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Comparing Sport Consumer Motivations Across Multiple Sports

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Abstract

Sport managers within intercollegiate athletics are faced with the challenge of generating more revenues to offset rising program costs. One option to consider is generating additional revenues from ticket sales for nonrevenue sports. Understanding the motives that drive consumers' interest in nonrevenue sports will provide sport marketers with information that can be used to develop targeted promotional campaigns in order to foster increased attendance and, ultimately, offset costs to the programs. The current study sought to extend our understanding of sport consumers by identifying motives that influence an individual's interest in nonrevenue collegiate sports and to ascertain whether similar motives influence consumption across multiple nonrevenue sports. The results suggest that interest in three nonrevenue sporting events was based upon factors associated with sport in general. Respondents rated the sport-related motives (i.e., entertainment, skill, drama, and team effort) higher than the motives pertaining to self-definition (i.e., achievement, empathy, and team affiliation) and motives related to personal benefits (i.e., social interaction and family).

Introduction

The provision of intercollegiate athletic programs involves a myriad of complex financial challenges. An increasing number of athletic administrators must manage their programs in environments characterized by declining revenue sources and increasing operating costs. A report on the revenues and expenses of NCAA athletic programs from Fulks (2000) indicates that most athletic programs depend on institutional support to avoid operating at a deficit. Given the fact that the figures reported by Fulks (2000) do not include debt service and capital expenses, it is reasonable to conclude that the majority of athletic programs struggle to balance revenues and expenses. In the near future, athletic programs at best can expect to receive current levels of institutional support while expenses continue to rise; a more realistic expectation is that they will receive lower levels of financial support. Faced with declining institutional support, athletic administrators must decide whether to reduce their budgets and potentially eliminate sports or try to generate additional income to offset expenses.

In order to develop strategies for increasing ticket sales for various low or nonrevenue sports, it is necessary to better understand why individuals have an interest in these sports and what factors may motivate them to attend live events.

The financial pressure on athletic programs is coming from a number of rising costs. The increasing costs of scholarships, equipment, Title IX compliance, and salaries for coaches and personnel, all contribute to the current financial situation that many athletic administrators are facing (Masteralexis, Barr, & Hums, 1998). In light of declining revenues and increased costs, while at the same time motivated to satisfy increased demands, athletic administrators are seeking ways to maintain current programs (Branvold, 1992). Within most athletic programs, men's football and basketball are the only revenue-generating enterprises (Howard & Crompton, 2003). The ability of one or both of these sports to produce substantial income is often crucial to maintaining all other nonrevenue producing sports.

One approach to meeting the financial challenges of the future is to generate income from what have historically been low or nonrevenue sports (e.g., baseball, softball, and wrestling). Potential sources of increased

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revenue include income from sponsorship deals, merchandise sales, concessions, and gate receipts. Given the fact that nonrevenue sports are not high profile, it is not likely that sponsors will be lining up to spend substantial dollars to form associations. There may be opportunities for package deals by bundling various sports together, but institutional restrictions on sponsorship deals and existing deals with sponsors of revenue sports will likely limit the opportunities.

Merchandise sales in collegiate sport are another potential source of revenue for athletic programs. Very few programs currently realize the full benefit of this revenue source. Previous research indicates that one out of every four athletic programs receives no annual licensing revenue, and another 25% receive 50% or less of the revenue generated through merchandise sales (Howard & Crompton, 2003). These figures indicate that while merchandise sales are a potential revenue enhancer, programs at best can only expect a small percentage of the returns. Similarly, food service plays a smaller role in collegiate sport compared to the professional level. Fulks (2002) noted that concessions represented only 2% of total revenues for Division-IA programs. Food service is a minor revenue source in collegiate sports for two primary reasons: smaller disposable income of fans and lack of beer sales (Howard & Crompton, 2003). Most colleges do not allow beer sales, which results in concession volumes that are at least 35% below the sales volume at the professional level.

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At the collegiate level, a potential and many-times-overlooked source for increased revenues across multiple sport programs is ticket sales. Athletic programs currently rely on gate receipts from the revenue sports, primarily football, to help fund nonrevenue programs (Howard & Crompton, 2003). For example, on average football and men's basketball account for 93% of Division-IA men's program revenues and 58% of Division II with football men's program revenues (Fulks, 2002). Although ticket sales at nonrevenue sporting events are not expected to generate sufficient income to fully fund respective programs, it is reasonable to expect that increased income from ticket sales would help offset some of the expenses. This is a particularly appealing option given that ticket pricing and promotion of ticket sales represent areas over which an athletic department has direct control. In order to develop strategies for increasing ticket sales for various low or nonrevenue sports, it is necessary to better understand why individuals have an interest in these sports and what factors may motivate them to attend live events.

Sport Consumer Motives

Early research on sport spectator consumption centered principally on the topic of sport demand. Research has examined the effect of economic factors, promotions, and residual preference factors (e.g., scheduling of games, new arenas, accessibility) on attendance at sporting events and has studied the relationship between sociodemographic variables and watching sports (Baade & Tiehen, 1990; Greenstein & Marcum, 1981; Hansen & Gauthier, 1989; Schofield, 1983; Zhang, Pease, Hui, & Michaud, 1995; Zhang, Smith, Pease & Jambor, 1997).

The sport demand variables help sport marketers appreciate how pricing issues (setting ticket prices that are affordable based on a community's average household income), promotions (giveaways and events that stimulate single game attendance), and residual preference factors (game time, weather, accessibility) affect attendance. At the same time, these variables are often beyond the control of sport marketers (e.g., game times set by television broadcast schedules; weather) or do not relate to the core product, the event on the field or court (e.g., promotional giveaways, concerts, fireworks shows).

More recent research has examined the intrapersonal motives of sport consumers (Kahle, Kambara, & Rose, 1996; Milne & McDonald, 1999; Trail & James, 2001; Wann, 1995) to help explain sport consumption. A wide array of motives has been proposed to explain sport consumption including aesthetics, catharsis, drama, entertainment, escape, social interaction, and vicarious achievement (Sloan, 1989; Trail, Anderson, & Fink, 2000). Researchers have focused on testing and refining scales that assess the intrapersonal motives of sport consumers (Trail & James, 2001; Wann, 1995). An emerging body of work has most recently begun reporting the importance of various intrapersonal motives relative to sport consumption. Research has examined motives across different professional sports (Funk, Mahony, & Ridinger, 2002; James & Ross, 2002), professional sports in other countries (Mahony, Nakazawa, Funk, James, & Gladden, 2002), and college football and basketball (James & Ridinger, 2002; Kwon & Trail, 2001). With the exception of the work by James and Ridinger, work to date has yet to examine the motives of consumers relative to nonrevenue collegiate sports.

James and Ridinger (2002) examined the motives of consumers attending men's and women's college basketball games. The results indicated that those attending men's and women's games were influenced by the action in the games and the opportunity to escape from one's daily routine. Differences between male and female consumers regardless of sport were also reported; compared to women, men experienced a greater sense of vicarious achievement, enjoyed the aesthetic value of basketball, and had a greater knowledge of the game. The findings suggest that the motives for following and attending nonrevenue sports are similar to the motives for following and attending revenue sporting events.

The purpose of the current study was two-fold. First, to extend our understanding of sport consumers by identifying the motives that help explain an individual's interest in nonrevenue collegiate sports. Second,

The promotional campaigns of nonrevenue sports may be conducted in a blanket fashion in order to cut or eliminate costs.

to ascertain whether similar motives influence consumption across multiple nonrevenue sports. For intercollegiate athletic administrators seeking to generate additional ticket sales from nonrevenue sports, it is essential to assess the importance of different motives to ascertain which may exert the greatest influence on consumption of specific sports.

Method

Sample

Three sport programs offered at a large Midwestern university (men's baseball, women's softball, and men's wrestling) were included in the current study. These sports were chosen because they took place concurrently, were characterized as nonrevenue sports by the athletic department, and each attracted at least 250 spectators per game or match. Information was collected from people attending wrestling matches, baseball games, and softball games. Questionnaires were distributed at three wrestling matches, three baseball games, and three softball games. Volunteers were recruited and trained to assist with the data collection. Following a prepared script, the volunteers approached individuals sitting in randomly selected seats prior to the beginning of a game or match, explained the project, and asked if they would be willing to participate. A total of 1,125 questionnaires were distributed at the nine events, 125 per match or game. Two hundred ninety-two useable questionnaires were collected from those attending the wrestling matches (78% return rate). Three hundred fifty-four useable questionnaires were collected from those attending baseball games (94% return rate), and 301 useable questionnaires were collected from those attending softball games (80% return rate).

Procedure

Participants were asked to complete a four-page questionnaire assessing their reasons for following the respective teams and attending games. Individual items were distributed throughout the survey to reduce order and other biases. Those responding were also asked to provide demographic information (age, gender, level of education completed, ethnicity, household income, and marital status) so that a profile of people attending the three sports could be developed.

Sport Consumer Motives

The sport consumer motives in the current study included eight constructs drawn from previous research (James & Ross, 2002; Trail & James, 2001) and two developed by the authors. Six of the nine factors from the Motivation Scale for Sport Consumption (MSSC) (Trail & James, 2001) were utilized (Achievement, Drama, Escape, Family, Skill, and Social). Officials at the university asked that the Physical Attraction items not be used so this factor was omitted. The Knowledge factor was omitted because a review of the individual items led the authors to conclude that the items examine whether a person currently has knowledge about players or a team's win/loss record and various statistics, but they do not measure a desire for knowledge influencing the individual's sport consumption. After reviewing the wording of the items for Aesthetics and Physical Skill, and noting the high correlation for the two constructs reported by Trail and James (2001), the decision was made to include only the items measuring physical skill (Skill). It seemed reasonable to expect that the aesthetic enjoyment of some sports may come from watching the athletes demonstrate their physical skills.

Team Affiliation, or the desire to feel a connection to or an affiliation with the team, and Entertainment, the enjoyment of a sport as a source of entertainment, initially tested by James and Ross (2002) were also included in the study. To more accurately measure the motivations, the wording of some items was altered to include the specific sport being examined. For example, the first Escape item, "Games represent an escape for me from my day-to-day activities," was altered to read, "For me, softball games are an escape from my day-to-day activities." Similarly, the first Family item, "I like going to games with my family," was changed to, "Being with my family is why I enjoy softball games."

Wording changes were also made to some items based on the recommendations of Trail and James in an effort to improve the respective factors.

The authors developed two additional constructs, Team Effort and Empathy. Unlike professional athletes, college athletes do not receive direct monetary compensation for their participation. Athletes in nonrevenue sports in particular are thought to participate because of a love for the game. The authors hypothesized that some sport consumers may attend games and matches based on their enjoyment of watching athletes give their best efforts in a sport they enjoy. The current study provided an opportunity to test this idea.

Empathy, the extent to which an individual shares in the disappointment of a lost or poorly played game was also measured. Research suggests that individuals desiring to enhance their self-esteem through an association with a team feel proud when the team plays well and engage in a BIRGing (basking in reflected glory) process (Cialdini, Borden, Thorne, Walker, Freeman, & Sloan, 1976; Sloan, 1989). As noted in previous research, individuals with a strong connection to a team do not dissociate themselves when the team plays poorly (Wann, 1993; Wann & Branscombe, 1990); these individuals maintain their association suggesting that they experience some level of frustration. The authors hypothesized that a more complete measure of self-esteem enhancement should include items assessing whether an individual shares in the disappointment of a lost or poorly played game. Three items were developed by the authors to measure whether an individual experienced empathy as well as vicarious achievement relative to a team's performance. The ten factors, each represented by three items, were evaluated by the respondents using seven-point Likert scales anchored by Strongly Disagree (1) and Strongly Agree (7) (see Table 1 for a list of the motives and individual items).

Marketers need a better appreciation of sport consumer motivations that cut across sport and those that are unique to specific sports.

Results

Sample Characteristics

The complete frequency and percentage of responses for the demographic measures are available by contacting the authors. The majority of respondents recruited from the baseball games were male (59%), 43% were between 20 and 34 years old, single (55%), Caucasian (95%), and most were well educated (i.e., 45% had completed at least an undergraduate degree). Those recruited from the softball games were evenly split by gender (49% female and 51% male), 33% were between 20 and 34 years old, married (49%), Caucasian (91%), and well educated (i.e., 53% had completed at least an undergraduate degree). Those recruited from the wrestling matches were predominantly male (75%), 26% were between 20 and 34 years old, married (59%), Caucasian (93%), and well educated (i.e., 49% had completed at least an undergraduate degree).

Sample Characteristic Comparisons

Cross tabulations between sports revealed several differences regarding the demographic makeup of the audience. Spectators at baseball games were significantly more likely to fall within the 20-34 age range than those attending wrestling or softball (χ^2=40.218, df=8, p<.001). Similarly, baseball spectators were found to be more likely to only have completed a high school degree at the time of data collection than spectators at the other two sports (χ^2=83.554, df=8, p<.001). Spectators at baseball games were also significantly more likely to be employed part-time or be unemployed (χ^2=41.078, df=10, p<.001), earn an income of $25,000 or less ($\chi^2$=31.971, df=6, p<.001), not have children (χ^2=15.974, df=2, p<.001), and not be married (χ^2=28.345, df=8, p<.001). These findings suggest that the association of the respondents to the university could explain these differences. That is, a higher percentage of those attending baseball games could be students who attend the university, explaining the younger age, present educational level, present employment status, household income, and current marital status. Additionally, spectators at baseball and wrestling events were found to be more likely to be male than those attending softball games (χ^2=36.660, df=2, p<.001). Finally, no differences were found among the ethnic makeup of spectators at the three nonrevenue sports examined (χ^2=7.338, df=10, p=.693).

Sport Consumer Motives

Before testing whether there were differences in the motives of consumers across the three sports, a confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) was computed using the RAMONA Covariance Structure Modeling technique (available in the SYSTAT 9.0 (1999) statistical package) to verify the internal consistency and the construct validity of the sport consumption motives. The CFA was necessary because two new constructs were included, and the wording of several items was changed for this study. The results reported in Table 1 indicate that

Table 1

Confirmatory Factor Analysis for the Sport Consumer Motivations: Item Loadings (β), Confidence Intervals (CI), Standard Errors (SE), t-values (t), Construct Reliability (CR) and Average Variance Explained (AVE)

Factor and Items[abc]	β	CI	SE	t	CR	AVE
Empathy					.86	.67
Right after a(n) *team name* loss I feel sad.	.821	.780-.861	.025	33.47		
I feel upset as I leave the stadium/arena after a(n) *team name* loss.	.807	.767-.847	.024	33.48		
When the *team name* lose a big game, I feel like I have lost.	.831	.790-.872	.025	33.54		
Social Interaction					.85	.65
I enjoy *team name* games/matches because they provide an opportunity to be with my friends.	.822	.779-.866	.026	31.22		
Wanting to spend time with my friends is one reason I go to *sport* games.	.793	.751-.853	.026	30.96		
Having a chance to see friends is one thing I enjoy about *sport* games.	.812	.769-.855	.026	31.14		
Family					.85	.65
Being with my family is why I enjoy *sport* games.	.716	.677-.755	.024	30.44		
The opportunity to spend time with my family is something I like about attending games.	.784	.742-.825	.025	31.22		
I enjoy *team name* games because they are a good family activity.	.908	.861-.954	.028	32.02		
Team Effort					.84	.64
I support the *team name* because the team gives 100% every game.	.797	.759-.836	.024	33.91		
One reason I am a(n) *team name* fan is because the team plays hard all the time.	.828	.788-.868	.024	34.08		
The effort by the players to always do their best is a primary reasons why I follow *sport*.	.779	.741-.817	.023	33.80		
Team Affiliation					.82	.60
I want to feel like I am a(n) *team name*.	.702	.666-.737	.022	32.33		
It is important for me to feel connected to the *team name*.	.814	.774-.855	.025	33.09		
I come to *sport* games so that I will feel like part of the team.	.796	.756-.836	.024	33.00		
Achievement					.80	.58
When the *team name* win I feel like I have won.	.762	.724-.800	.023	32.93		
I feel a personal sense of achievement when the team does well.	.742	.705-.779	.023	32.82		
I feel proud when the team plays really well.	.779	.741-.818	.024	33.03		
Entertainment					.79	.55
The main reason I like *team name* games is because *sport* is good entertainment.	.743	.705-.782	.024	31.62		
I like going to *team name* games because watching *sport* is fun.	.728	.690-.766	.023	31.50		
Team name games are a fun way to spend my time.	.764	.724-.803	.024	31.75		
Skill					.78	.54
One reason I like *team name* games is being able to see well-executed play.	.663	.628-.698	.021	31.13		
Getting to see the superior skills of college athletes is why I enjoy *team name* games.	.734	.696-.772	.023	31.72		
I like *team name* games because I value seeing some of the top college *sport* players.	.810	.768-.851	.025	32.11		
Drama					.77	.53
I enjoy watching *sport* because of the dramatic turn of events that a game can take.	.810	.767-.852	.026	31.37		
An important reason why I go to games is the excitement of two teams "battling" to the end.	.763	.723-.804	.024	31.15		
I like the suspense of a game where the lead changes back and forth.	.589	.556-.622	.020	29.45		
Escape					.74	.49
For me, *sport* games are an escape from my day-to-day activities.	.729	.690-.768	.024	30.57		
I enjoy *team name* games because they are a great change from what I regularly do.	.690	.652-.727	.023	30.30		
I like going to games because when I'm there I forget about all my troubles and cares.	.688	.651-.726	.023	30.29		

Note. [a] Measured on a scale using 1 = Strongly Agree and 7 = Strongly Disagree
[b] Insert name of team for *team name*
[c] Insert specific sport for *sport*

Table 2

A Comparison of Sport Consumption Motives by Sport: Means (Standard Deviations), F-statistics, and p-value.

Motive[a]	Sport					
	Total Sample	Baseball	Softball	Wrestling	F Statistic	p value
Entertainment	5.80 (1.08)	5.71 (1.11)	5.82 (1.04)	5.90 (1.06)	2.535	n.s.
Skill	5.53 (1.13)	5.17 (1.14)	5.61 (1.04)	5.87 (1.05)	34.812	<.01
Drama	5.34 (1.13)	5.05 (1.12)	5.29 (1.09)	5.82 (1.05)	48.689	<.01
Team Effort	5.26 (1.23)	4.88 (1.27)	5.41 (1.15)	5.57 (1.16)	29.384	<.01
Achievement	4.95 (1.31)	4.72 (1.37)	5.08 (1.27)	5.12 (1.26)	9.506	<.01
Social Interaction	4.88 (1.28)	4.85 (1.24)	4.84 (1.28)	4.96 (1.32)	.881	n.s.
Family	4.80 (1.41)	4.64 (1.44)	4.80 (1.41)	4.98 (1.36)	4.573	<.05
Team Affiliation	4.58 (1.44)	4.42 (1.47)	4.65 (1.40)	4.70 (1.44)	3.493	<.05
Empathy	4.37 (1.52)	4.19 (1.55)	4.43 (1.52)	4.52 (1.45)	4.257	<.05

Note. [a] 1 = Strongly Disagree; 7 = Strongly Agree

[b] A multivariate GLM was utilized to assess whether there were differences across sport relative to the sport consumption motives (L=.826, F = (20, 1870), 9.405, $p<.001$). The univariate F-statistics reported in the table were produced by the MANOVA.

nine of the ten factors showed good internal consistency and construct reliability.

The construct reliabilities for the ten motives ranged from .77 to .86, which exceed the minimum level (.70) recommended by Nunnally and Bernstein (1994). Regarding individual item loadings, Skill, Team Affiliation, and Drama each had one item that did not load at the recommended .707 level (Fornell & Larcker, 1981). Two of the Escape items did not load at the recommended level. The measures of average variance extracted (AVE) for nine of the motives indicated that the amount of variance explained by the constructs was greater than the variance explained by measurement error, including the three constructs that had one item loading below .707. The measure of AVE for Escape indicated that the amount of variance explained by the construct (AVE=0.49) was less than the variance explained by measurement error. The Escape factor was deemed unreliable and consequently was not included in the subsequent data analysis.

Overall Difference Tests

A multivariate GLM was used to assess whether there were significant differences across the three sports with respect to the sport consumer motives. Results indicated that there were significant differences across the three sports (L=.826, $F(20, 1870)=9.405$, $p<.01$) on seven of the nine motives (see Table 2). Entertainment and Social Interaction were the only motives on which there were no significant differences.

For Skill and Drama, there were significant differences across all three sports. Those attending wrestling matches expressed the strongest agreement with the ideas that they enjoyed the athletes' physical skills ($M=5.87$) and the drama of matches ($M=5.82$); consumers of women's softball had the next highest ratings for the two factors ($M=5.61$ and $M=5.29$ respectively).

Those attending baseball games had the lowest ratings for Skill (M=5.17) and Drama (M=5.05).

Consumers of wrestling matches and women's softball games had similar ratings for Team Effort (M=5.57 and M=5.41 respectively) and Achievement (M=5.12 and M=5.08 respectively). The ratings of Team Effort and Achievement for those attending baseball games were neutral (M=4.88 and M=4.72 respectively). The only significant differences for Family, Team Affiliation, and Empathy were between those attending baseball games and those attending wrestling matches. Although the ratings were statistically different, the mean scores on the three motives indicate that across the three sports Family, Team Affiliation, and Empathy were not primary motives driving peoples' interest in the sports.

Discussion and Implications

Sport managers within intercollegiate athletics are faced with the challenge of generating more revenues to offset rising program costs. One option to consider is generating additional revenues from ticket sales for nonrevenue sports. The two-fold purpose of the current study was (1) to identify some of the motives that influence an individual's interest in nonrevenue collegiate sports, and (2) to ascertain whether similar motives influence consumption across multiple nonrevenue sports. Understanding some of the intrapersonal motives that drive consumers' interest in nonrevenue sports will provide sport marketers with information that can be used to develop promotional campaigns to target specific consumer motivations helping to increase attendance, and ultimately offset costs to the programs.

Overall, the results suggest that interest in the three nonrevenue sporting events was based on factors associated with sport in general. Consumers of men's baseball, women's softball, and men's wrestling all rated the sport-related motives (i.e., entertainment, skill, drama, and team effort) higher than the motives pertaining to self-definition (i.e., achievement, empathy, and team affiliation) and motives related to personal benefits (i.e., social interaction and family). These results support the authors' supposition that some sport consumers attend college sporting events based on their enjoyment of watching athletes give their best efforts in a sport they enjoy playing. The higher ratings for the sport-related motives are an important finding for marketers of intercollegiate athletics because they suggest that consumers were most interested in components that are easily promoted.

One implication of the results is that the promotional campaigns of nonrevenue sports may be conducted in a blanket fashion in order to cut or eliminate costs. Considering that there was no significant difference across the sports regarding entertainment value, marketers can decide whether to promote individual sports, or to develop promotions that emphasize the entertainment value of multiple nonrevenue sports. Sport marketers at the intercollegiate level may be able to efficiently cross-promote nonrevenue sports through the use of a single campaign focusing upon the entertainment aspect of various sports, which could include highlighting the skill of the athletes, the drama of events, and/or watching athletes give their best efforts. Other suggestions for cross-promotion include in-game announcements of upcoming events of other in-season events, as well as inserting flyers in sports programs highlighting the entertainment aspects of other in-season nonrevenue sport programs. Going further, athletic programs may develop special offerings like a multisport pass that can be used for attending multiple nonrevenue sporting events.

Looking at the differences between specific sports, the wrestling spectators rated all of the motives higher than the baseball and softball spectators. Similarly, those attending softball games rated all but one of the motives (Social Interaction) higher than the baseball spectators. These findings are noteworthy because they provide information to athletic administrators regarding potential promotional themes for specific nonrevenue sports. For example, because wrestling spectators rated the Drama higher than the baseball spectators, promotional materials for the wrestling matches could focus upon the suspense and uncertainty of outcome associated with wrestling matches.

The lack of strong agreement with eight of the nine motives among those attending baseball games suggests that people attended games just for the entertainment value or, more likely, due to other motives not measured. Considering the differences in the demographic characteristics between the consumers of baseball, softball, and wrestling, other possibilities that bear further investigation are that students may attend nonrevenue sports because of the (generally) low-cost to attend or because they want to enjoy a spring afternoon. Promotional campaigns could focus on the entertainment value in terms of fun at low or no cost, or as a chance to enjoy a beautiful spring day in an effort to foster increased student attendance at baseball games.

A second contribution of the study is extending our knowledge of sport consumer motivations. Previous research has found that people attend sporting events because they are interested in a specific sport or team (Funk et al., 2002), they enjoy the entertainment of sports (James & Ross, 2002), the drama and action of sports (James & Ridinger, 2002; Kwon & Trail, 2001),

and the athletes' physical skills (James & Ross, 2002). Considering the results of previous research and the findings from the current study, two points are important for marketers to consider. First, there are aspects of sport that appeal to consumers that cut across sport and the different levels of sport. The entertainment of sport that is likely drawn from the drama, physical skills, and action associated with sport are motives that may serve as topics for promotional campaigns regardless of the sport or the level of a sport (e.g., college or professional). At the same time, there are specific motives associated with different sports and different levels of a sport that may also be developed in promotional campaigns. For example, marketers of college athletics may concentrate on broad campaigns to attract consumers based on the entertainment of sport, using pictures or clips of multiple sports that emphasize the ideas of drama and action. If the resources are available to focus on specific sports, marketers may choose to highlight motives that have a distinct appeal for specific sports. For example, promotional campaigns for wrestling could focus on the drama involved in matches and the effort put forth by the athletes. In other levels of sport, such as minor league baseball, marketers may focus on the entertainment of games and the opportunity to socialize with friends (James & Ross, 2002). The results suggest that marketers need a better appreciation of sport consumer motivations that cut across sport and those that are unique to specific sports.

As with any study, several limitations should be noted. The current study examined fans of only three sports: men's baseball, women's softball, and men's wrestling. Additional research should examine other nonrevenue sports to determine whether there are other similarities and differences (e.g., volleyball, swimming, tennis, track and field). The current study only measured ten motives thought to influence the consumption of sport. As noted, there was strong agreement only for one of the motives among baseball consumers. Future research should consider what other motives may be unique to different sports. Additional work is also needed to refine and improve the items used to measure sport consumer motives. Finally, the current study only examined intrapersonal motives; future research should examine the influence of demand variables and intrapersonal motives on sport consumption. For example, the low cost to attend nonrevenue sports may be a key motivator for college students. Work should continue in this area in order to provide marketers with a better understanding of the multiple factors that influence sport consumption.

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