens at home (Gantz, 1981; Gantz & Wenner, 1991). Watching televised sports at home may still serve as an approach to social contacts by providing athletic-related information for fans to talk about with others, and feelings of being a part of an extended, collective group.

**Sport Spectatorship and Family Togetherness**

A motive which is similar to the group interaction motivation for sport spectating is to spend time with family members (Gantz, 1981; Guttmann, 1986). It is suggested that women are more likely than men to work on house chores (Gantz & Wenner, 1991) and be with families (Gantz, 1981; Guttmann, 1986; Gantz & Wenner, 1991) while watching sports on television. In particular, Gantz and Wenner (1991) reported that women are more likely than men to watch sports because their families do so.

**Sport Spectatorship and Self-esteem**

Sport spectators are curious about who will win, and feel better as a result of their favorite players’ or teams’ winning. Wenner (1989) suggested that the strongest motivation is the spectator’s desire to watch their favorite team’s victory. Fans obviously
fulfill themselves through the victory of their favorite team (Cialdini, 1989). Because spectators are strongly identified with their favorite team, they perceive sport as symbolically representing themselves (Guttmann, 1986). People evaluate the fans who associate with the winning team more positively (Heider, 1958).

Most scholars who cite self-esteem enhancement as a reason for people to become sport fans believe that fans who identify themselves with a specific team take the team’s victories and defeats as personal successes and failures (Cialdini et al., 1976). The deeper the identification, the more the team’s successes or failures will impact the individual (Sloan, 1989; Branscombe & Wann, 1991; Magrigal, 1995).

Fans’ identification with the team causes the fans to experience very positive emotions with a win and negative emotions with a loss (Wann, Dolan, McGeorge, & Allison, 1994) because the team may represent a perceived extension of themselves (Sloan, 1989). Eastman and Riggs (1994) also found that the identification with a team greatly affected fans’ moods.

Identification with a team will foster a sense of attachment among highly allegiant individuals. And this sense of belongingness will, in turn, result in increased feelings of self worth when the team wins. That is, identified persons perceive the team as part of their social identity. These feelings of belongingness and bonding result in increased feelings of self worth (Branscombe & Wann, 1991), and self-esteem (Brewer, 1979; Oakes & Turner, 1980; Turner 1975).

In addition, highly identified fans, compared to those who are less allegiant, feel a sense of bonding with other fans of that team (Wann & Branscomb, 1990). Such
bonding may intensify as a result of sharing the victories and defeats of the team, as well as by the feeling of belongingness gained through interactions with other fans (Branscombe & Wann, 1991). Consequently, Branscombe and Wann (1991) found that highly identified fans displayed higher levels of self-esteem and felt more positive emotionally. They also found that fans highly identified with a team or teams were less likely to suffer negative emotional feelings.

However, for those who strongly identify themselves with their favorite team, esteem and identification threats may follow the failure of the team. In particular, some high-identified persons cannot distance themselves from the failure of the team they support. Fair-weather fans or those who weakly identify with the team show the strongest tendency to distance themselves from failures (Wann & Branscombe, 1990).

Furthermore, sportsmanship serves the functions of self-presentation or image management. Individuals may enhance their self-esteem through associations with successful teams (Cialdini et al., 1976; Cialdini & Den Nicholas, 1989). Zillmann and Paulus (1995) suggested that individuals in need of enhancing their public image may accomplish this by associating themselves with successful others, such as successful athletes and successful athletic teams.

The tendency of individuals to publicize their connection with a successful other is labeled by Cialdini et al. (1976) as “basking in reflected glory (BIRG).” Cialdini and his colleagues (1976) found that university students were more likely to wear school-identifying apparel on the Monday after a win by the school team than after a defeat. Students were also found to use the pronoun “we” more frequently when describing the
outcome of a game in which their school’s team had been successful ("We won!") than when their school’s team had lost ("They lost").

Cialdini et al. (1976) argued that “basking in reflected glory” involves a process of identification between the individual and the successful other (e.g., a team). Those fans who are more susceptible to the “BIRG” phenomenon just may be those who have the poorest self-concept. Thus, the tendency to bask in reflected glory has been found to be greatest when one’s public image is threatened.

As a form of personal image management, wins make fans draw closer to their team, while losses encourage fans to distance from their teams. For the fans who associate with successful others to enhance their own image, the team’s triumphs become their triumphs.

**Escape from the Real World**

Spectatorship has a potentially positive impact on personal development by helping individuals learn to cope with their emotions (Zillman et al., 1979). Generally, viewing sports is rarely an option selected when there is nothing else to do. It meets a variety of needs rather than simply relieving boredom (Gantz, 1981). The enjoyment and excitement from viewing sports allow the individual to momentarily escape the trials and tribulations of the real world (Lasch, 1979; Snyder & Spreitzer, 1978). By becoming an allegiant fan, one can escape by becoming involved in a competition. The resulting arousal or stress seems to be a pleasant experience for many people (Elias & Dunning, 1970; Koppett, 1982; Sloan, 1979).
Sport Spectatorship and Arousal

Klausner (1968) believed that individuals who do not experience tension, risk, and stress in the normal course of life seek to create opportunities to fulfill their needs for arousal in socially acceptable or unacceptable ways. In modern society, normal life often does not provide enough positive stimulation for the individual. Sports spectatorship provides the means to create and experience arousal in socially acceptable ways. The intensity of need for arousal varies among individuals (Petrie, Holland, & Work, 1963; Ryan, 1969) and the cultures that shape them. However, it is presumed that all people have those homeostatic needs even though the thresholds may change with experience and age (Fenz & Epstein, 1969).

The study of fan motivation by Wann (1995) suggested that positive stress, eustress, was the second most important reason for the respondents to be a sport fan. Harris (1973) noted that “competitive sports, contests of almost any nature and performances staged for audience have supplied and continue to supply eustress to participants and to millions of spectators alike.” (p. 112). Sloan (1989) suggested that it is possible that the spectator seeks the arousal experience by being involved with the crowd, in picking a team and risking failure in bad judgment, by cheering vigorously and, by simply being a member of the crowd itself.

Sport Spectatorship and Aesthetic

Sports spectators appreciate grace and excellence in sport performance. Athletic performance appeals to people who seek aesthetic and perfect presentation (Sloan, 1989). Leonard (1974) suggested that there is a “dance” or beautiful skill to sports that can be
appreciated even in losing a competition. Michener (1976) also suggested that the aesthetic application of skill in movement made sport an art form for players and spectators as well. Researchers also agree that people want to see the excellence and the perfection of the players’ performance (Guttman, 1986; Weiss, 1969; Novak, 1976). Therefore, appreciation of the aesthetics of sport is one of the reasons spectators are fascinated and entertained (Duncan, 1983; Sloan, 1989; Wann, 1995).

**Sports Spectatorship and Entertainment**

Watching sports is apparently a good way of achieving entertainment which takes little investment of efforts and no special skill (Zillmann, 1989). As a matter of fact, researchers suggested that seeking entertainment is one of the reasons that people watch the games (Weiss, 1969; Mechener, 1976; Novak, 1976; Smith, 1988; Sloan, 1989; Melnick, 1993; Madrigal, 1995; Wann, 1995). Sports must provide spectators entertainment and enjoyment, otherwise it would cease to be of interest.

The degree of enjoyment that a spectator experiences may be correlated with team identification (Madrigal, 1995). Moreover, the sources of spectators’ enjoyment vary from individual to individual, such as watching the excellent performance of players (Guttman, 1986; Weiss, 1969; Novak, 1976), being aroused by the stimulation from the games (Sloan, 1989), or being able to share the same interests with others (Sloan, 1989; Zillmann, Bryant, & Sapolsky, 1989; Melnick, 1993; Easterman & Riggs, 1994).

**Spectating Behavior of Different Types of Sports**

Wenner and Gantz (1989) suggested that spectating behaviors may vary by sport.
That is, spectating behavior and motives vary between team and individual sports, contact and non-contact sports, and fast- and slow-paced sports. Therefore, for the purpose of understanding the motives and behavior of sports spectators, it is necessary to discuss how different types of sports affect spectating behavior.

When sports become commercialized, the players tend to make the games more amusing to the spectators (Stone, 1955). However, pure violence shocks people. In order for violence to be of commercial value, it must be linked to heroic action (Coakley, 1987; Stone, 1955). For example, the aggressive actions, like slam dunk, not only demonstrate the player’s effort for winning the game but also increase the enjoyment of the audience. In addition, rivalry between opponents generates interest because it guarantees that the participants are taking the match-up seriously and that they are committed to achieving the goal of victory (Coakley, 1987).

Violence not only generates the emotional intensity of viewers but also provides them with attractive models of aggressive behaviors (Coakley, 1987). Some researchers compared the pre-game and the post-game feelings of hostility among spectators at heavy contact sport events (wrestling, football, ice hockey) and non-contact sport events (gymnastics, swimming), and found that only the former produced increases in aggressive tendencies (Goldstein & Arms, 1971; Arms et al, 1979; Lennon & Hatfield, 1980).

Those fans who seek stimulation are more likely to prefer fast-paced or contact sport (e.g., basketball, football) more than slow-paced, and non-contact sports (e.g., golf, baseball). Fans in fast-paced sports are more likely than those in slow-pace sports to relax their inhibitions, and get psyched (e.g., cheering, talking, complaining, pacing the
floor, having a beer) (Gantz, 1981).

Gender Difference in Spectating Behavior

When viewing sports, audience's experiences also vary by gender. Gantz (1981) reported differences between male and female spectators while watching a game, e.g., male spectators more often disputed an official calls, yelled in anger and had a beer or drink. Sullivan (1991) found that gender differences influence fanship behavior. Male spectators are more likely to react like fans and have a greater investment of their psyches than female spectators. For example, male spectators more frequently feel happy when their team does well, and angry when their team performs poorly. Women more often work on household chores while watching sports on television. Men more frequently have a drink or two and talked about the game when viewing sports. Men more often follow up the game by watching highlights on television newscasts as well as by reading about the action in the paper. Men are more likely to tune in early so as to not miss a thing (Gantz & Wenner, 1991).

In addition, males prefer watching masculine sports while females prefer gender-neutral sports programs (Roloff & Solomon, 1989). Gantz (1981) found that women were more likely than men to watch televised sports as a last resort, and women tend to prefer non-combative televised sports (such as tennis) while men tend to prefer combative sports. The different viewing experiences by the two genders might be associated with their different interests, social expectations, and social responsibilities (Gantz & Wenner, 1991).
Men and women are socialized differently. Males are encouraged to be assertive, dominant, competitive (Bem, 1974; Gantz & Wenner, 1991; Burn, 1996). Females are encouraged to be reactive, submissive, cooperative, and quiet (Bem, 1974; Gantz & Wenner, 1991; Burn, 1996). King and Chi (1979) suggested that sports typically incorporate the ideas of aggressiveness, bravery, competitiveness, and strength which are values normally associated with masculinity. And the sports broadcasting may highlight those ideas. While all sports are not viewed as masculine, most of the sports regularly broadcast on television have been classified as masculine rather than feminine (Gantz & Wenner, 1991).

Summary

These theories of sports spectatorship cover a broad spectrum of motivational factors. However, the majority of the research testing these theories was conducted in the U. S. Due to the unique aspects of Chinese culture, some of the theories may apply to Taiwanese sports spectators while others may be less prominent. Particularly, Taiwanese culture emphasizes social harmony and stresses conformity to the social norms. Sports spectating behavior may provide a means for Taiwanese people to have social contact and seek opportunities to obtain arousal and to escape from the dullness and stress in their daily lives. The frustration resulting from the strict demands of the society academically and socially may motivate Taiwanese people to participate in sports as a spectator in order to bolster their poor self-image and self-esteem. Moreover, the sports spectating behavior of Taiwanese may also be associated with Nationalism. The Taiwanese believe
that the performance of the National Baseball team of Taiwan demonstrates their power to the world.

Past research suggests that gender-role socialization impacts women's participation in athletic activity and sports spectating behavior. In Taiwanese society, gender-role norms are highly emphasized in children's socialization. To determine the differences of the sports spectating motivation between Taiwanese men and women, a survey of sports spectatorship was conducted.
CHAPTER 3

METHODS

This chapter will describe the methods used to determine the prevalent spectator motivation of the Taiwanese and the gender differences in spectators' motivation among men and women in Taiwan.

Subjects

The sample was one of convenience. The participants were employees of Fu Chun Shin Machinery Manufacture Corporation in Tainan, Taiwan, and China Telecom Corporation in Mioali, Taiwan. All subjects were Taiwanese and over 18 years of age and were volunteers who were naive as to the study. The sample consisted of laborers, sales representatives, marketing personnel and management personnel in both companies. The subjects completed the survey on their lunch break. No inducements were provided to the participants for them to complete the survey.

Survey Instrument

Subjects were administered a questionnaire which was developed by rewording questions from the "Sport Fan Motivation Scale (SFMS)" developed by Wann (1995).
All the questions in the questionnaire were translated into Chinese for Taiwanese subjects. A pre-test of the questionnaire in Chinese were conducted among students and tourists from Taiwan, and some minor wording were changed to ensure the accuracy of the questionnaire and total understanding of the subjects.

The survey measured subjective levels of motivation for sportfanship on seven different factors. The factors were: “group affiliation, self-esteem, escape, aesthetic, entertainment, eustress, and family togetherness”. Wann has validated the SFMS instrument in two studies which showed that it is “consistent and normally distributed . . . and to possess strong test-retest reliability and criterion validity” (Wann, 1995, p. 391).

As for the internal consistency of the total SFMS and the seven subscales, Cronbach’s reliability alpha for the entire scale was .90, while subscale alphas were also acceptable: eustress (.89), self-esteem (.78), entertainment (.85), escape (.85), aesthetic (.81), group affiliation (.72), and family (.63).

Each motivation factor has three questions associated with sports spectating motivation, except family togetherness which has only two questions. A breakdown of which survey questions were used to determine each motivation factor category is located in Appendix B.

Information about the age, gender, marital status, job classification, and education and income level of the subjects was collected. In addition, subjects were asked to respond to each of the twenty motivation questions on the SFMS. Each question was scored using an eight-point Likert response scale ranging from “Not at all descriptive of me” (1) to “Very descriptive of me” (8) (See Appendix A)
Procedure

Subjects for the survey were obtained from two sources. The source for subjects were the employees of Fu Chun Shin Machinery Manufacture Corporation in Tainan, Taiwan, and China Telecom Corporation in Mioali, Taiwan. A letter was provided and co-signed by their manager to facilitate their willing to participate in the study. The letter is provided in Appendix C. The subjects were told that the study was an investigation of the motivations people have for watching sports as part of a Master's degree program. In order to obtain a cross section of the employees in the companies, approximately equal numbers of individuals from the three job classifications, laborer, marketing personnel and management personnel, were sampled. The subjects were asked to complete the questionnaire while on their lunch break. They were informed that the questionnaire takes less than 10 minutes for most people to complete.
CHAPTER 4

RESULTS/ANALYSIS

Subjects

Useable surveys from 188 subjects were collected. Ninety-six subjects were employees of Fu Chun Shin Machinery Manufacture Co., Ltd. and ninety-two worked for China Telecom. All participants were 18 years of age or older, and were asked to complete the survey for a thesis.

The sample was composed of 94 males and 94 females. Fifty-eight subjects were between the ages of 18 and 28 (30.8%); 68 subjects were between the age of 29 and 34 (36.1%); and 62 subjects were between age of 35 and 55 (33.1%). The annual income of 57 subjects was less than $9,999 (30.3%). 30 subjects earned between $10,000 and $19,999 (15.9%); 63 subjects earned between $20,000 and $29,999 (33.5%), and 38 subjects earned between $30,000 and $39,999 (20.2%). The occupations of the subjects were 64 laborers which consist of 23 males and 41 females, 63 marketing personnel which consist of 30 males and 33 females, and 61 management personnel which consist of 41 males and 20 females. In terms of education level, 9 subjects graduated from Junior High School; 50 subjects graduated from Senior High School; 74 subjects had college degrees; 55 subjects had graduate degrees or higher. In terms of marital status, 15 male
subjects and 22 female subjects have never been married; 64 male subjects and 66 female subjects are married; 15 male subjects and 6 female subjects are divorced.

It was mentioned in Chapter 2 that some people in Taiwan obtain a college degree in the U.S. or other countries. However, every subject with a college/university degree obtained the degree in Taiwan. Therefore, there is no data regarding the sport spectating motivation of people who obtained degrees in other countries.

Reliability of SFMS

Wann validated the SFMS instrument in two studies conducted in the U. S. The results indicated that it was “consistent and normally distributed . . . and to possess strong test-retest reliability and criterion validity” (Wann, 1995, p. 391). However, the survey questions were translated from English into Chinese for the subjects in this study. Therefore, Cronbach’s Alpha, a test of the internal consistency of the Chinese Version, was conducted. The Cronbach’s reliability alpha for the entire scale was .784. The subscale values were acceptable: Aesthetic (.751), Escape (.707), Eustress (.767), Family (.852), Self-esteem (.758), with the exception of Entertainment (.629) and Group (.556).

Research Question #1: What is the motivation for sport spectating among Taiwanese people?

In order to find out the spectating motivation of Taiwanese people, mean scores for each of the seven motivation factors were determined. The means and standard deviations for the entire sample, as well as the male and female samples, are separately provided in Table 1. The medians and the modes are provided in Table 2. The factors
are listed in descending order by the mean scores for the overall sample.

An ANOVA test was conducted to determine if there are significant differences between the means of the factors. Results are presented in Table 3. This study found the significant differences in sport spectating motivation within Taiwanese people.

Table 1  Means and Standard Deviations for Each Motivation Factor.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Factor</th>
<th>Overall n=188</th>
<th>Male n=94</th>
<th>Female n=94</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>M  SD</td>
<td>M  SD</td>
<td>M  SD</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Eustress</td>
<td>4.52 3.67</td>
<td>5.01 2.98</td>
<td>4.04 3.73</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Entertainment</td>
<td>4.40 2.86</td>
<td>4.46 2.89</td>
<td>4.34 2.83</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Aesthetic</td>
<td>4.05 3.45</td>
<td>4.14 2.98</td>
<td>3.95 3.86</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Self-esteem</td>
<td>3.98 3.31</td>
<td>4.19 3.17</td>
<td>3.77 3.35</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Group-Affiliation</td>
<td>3.86 2.79</td>
<td>3.98 2.74</td>
<td>3.74 2.81</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Family</td>
<td>2.66 2.93</td>
<td>2.15 2.66</td>
<td>3.18 2.83</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note. The higher the score is, the greater the motivation.
Table 2  **Medians and Modes of Scores for Seven Motivation Factors**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Factor</th>
<th>Overall n=188</th>
<th>Male n=94</th>
<th>Female n=94</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>median  mode</td>
<td>median  mode</td>
<td>median  mode</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Eustress</td>
<td>4.72  4.56</td>
<td>5.22  6.22</td>
<td>4.44  4.56</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Entertainment</td>
<td>4.44  4.11</td>
<td>4.56  4.78</td>
<td>4.33  4.11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Aesthetic</td>
<td>3.89  5.00</td>
<td>4.22  5.11</td>
<td>3.78  5.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Self-esteem</td>
<td>4.22  4.22</td>
<td>4.33  4.89</td>
<td>3.94  3.78</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Group-affiliation</td>
<td>4.00  4.33</td>
<td>4.00  5.00</td>
<td>4.00  4.11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Escape</td>
<td>3.33  2.78</td>
<td>3.50  2.78</td>
<td>3.22  1.89</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Family</td>
<td>3.00  1.00</td>
<td>1.50  1.00</td>
<td>3.38  3.00</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Note.** The higher the score is, the greater the motivation.

Table 3  **ANOVA Results of Motivation Scale Means among All Subjects**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Source of Variation</th>
<th>SS</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>MS</th>
<th>F</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Motivation Factors</td>
<td>8801.45</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>1466.91</td>
<td>177.45*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Within + Residual</td>
<td>9275.04</td>
<td>188</td>
<td>8.27</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*\(p<.05.\)
Because of the significance on the ANOVA, a Tukey’s test was used to locate the source of differences among the seven spectating motivations. The Tukey’s test results are presented in Table 4. The motivation factors are listed in descending order by the mean scores for the overall sample. Subjects were most motivated by “Eustress” and “Entertainment” and least motivated by the “Family” factor.

Table 4  Tukey's Test Results for Sport Spectating Motivations

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Motivation</th>
<th>Eustress</th>
<th>Entertainment</th>
<th>Aesthetic</th>
<th>Self-esteem</th>
<th>Group</th>
<th>Escape</th>
<th>Family</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Eustress</td>
<td>--</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Entertainment</td>
<td>ns</td>
<td>--</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Aesthetic</td>
<td>*</td>
<td>*</td>
<td>--</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Self-esteem</td>
<td>*</td>
<td>*</td>
<td>ns</td>
<td>ns</td>
<td>--</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Group</td>
<td>*</td>
<td>*</td>
<td>ns</td>
<td>ns</td>
<td>--</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Escape</td>
<td>*</td>
<td>*</td>
<td>*</td>
<td>*</td>
<td>*</td>
<td>*</td>
<td>*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Family</td>
<td>*</td>
<td>*</td>
<td>*</td>
<td>*</td>
<td>*</td>
<td>*</td>
<td>*</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*p<.05 ns= not significant

To examine the relations between age and education and sport spectating motivation, the mean scores of motivation factors and standard deviations for the age groups and educational levels are provided in Table 5 and Table 6.
Table 5  Means and Standard Deviations of Overall Motivation Scores by Age

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Age</th>
<th>M</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>n</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>18-28</td>
<td>5.033</td>
<td>.754</td>
<td>58</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>29-34</td>
<td>5.004</td>
<td>.656</td>
<td>68</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>35-55</td>
<td>4.976</td>
<td>.892</td>
<td>62</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 6  Means and Standard Deviations of Overall Motivation Scores by Education Level

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Education</th>
<th>M</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>n</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Senior High School</td>
<td>4.968</td>
<td>.822</td>
<td>59</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>College</td>
<td>4.902</td>
<td>.744</td>
<td>74</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Graduate/Professional</td>
<td>5.178</td>
<td>.718</td>
<td>55</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Research Question #2: What are the differences in overall sport spectating motivation for different age groups?

An ANOVA test was conducted to determine the differences in sport spectating motivation among different age levels. The ANOVA results of overall spectating motivation among age groups are presented in Table 7.
Table 7  ANOVA Results of Overall Spectating Motivation among Age Groups

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Source</th>
<th>SS</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>MS</th>
<th>F</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Between groups</td>
<td>9.72</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>4.86</td>
<td>0.082</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Within groups</td>
<td>109.87</td>
<td>185</td>
<td>.59</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>109.97</td>
<td>187</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*p<.05.

No significant differences were found on the spectating motivation between people of different age levels.

Research Question #3: What are the differences in overall sport spectating motivation based upon education levels?

An ANOVA test was conducted to determine the differences in sport spectating motivation among different education levels. The ANOVA test results are presented in Table 8.
Table 8  ANOVA Results of Overall Spectating Motivation among Education Groups

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Source</th>
<th>SS</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>MS</th>
<th>F</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Between groups</td>
<td>2.82</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>.94</td>
<td>1.614</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Within groups</td>
<td>107.15</td>
<td>184</td>
<td>.582</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>109.97</td>
<td>187</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*p<.05.

This study found no significant differences in sport spectating motivation among subjects of different education levels.

Research Question #4: What are the differences between Taiwanese males and females in sport spectating motivation factors?

A MANOVA test was conducted to determine the effects of gender on sport spectator motivation. The MANOVA results are presented in Table 9 and Table 10.
Table 9  MANOVA Results for Differences in Spectating Motivation Scores between Males and Females

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Wilk's Lambda</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>Error df</th>
<th>F</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>0.680</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>180</td>
<td>12.047*</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*p<.01.

Table 10  Univariate F-test Results in Motivation Factors between Male and Female Subjects

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>Hyp.SS</th>
<th>Error SS</th>
<th>Hyp. MS</th>
<th>Error MS</th>
<th>F</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Eustress</td>
<td>394.497</td>
<td>2127.641</td>
<td>394.497</td>
<td>11.438</td>
<td>34.487*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Entertainment</td>
<td>6.640</td>
<td>1526.049</td>
<td>6.640</td>
<td>8.204</td>
<td>.809</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Aesthetic</td>
<td>15.319</td>
<td>2216.554</td>
<td>15.319</td>
<td>11.916</td>
<td>1.285</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Self-Esteem</td>
<td>197.107</td>
<td>1410.194</td>
<td>197.107</td>
<td>7.581</td>
<td>25.997*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Escape</td>
<td>44.695</td>
<td>2033.206</td>
<td>44.695</td>
<td>10.931</td>
<td>4.088*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Family</td>
<td>74.903</td>
<td>1983.082</td>
<td>74.903</td>
<td>10.661</td>
<td>7.025*</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*p<.01
The results indicated that male subjects scored higher than females subjects in “Eustress”, “Self-esteem”, and “Escape” and that female subjects scored higher than male subjects in “Family.”
CHAPTER 5

DISCUSSION/CONCLUSIONS

Some spectating motivations are clearly more descriptive than others for this sample of Taiwanese sports spectators. The most important sport spectating motivations for this sample are "Eustress", and "Entertainment". And the least important spectating motivation for them is the "Family" factor. The descending order of the motivation factors for the entire sample by the mean score is "Eustress", "Entertainment", "Aesthetic", "Self-Esteem", "Group-Affiliation", "Escape", and "Family".

This sample of Taiwanese people is more motivated by "Eustress" and "Entertainment" factors than any other sport spectating motivation factors. The results of the study may reflect the child-rearing process of Taiwanese people. Taiwanese people are socialized to be cooperative in a group (Chiu, 1987, 1989; Crittenden, 1991) and to conform to socially desirable or culturally approved behaviors (King & Bond, 1995). Therefore, Taiwanese people seek opportunities to fulfill the need for positive stimulation. Sports spectatorship provides Taiwanese people with the opportunities for positive stimulation as well as entertainment. The fact that Taiwanese people emphasize conformity to social values and expectations may explain Taiwanese people's need for positive stimulation in their daily life. Eustress is commonly associated with motivation
for fans (Branscombe & Wann, 1994). For some spectators, sports are enjoyable because they stimulate their senses and provide them with the arousal they seek (Zuckerman, 1979), especially for people who are under the restrictions of social conformity like Taiwanese people. Moreover, Zilman et al (1989) mentioned that some people have the desire to be entertained. Without requiring special skills, in contrast to sport participation, sport spectating serves as a pastime.

While some sport spectator motivations may reflect the Taiwanese culture, the spectator motivation of this sample of Taiwanese people appears very similar to motivation in the U.S. The results of this study correspond to that of a study conducted in the U.S. in some respects (Wann, 1995). American people also ranked “Entertainment” and “Eustress” as the highest two motivation factors and “Escape” and “Family” as the least intensive motivation factors (Wann, 1995). The descending order of the third, the fourth, and the fifth spectating motivation for American people is different from that of Taiwanese sample. However, “Group-Affiliation”, “Aesthetic”, and “Esteem” are three moderate spectating motivations for both the Taiwanese and American people.

Although this study did not compare statistically the ranking of the spectator motivations of the Taiwanese and American people, it may be interesting to statistically compare the two groups in future research. “Group-Affiliation,” ranked as the third spectating motivation by American people in the Wann study, was ranked as the fifth motivation for the Taiwanese sample in this study. This could be attributed to the fact that Taiwanese people have stronger family and social ties than American people (Chiu,
1987) and do not have the same need for group affiliation through sport spectating.

"Self-Esteem," ranked as the fourth spectating motivation by American people (Wann, 1995), was ranked as the third motivation by Taiwanese sample in this study. This may reflect that Taiwanese people have a stronger need to enhance their self-esteem through sport spectating than American people do. As mentioned previously, Taiwanese people have a less liberated definition of success than the American people. Mostly, parents and society decide whether the individual is successful. This singular definition of success undermines many people's self-esteem. Hence, they may need to be associated with winning teams in order to enhance their self-esteem. Further research may be warranted in these areas.

Previously research in the U.S. has found that males and females differ in sport spectator behaviors (Sullivan, 1991; Gantz & Wenner, 1991). In this study, gender differences were found between Taiwanese males and females. Taiwanese males are more likely than females to be motivated by "Eustress," "Self-esteem," and "Escape." Taiwanese females are more likely than men to be motivated by the "Family" factor. The strongest motivation was found on the "Eustress" subscale for the male subjects. The highest level of motivation was found on the "Entertainment" factor for the female subjects. "Eustress" is usually involved with more investment of emotion than "Entertainment". Apparently, emotional investment and release is more important to males when watching the games while females view sport spectatorship more as a diversional pastime activity. Males are also more likely to spectate in sport because it helps them feel good about themselves. Identification with a team will foster a sense of
attachment and belongingness among highly allegiant individuals. And this sense of belongingness will result in increased feelings of self worth (Branscombe & Wann, 1991). Their association with a team also will enhance their self-esteem (Brewer, 1979; Oakes & Turner, 1980). Males are more likely to be motivated to watch sport to escape.

The motivation to spend time with family members through sport has a relatively low mean score for both male and female subjects. The relative mean scores in Table 1 would seem to indicate that the “Family” factor is not very important to either group. However, female subjects respond to the “Family” factor more positively than male subjects. The results correspond to the socialization of Taiwanese women and the Chinese traditional ideas about women. In Chinese culture, women are perceived as submissive and housebound (Chia, Allred, & Jerzak, 1997), and encouraged to achieve the satisfaction of the spouse and other family members. Since most sports spectating behavior still happens at home (Gantz, 1981; Ganze & Wenner, 1991), the high frequency of Taiwanese females’ viewing sports on TV may be associated with the purpose of spending time with their family members.

This study examined the relationship between the demographics and motivation factors. No significant difference was found among the subjects in the different education and age levels. This study suggested that age and education do not impact on spectating motivation for Taiwanese people.

Limitations and Suggestions for Further Research

Due to the lack of Taiwanese literature or research studies on sport spectating, the
theories regarding sport spectating in this study are drawn from those of western countries. Other than the demographic factors, culture, indeed, could significantly affect the motivation of spectators. However, not conducting a cross-cultural study limits the comparison between Taiwanese and American people.

Time and budget constraints further contributed to a small sample size. The total number of subjects was 188. The convenience sample in this study does not allow for a generalization to all Taiwanese people. Two companies were selected as the sample Fu Chun Shin Machinery Manufacture Corporation and China Telecom Corporation. Although female subjects comprised half of the subjects in this study (94 male subjects and 94 female subjects), the female subjects represent career women. Housewives in Taiwan were excluded.

Although demographic information was collected, the small percentage of some demographic groups in this study constrained the representation of those demographic groups. More diverse demographic representation and a large percentage of each demographic group would be especially desirable.

In addition, the weak mean scores for spectating motivation might indicate that these factors do not reflect Taiwanese people's spectating motivation. The results indicate that the subjects in the study did not find these factor very descriptive of themselves.

Before any conclusions can be drawn, additional research is needed in this area. As noted above, randomly-selected subjects and a larger sample size are essential steps in this direction. In addition, the sports in which males and females are interested should be
determined. In Taiwan, little research related to sport spectating motivation has been conducted. With the rapid growth of professional sports in Taiwan, the important subject of how fan motivations are affected by various demographic factors needs further study.

Management Implication

For sports marketing managers, it is important to enhance audience’s enjoyment when viewing sports. The more enjoyment the spectators get from the games, the greater the chance they will stay with the games. Many people enjoy watching sports by becoming involved in a competition and the resulting arousal or eustress. Taiwanese people are strongly motivated by “Eustress” when viewing sports. Sports managers should use advertising and commentary in the field to enable viewers to feel that they participate in important and highly competitive games in which the players are strongly committed to the contest. Spectators tend to respond positively to contests in which players are perceived as very invested. The struggle is necessary to the popularity of a sporting event. As a result, the tension of the games increases and the spectators are much more likely to be aroused by the tension.

Moreover, the heroic actions, such as home runs, 3-point shots, also mesmerize spectators. And the resulting arousal or eustress enables fans to escape the trials and tribulations of the real world (Lasch, 1979). Fans have the tendency to publicize their connection with a successful team. The team-related products, such as sportswear, and posters, satisfy their needs to purchase the sportswear or products with their favorite team’s name or logo. For fans to enhance their attachment and bond with the team or
other fans, the broadcasting advertising could emphasize the "one-of-a-kind" spirit of fans for their favorite team. In both U.S. and Taiwan, several sports magazines and publications reveal players' private life for fans to get to know more about the players after the games. In addition, the fan clubs also serve as a vehicle for fans to gain access to players. By knowing more about the team or the players, spectators could identify with the teams more easily and participate in the games more frequently.

The different viewing experiences by the two genders might be associated with differences in interests, social expectation, and social responsibilities (Gantz & Wenner, 1991). Taiwanese female spectators were more motivated by the "Aesthetic" than male spectators. Non-contact, gender-neutral games could pay more attention to female spectators. It is commonly believed that watching sports alone is less enjoyable than watching it with friends or in the cheering crowd. It is especially true for Taiwanese female spectators. Therefore, family package for ticket pass should attract female spectators.
Please answer each of the following questions about yourself by circling the proper answer.

1. What is your age?

2. What is your gender?
   
   Male   Female

3. How much is your household annual income before taxes?
   
   a. Under US$10,000
   b. Between US$ 10,000 and US$ 20,000
   c. Between US$20,000 and US$ 30,000
   d. Between US$30,000 and US$ 40,000
   e. Over US$ 40,000

4. What is your job category?
   
   a. Laborer
   b. Marketing personnel
   c. Management personnel

5. What is your marital status?
   
   Never Married Married  Divorced  Widowed  Separated

6. What is your educational level?
   
   a. Junior high school
   b. Senior high school
   c. 1-3 year of college
   d. College/University degree
   e. Graduate or professional degree

7. If you have a university degree, please identify from which country you obtained your degree?
   
   a. Taiwan
   b. United States of America
   c. Canada
   d. Other ___________________________ (please specify which country)
8. How often have you played sports?
   a. Never
   b. Less than once a year
   c. 1--4 times a year
   d. 5--9 times a year
   e. 10-12 times a year
   f. 2--3 times a month
   g. 1--4 times a week
   h. 5--7 times a week

9. How often do you attend sporting events/games?
   a. Never
   b. Less than once a year
   c. 1--4 times a year
   d. 5--9 times a year
   e. 10-12 times a year
   f. 2--3 times a month
   g. 1--4 times a week
   h. 5--7 times a week

10. How regularly do you watch sports on TV?
    a. Never
    b. Less than once a year
    c. 1--4 times a year
    d. 5--9 times a year
    e. 10-12 times a year
    f. 2--3 times a month
    g. 1--4 times a week
    h. 5--7 times a week

11. How regularly do you read the sports section of the newspaper?
    a. Never
    b. Less than once a year
    c. 1--4 times a year
    d. 5--9 times a year
    e. 10-12 times a year
    f. 2--3 times a month
    g. 1--4 times a week
    h. 5--7 times a week
## SPORTS SPECTATING MOTIVATION SURVEY

Instruction: Please answer EACH of the following questions about sports spectating using the 1 to 8 scale below. In the space next to each item, simply indicate (by writing a number) how well each item describes you. There are no right or wrong answers, we simply ask that you be completely honest in your responses. Remember, these questions are about sports spectating, not sports participation.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>NOT AT ALL DESCRIMENTIVE</th>
<th>1</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>3</th>
<th>4</th>
<th>5</th>
<th>6</th>
<th>7</th>
<th>8</th>
<th>VERY DESCRIPTIVE OF ME</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

1. One of the main reason that I watch, read, or discuss sports is that doing so gives me the opportunity to temporarily escape life's problems.

2. One of the main reasons that I watch, read, or discuss sports is that I get pumped up when I am watching my favorite teams.

3. One of the main reasons that I watch, read, or discuss sports is for the artistic value.

4. One of the main reasons that I watch, read, or discuss sports is that I enjoy the beauty and grace of sports.

5. One of the main reasons that I watch, read, or discuss sports is that I enjoy being physically aroused by the competition.

6. One of the main reasons that I watch, read, or discuss sports is that doing so makes me feel good when my team wins.

7. One of the main reasons that I watch, read, or discuss sports is that doing so allows me to forget my problems.

8. One of the main reasons that I watch, read, or discuss sports is because most of my friends are sports fans.

9. I enjoy watching sporting events because to me sports are a form of art.

10. To me, watching, reading, or discussing sports is like daydreaming because it takes me away from life's hassles.

11. One of the main reasons that I watch, read, or discuss sports is I am the kind of person who likes to be with other people.

12. I enjoy watching sports more when I am with a large group of people.
13. I enjoy watching sports because it increases my self-esteem.

14. I like the stimulation I get from watching sports

15. I enjoy sports because of their entertainment value.

16. To me, my favorite team's successes are my successes and their losses are my loses.

17. I like to watch, read, or discuss sports because doing so gives me opportunity to be with my spouse.

18. I like to watch, read, or discuss sports because doing so gives me an opportunity to be with my family.

19. I enjoy watching, reading, or discussing sport simply because it is a good time.

20. To me, sports spectating is simply a form of recreation.
Motivation Factors

Following are the survey questions, broken down by factor.

**Eustress**

2. One of the main reasons that I watch sports is that I get pumped up when I am watching my favorite teams.

5. One of the main reasons that I watch, read, or discuss sports is that I enjoy being physically aroused by the competition.

14. I like the stimulation I get from watching sports.

**Self-esteem**

6. One of the main reasons that I watch, read, or discuss sports is that doing so makes me feel good when my team wins.

13. I enjoy watching sports because it increases my self-esteem.

16. To me, my favorite team’s successes are my successes and their losses are my loses.

**Escape**

1. One of the main reason that I watch, read, or discuss sports is that doing so gives me the opportunity to temporarily escape life’s problems

7. One of the main reasons that I watch, read, or discuss sports is that doing so allows me to forget my problems.

10. To me, watching, reading, or discussing sports is like daydreaming because it takes me away from life’s hassles.

**Entertainment**

15. I enjoy sports because of their entertainment value.

19. I enjoy watching, reading or discussing sport simply because it is a good time.

20. To me, sports spectating is simply a form of recreation.
Aesthetic

3. One of the main reasons that I watch read, or discuss sports is for the artistic value.

4. One of the main reason that I watch, read, or discuss sports is that I enjoy the beauty and grace of sports.

9. I enjoy watching sporting events because to me sports are a form of art.

Group Affiliation

8. One of the main reasons that I watch, read, or discuss sports is because most of my friends are sport fans.

11. One of the main reasons that I watch, read, or discuss sports is I am the kind of person who likes to be with other people.

12. I enjoy watching sports more when I am with a large group of people.

Family

17. I like to watch, read, or discuss sports because doing so gives me an opportunity to be with my spouse.

18. I like to watch, read, or discuss sports because doing so gives me an opportunity to be with my family.
Dear participant,

This survey is being conducted as part of a Master’s Thesis in Sport Management. Your answers provided will be utilized to explore the knowledge of sport spectating motivation in Taiwan. Your voluntary participation will be appreciated. All responses will be treated confidentially. Please take the time out to complete the survey questionnaire.

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University of Nevada, Las Vegas
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Committee Member, Dr. John D. Massengale, Ph. D.
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