Online Sport Consumption Motives: Why Does an Ethnic Minority Group Consume Sports in a Native and Host Country through the Internet?

Jae-Pil Ha¹, Jae-Hyun Ha², Keunsu Han³
1. University of Arkansas at Little Rock
2. Keimyung University in Korea
3. Towson University

Correspondence with:

Jae-Pil Ha
physicalhjp@gmail.com
jxha@ualr.edu
Dept. of Health Sciences
University of Arkansas at Little Rock
Fribourgh Hall 509
Little Rock, AR 72204 USA


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Abstract
Due to the ever-increasing popularity of the Internet, ethnic minority individuals living in a host country can freely follow sports in their native countries through the Internet without any geographic restrictions. In this regard, this study examined differences in online sport consumption motives of South Koreans living in the U.S. between when they consume sports in a native country (South Korea in this study) and when they consume those in a host country (the U.S. in this study). Furthermore, the study attempted to examine the relationship between the online motives and actual usage of sport-related websites in each of the two situations (i.e., consuming sports in South Korea and consuming sports in the U.S. through the Internet). Based on a review of literature on online sport consumption motives, the following eight motives were included in the survey: socialization, information, entertainment, escape, fan expression, pass time, fanship, and technical knowledge. A total of 212 participants were recruited through online and offline surveys. Results of a repeated MANOVA indicated that mean scores for six motives (i.e., socialization, information, entertainment, escape, fan expression, and pass time) were significantly higher in the context of South Korean than American sports. While fanship, entertainment, and pass time motives were significantly related to actual usage of sport-related websites in South Korean sport context, escape, pass time, information, and entertainment motives were significantly related to actual usage of sport-related websites in the American sport context. Implications and future research are also discussed.

Keywords: online sport motivation; ethnic minority; native country; host country
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Introduction

Whatever the purposes (e.g., studying, immigration, business), moving into a new society is a natural and rapidly increasing phenomenon around the world, particularly in pluralistic societies, such as the U.S. Consequently, individuals with diverse cultural backgrounds have come to live together in the U.S. For instance, the U.S. Census Bureau (2011) indicated that the number of ethnic minority individuals in the U.S. already exceeds one-third (approximately 126 million) of the total U.S. population in 2010 (approximately 300.8 million).

In recent years, the growth of minorities has prompted many researchers in sport management and marketing fields to investigate ethnic minorities’ sport consumption behavior for the sake of developing a new or niche market (Armstrong, 1998; Bilyeu & Wann, 2002; Harrolle & Trail, 2007, 2010; Kwon & Trail, 2001; McCarthy, 1998; Wann, Bilyeu, Brennan, Osborn, & Gambouras, 1999). However, the majority of the prior research has concentrated solely on Hispanic and African Americans, while Asians were given little attention (Ko, Claussen, Rinehart, & Hur, 2008). In particular, the efforts made for understanding of Asians’ sport consumption motivations in the U.S. were very limited, despite their tremendous economic potential.

Given that mass marketing strategies are less effective in an increasingly ethnically diverse society, it is crucial for sport marketers and researchers to utilize specific and unique marketing and promotional strategies that target specific ethnic groups. One approach for developing such specific strategies is to delve into what motivates people attending or watching sporting events. Thus, understanding fan motives of specific ethnic groups provides sport marketers an opportunity to utilize the motives as an effective psychographic segmentation method, thereby developing more effective marketing and advertising campaigns (Wann, Grieve, Zapalac, & Pease, 2008).

With the importance of sport fan motivation, prior research has identified a variety of motivation factors based on different criteria, such as: (a) race/nationality (e.g., Bilyeu & Wann, 2002; Wann et al., 1999; Kim, Andrew, & Greenwell, 2009), (b) gender (e.g., Fink & Parker, 2009; James & Ridinger, 2002), and (c) types of sports (e.g., McDonald, Milne, & Hong, 2002; Wann et al., 2008). However, the majority of prior research has
disregarded the impact of cultural differences on sport fan motivations. Furthermore, while the identified motivational factors are almost always grounded in offline context of sport consumption, such as attending sporting events, watching them on TV, and purchasing licensed products, there are still limited numbers of studies on online sport consumption motivation, particularly for an ethnic minority group.

According to Kim et al. (2009), there is a need to compare cultural differences in fan motivations for a similar sport between countries. With this argument, they sought to compare South Korean fans' motivation with American fans' motivation for the same type of sporting event (i.e., Mixed Martial Arts) using a cross-national study design. However, the study failed to provide information on motivation differences for sport consumption of ethnic minority individuals living in the U.S. In addition, they did not provide information as to why ethnic minority individuals follow sports in a native country through the Internet, as well as why they follow sports in a host country. For instance, South Koreans (hereafter Koreans) living in the U.S. may consume either sports in South Korea (hereafter South Korea) or those in the U.S. through the Internet for different reasons. Such online sport viewership of ethnic minority individuals is in large part due to ever-increasing usage and popularity of the Internet that leads to the elimination of geographical restrictions and distance. Thus, there is a need to see if there are differences in motivations for consuming sports through the Internet between a native country and a host country among ethnic minority individuals in the U.S.

Accordingly, the primary purpose of this study was to investigate differences in online sport motivations of an ethnic minority group in the U.S. between when they consume sports of a native country (i.e., Korea in this study) and when they consume those of a host country (i.e., the U.S. in this study) through the Internet. Identifying differences in online sport motivations between the two situations would provide meaningful information for both sport marketers in a native country and host country in attempting to expand fan bases and increase revenues. Furthermore, we also sought to examine the relationship between the motives and their actual usage of sport-related websites (i.e., frequency and time spent) through the Internet in each of the two situations (i.e., consuming sports in Korea and consuming sports in the U.S. through the Internet).

Sport Consumption Motivations

Examination of psychographic, behavioral, and demographic information are essential steps for sport practitioners to attract more sport fans as well as to better
understand their targeted market. Particularly, evaluating psychographic variables is critical for understanding what drives people to involve in sport consumption process. According to the literature on sport consumption behavior, these psychographic variables include fan loyalty, fan identification, fan motivations, and so forth. Among these variables, understanding the motivation factors has become a top priority for sport organizations. Consequently, the study of sport fan motivation has become a major line of research. In spite of the growth of sport fan motivation research, most prior studies have primarily centered on motives for sport consumption in offline environments, including attending sporting events and watching them on television, rather than online sport consumption motivation. To fully understand minority individuals’ online sport consumption motive, therefore, we first need to look at general offline sport consumption motivation before looking at online sport consumption motivation.

**Offline Sport Consumption Motivation**

According to Sloan (1989), sport fan motives for consuming sports in offline environments are grounded in a variety of theories: (a) stress and stimulation, (b) catharsis and aggression, (c) achievement seeking, (d) salubrious effects, and (e) entertainments. First of all, stress and stimulation seeking theories suggest that individuals would make an effort to increase their levels of arousal when they are below the desired levels. Second, catharsis and aggression theories propose that watching aggressive scenes and acts would either increase one’s aggression level or decrease one’s aggression level. Third, achievement seeking theories propose that people meet their needs for achievement through sports. Fourth, salubrious effects theories mean that watching and participation in sports makes individuals feel pleasure and increased mental and physical well-being. Lastly, entertainment theories are associated with one’s attraction to sports due to the characteristics of aesthetic and moral representation that sports have.

During the past twenty years, a number of studies have sought to identify psychological factors that motivate people to attend and watch sports (e.g., Bilyeu & Wann, 2002; Funk, Filo, Beaton, & Pritchard, 2009; Funk, Mahony, & Ridnger, 2002; Trail & James, 2001, Wann, 1995). Even though it is impossible to list all possible sport fans/spectators’ motives, the most widely identified sport consumption motives were derived from the following three scales: (a) the Sport Fan Motivation Scale (SFMS; Wann, 1995), (b) the Motivation Scale for Sport Consumption (MSSC; Trial & James, 2001), and (c) the Sport Interest Inventory (SII; Funk, Mahony, Nakazawa, & Hirakawa,
A variety of motives reflects the aforementioned five theories. Table 1 provides a list of offline sport fan motives included in each of the aforementioned scales. While some motives were identified by all three scales (e.g., aesthetics, drama, socialization, vicarious achievement), other factors were scale-specific (e.g., economic motive, acquisition of the knowledge, national pride, physical attractiveness of the participants).

Table 1. Offline sport fan motives.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SFMS (Wann, 1995)</th>
<th>MSSC (Trail &amp; James, 2001)</th>
<th>SII (Funk et al., 2001)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Eustress/Drama</td>
<td>Achievement</td>
<td>Drama</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Escape from daily life</td>
<td>Acquisition of knowledge</td>
<td>Interest in team</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Entertainment</td>
<td>Aesthetics</td>
<td>Interest in player</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Economic factors (i.e., gambling)</td>
<td>Drama/Eustress</td>
<td>Interest in sport</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Aesthetics (i.e., artistic qualities)</td>
<td>Escape</td>
<td>National pride</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Group affiliation</td>
<td>Physical attractiveness of the athletes</td>
<td>Excitement</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Family needs</td>
<td>Quality of the physical skills</td>
<td>Socialization</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Social interaction</td>
<td>Support for women’s opportunities</td>
<td>Vicarious achievement</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Looking specifically at these various motives, eustress/drama refers to a desire to obtain excitement and stimulation via watching sports (Funk et al., 2002, Trail & James, 2001; Wann et al., 2008). This motive itself reflects the motive of excitement. The escape motive refers to a desire to use sport spectating as a means of escaping from daily life (Sloan, 1989; Trail & James, 2001). Individuals oftentimes watch and attend sporting events as an enjoyable pastime (Wann et al., 2008). This is regarded as entertainment motive. The economic motive is that individuals are attracted to sporting events to have an opportunity for economic gain through wagering (Wann, 1995). The aesthetic quality motive refers to an individual’s desire to watch sports due to the artistic beauty and grace provided by sports itself (Funk et al., 2001, Wann, 1995). This motive is conceptually related to the motive of quality of the physical skills. Socialization, also known as group affiliation or social interaction, is regarded as an individual desire to utilize sport spectating for socializing with others who have similar interests (Kim et al., 2009).
Another important sport fan motive is vicarious achievement. In other words, watching or attending sporting events offers fans an opportunity to meet a desire they cannot fulfill in their real life (Trail & James, 2001). In general, individuals watch sporting events with their family members because sporting events provide a good opportunity to spend time with their family members (Wann, 1995). This motive is particularly important to sport fans who have children (Wann et al., 2008). The motive of national pride refers to an individual’s desire to use sport spectating for the expression of patriotism. As one would expect, this motive is particularly important in international sporting events (e.g., Olympics). The rest of the motives, including interest in sport, team, and player, are that individuals watch/attend sporting events simply because they like a sport, a team, and a player respectively (Funk et al., 2002).

The various motives described above have been examined to segment a variety of sport fans in order to develop effective and efficient marketing strategies and advertising campaigns. In other words, research on sport fan motives assumed that patterns of fans’ motives differ across various sport fan groups.

One of the most widely used criteria to segment patterns of sport fan motives is sport type. In recent years, many studies have been examined to see if there are different motivations based on types of sports, such as women’s sports vs. men’s sports (James & Ridinger, 2002), and team vs. individual sports, aggressive vs. non-aggressive sports and stylistic vs. non-stylistic sports (Wann et al., 2008). For example, Wann and his colleagues (2008) found that aesthetic motive has been shown to be more important in individual sports (e.g., figure skating, gymnastics, boxing etc.), while the motives of self-esteem, entertainment, eustress, and group affiliation were found to be particularly prominent in team sports (baseball, football, hockey etc.). For aggressive versus non-aggressive sports, aesthetics was found to be an important motive for non-aggressive sports (e.g., baseball, figure skating, golf), while economic, eustress, group affiliation, and entertainment were important sport fan motives for aggressive sports (e.g., wrestling, boxing, hockey, football).

**Cultural differences in fans’ motives**

Despite the fact that numerous sport management scholars have attempted to investigate fan motives in offline environments, relatively little attention has been paid to ethnic minority groups, with the exception of African Americans (e.g., Bilyeu & Wann, 2002; Wann et al., 1999). Bilyeu and Wann found that African Americans had higher sport fan motivation scores overall than European Americans. More specifically, the
former showed significantly higher levels of eustress, self-esteem, aesthetic, entertainment, similarity, representation, and equality than did the latter. Furthermore, Armstrong (2002) found a unique motive for African American sports fans, which is called “cultural affiliation.” In her study, cultural affiliation was an effective motive for predicting sport consumption behaviors of African Americans.

In considering the importance of cultural uniqueness to collegiate athletic departments, Kwon and Trail (2001) compared sport consumption motives of American college students with those of international college students. The results of their study indicated that international students had higher overall motivations than American students except for the economic motive (betting).

More recently, Kim et al. (2009) attempted to investigate how American MMA fans’ motivations differ when compared to Korean MMA fans. The findings showed that Korean fans rated higher in the motives of national pride and vicarious achievement than Americans, while American fans rated higher in the motives of sport interest, aesthetic quality, and violence than their Korean counterparts. Even though the study examined cultural difference in fan motivation for the same type of sport (i.e., MMA), they did not examine online sport motivation between when an ethnic minority group consumes sports of a native country through the Internet and when the group consumes sports of a host country.

**The Internet (Online) Sport Consumption Motivation**

In a spectator sport context, traditional offline sport consumption typically refers to attending sporting events and watching them on television or purchasing sport-related products in the events (e.g., merchandise, goods). However, the appearance of new media based on the Internet, including destination websites, Facebook, Twitter, blogs, podcasts, and mobile technology (Flew, 2008), has significantly altered the form of sport consumption behavior. For example, people can easily buy tickets for sporting events or order sporting goods online if they have access to the Internet. Further, online social networks such as Facebook, Twitter and weblogs offer sport fans a great opportunity to interact with other fans, athletes, and coaches (Dittmore, Stoldt, & Greenwell, 2008; Hambrick, Simmons, Greenhalgh, & Greenwell, 2010).

With the increasing usage of the Internet in a sport context, several scholars in sport management have started to investigate why individuals use the Internet for sport-related activities (Hur, Ko, & Valacich, 2007; Seo & Green, 2008). Identified online sport consumption motives from the prior studies include convenience (Hur et al., 2007);
information, technical knowledge, diversion/escape, socialization/interpersonal communication, economic benefits, and entertainment (Hur et al., 2007; Seo & Green, 2008); and fanship, fan expression, pass time (spending free time through sports), and team support (Seo & Green, 2008). These online sport consumption motives parallel offline sport consumption motives such as information and knowledge (Trail & James, 2001), escape (Trail & James, 2001; Wann, 1995), entertainment (Wann, 1995); interest in the sport, team, and players (Funk et al., 2001), and socializing (Funk et al., 2001; Trail & James, 2001; Wann, 1995).

Although the online sport consumption motivation factors identified by the previous research are useful, the definition of online sport consumption motivation is still ambiguous and unclear. Hur et al. (2007) has defined it as “an activated state within a sport consumer that leads to using the Internet for sport-related activities” (p. 524). Based on this definition, the Internet sport consumption can be operationalized in two ways. First, it can be defined as any behavior of obtaining sport-related information (e.g., searching for and gathering information about one’s favorite team, player, coach, or sport). Second, it can be defined as shopping for sport-related products (e.g., purchasing game tickets, sporting goods). In the current study, we defined the Internet sport consumption in concert with the former.

Given that one of the unique characteristics of the Internet is elimination of many obstacles formerly related to geographic distance (Filo, 2011), individuals can now obtain sport-related knowledge and information no matter where they are. In other words, people search for and gather information about their favorite players, teams, or coaches from anywhere in the world. For example, people living in Korea can easily search for and find any information about Shin-Soo Choo, who is playing for the Cleveland Indians in the U.S., in real time via the Internet. Similarly, Koreans living in the U.S. can also follow their favorite teams, sports, and players in Korea. Thus, the elimination of obstacles related to geographic distance made possible by the Internet is particularly critical for ethnic minority groups living in the U.S. when they obtain sport-related information and knowledge of a native country (e.g., Korea).

Minority Consumers in the U.S.: The Emerging Market for Sport

The U.S. is one of the most multicultural nations on Earth, consisting of various ethnic groups such as African, Hispanic, Asian, and others. Due to its diverse cultural backgrounds and values, it comes as no surprise that different consumption behaviors/patterns exist across ethnic groups (Cleveland, Laroche, Pons, & Kasto,
In the same manner, different ethnic sport consumers would show varying behaviors. Particularly, considering the tremendous economic influence ($1.9 trillion in 2014, accounting for 14.6% of the total U.S. buying power; Humphreys, 2009) of these ethnic minority groups in the U.S., sport marketers and researchers need to emphasize the importance of these groups as potential sport consumers. Furthermore, sports marketers should focus on the growth of ethnic minority groups as they represent the most potential consumers of sport (Zhang, Wall, & Smith, 2000). Armstrong (2002) also indicated that “mass marketing strategies are becoming less effective in an increasingly ethnically diverse society, such that sport marketers must ascertain the manner in which different practices may influence the sport behaviors and motives of ethnic minority consumers differently than mainstream consumers” (p. 310).

With the significance of ethnic minority groups, sport marketers and researchers have started to recognize them as viable consumers of sport (Armstrong, 1998, 2002; Claussen, Ko, & Rinehart, 2008; Harrolle & Trail, 2007, 2010; McCarthy, 1998). In an effort to better understand their sport consumption behaviors, some scholars have investigated cross-cultural difference in offline sport consumption motivations (e.g., Kwon & Trail; 2001; Kim et al., 2009). Although the studies examined the cultural differences in fan motives, no study examined online sport consumption motivations among ethnic minority individuals living in the U.S.

After individuals move either permanently or temporarily to a new society, they may either keep identifying with a native culture or accept values for and identify with a host culture (Nguyen, Messe, & Stollak, 1999). Applying the idea to sport consumption behavior, people in the former would be likely to consume sports in a native culture via the Internet, whereas people in the latter would be likely to consume sports in the host culture. On the basis of this concept, it may be true that there are different online sport consumption motives between when individuals consume sports of the native country and when they consume sports of the host country. Considering a highly competitive sport marketplace (Howard & Crompton, 2005), knowing motivation differences between the two situations would provide meaningful information for sport marketers in the native country and host country both in an attempt to expand fan base and increase revenues.
Methodology

Sample

The target population for the study was Korean adults either temporarily (e.g., Korean college student) or permanently (e.g., citizen or alien resident) living in three cities in the Midwestern region of the U.S.. Using a convenience sampling technique, data were collected both online and offline. Mixed survey modes have been very widely used in social science research in order to decrease biases in data collection modes while balancing costs (Groves, Fowler, Couper, & Lepkowski, 2004). Specifically, 166 (68%) online survey participants were recruited through visiting Korean grocery stores, restaurants, and churches across the three cities. With regard to online survey, 78 (32%) participants were recruited from Korean student associations in universities across the three cities. A total of 244 surveys were collected through both online and offline surveys. Of the 244 surveys, 212 surveys were deemed usable, as 32 were uncompleted. The participants consisted of 167 male (78.8%) and 45 female (22.2%). The proportion of males and females in the sample were similar to that in the overall population in the three cities. While 83% \((n = 176)\) of the participants were college or graduate students, 17% \((n = 36)\) were others, such as business persons, spouse of students, professors, and so on. The average age of the participants was 29 years old, ranging from 20 and 37 \((M = 29.22, SD = 4.11)\). For their birthplace, most participants were born in Korea (88.2%), and the average length of residence in the U.S. was 6.21 years.

Questionnaire

Online sport consumption motive. On the basis of review and synthesis of relevant literature on online and offline sport consumption motives (Hur et al., 2007; Funk et al., 2001; Seo & Green, 2008; Trail & James, 2001; Wann 1995), we initially generated a total of 125 items. Given the definition of online sport consumption motivation for the current study (obtaining sport-related information and knowledge via the Internet, not shopping sport-related products), the items that were believed to be most appropriate for this definition and had shown sound psychometric properties were then selected. Through this process, we developed a total of 35 items measuring the following eight motives for online sport consumption: (a) socialization/interpersonal communication (6 items), (b) information (5 items), (c) entertainment (6 items), (d) diversion/escape (6 items), (e) fan expression (3 items), (f) pass time (3 items), (g) fanship (3 items), and (h) technical knowledge (3 items). Then, the selected items were modified to suit either the
Korean or American sport context. A sample item of information motive was, “I use the Internet because I can learn about things happening in sports in (Korea or America).” The response format for the scale was a seven-point Likert scale ranging from (1) strongly disagree to (7) strongly agree.

To establish content and face validity, a panel of experts, consisting of three faculty members whose research lines focus on sport consumption behavior, were asked to review the possible survey items to evaluate whether their content is suitable for measuring the intended constructs. The experts suggested the rewording of three items to eliminate possible confusion, and the removal of five items due to their inappropriateness for measuring corresponding constructs (two items in socialization; three items in entertainment). In addition, one expert suggested combining two of the items in information and escape motives respectively due to similar wording. Based upon the feedback from experts, an eight-factor scale with 28 items was finally used to measure online sport consumption motives.

As mentioned previously, participants were asked to complete the scale relative to when they consume Korean sports in the first application. In the second application, the directions were changed and participants were asked to complete the scale relative to when they consume American sports.

**Actual usage of sport-related websites.** Three items were developed to measure actual usage of sport-related websites. The three items reflected how often and how much time participants use the Internet to obtain sport-related information in each of the two situations (sports in Korea vs. sports in America). As in the online sport consumption motive scale, participants were first asked to complete actual usage relative to Korean sports and then were asked to complete actual usage relative to American sports. An example item is: “How often do you search for news (e.g., game results, schedules, records) about sports in Korea on the Internet?” The items for actual usage were measured with a seven-point Likert scale anchored by None (1), About once a month (2), About twice a month (3), About once a week (4), About twice a week (5), About once a day (6), and About more than twice a day (7).

**Demographics.** Demographic information, including age, gender, length of residence in the U.S., and generational status were collected from participants in the current study.

**Process**

To achieve the primary purpose of the study, participants were first asked to complete the online sport consumption motivation scale relative to their motives for using
the Internet when they follow certain sports, teams, players, or coaches of the native country (Korea in this study). Later, they were asked to complete the scale again, but this time relative motives for using the Internet when they follow those of the host country (the U.S.). Hence, we compared their motives across the different online sport consumption situations.

Data Analysis

Descriptive statistics (means and standard deviations) of the eight motives and actual usage of sport-related websites were calculated in two different situations. Internal consistency reliability of the online sport consumption motivation scale was analyzed using Cronbach’s alpha coefficients. When examining internal consistency for measures in social science, Cronbach’s alpha coefficients greater than .70 are assumed to be adequate (Nunnally & Bernstein, 1994). Convergent validity was analyzed through Average Variance Extracted (AVE). AVE values greater than .50 indicate adequate convergent validity according to Fornell and Larcker (1981).

To achieve the primary purpose of the current study, we used a repeated measure Multivariate Analysis of Variance (MANOVA) to examine online sport consumption motivation differences between when participants are in the context of Korean sports and when they are in the context of American sports. The within group variable was type of sport context (sports in Korea vs. sports in America). The dependent variables were the scores on the eight motives.

To achieve the secondary purpose, we conducted a stepwise regression analysis separately for Korean sport context and American sport context to examine the relationship between online sport consumption motives and actual usage of sport-related websites. Through a stepwise regression analysis, the variable (motive) that explained the most variance on actual usage was entered first. The variable that was entered next explained the most remaining variance in actual usage, and so forth.

Results

Descriptive Statistics

In the context of Korean online sport consumption, information ($M = 5.60$, $SD = 1.12$) was the most important motive followed by entertainment ($M = 4.92$, $SD = 1.08$), pastime ($M = 4.41$, $SD = 1.48$), and fanship ($M = 4.31$, $SD = 1.53$). Similarly, in the context of American online sport consumption, information ($M = 4.85$, $SD = 1.15$) was also the most important motive followed by entertainment ($M = 4.51$, $SD = 1.24$),
technical knowledge \((M = 4.21, SD = 1.48)\), and fanship \((M = 4.20, SD = 1.72)\). With respect to mean scores and SDs for actual usage of sport-related websites, participants reported that they used the Internet more than once a week to check out either sports in Korea \((M = 4.33, SD = 1.67)\) or those in America \((M = 4.08, SD = 1.96)\). Table 2 contains a complete list of the means and SDs for motivations and actual usage by two different situations.

Table 2. Means, standard deviations of online sport consumption motives and actual usages of sport-related websites by sport contexts.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Motives</th>
<th>Sports in Korea</th>
<th>Sports in America</th>
<th>M</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>M</th>
<th>SD</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Socialization</td>
<td>3.70</td>
<td>1.35</td>
<td>3.17</td>
<td>1.49</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Information</td>
<td>5.60</td>
<td>1.12</td>
<td>4.85</td>
<td>1.15</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Entertainment</td>
<td>4.92</td>
<td>1.08</td>
<td>4.51</td>
<td>1.24</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Diversion/Escape</td>
<td>4.35</td>
<td>1.05</td>
<td>3.93</td>
<td>1.19</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fan Expression</td>
<td>3.55</td>
<td>1.46</td>
<td>3.27</td>
<td>1.43</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pass Time</td>
<td>4.41</td>
<td>1.48</td>
<td>3.99</td>
<td>1.51</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fanship</td>
<td>4.31</td>
<td>1.53</td>
<td>4.20</td>
<td>1.72</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Technical Knowledge</td>
<td>4.15</td>
<td>1.23</td>
<td>4.21</td>
<td>1.48</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Actual Usage</td>
<td>4.33</td>
<td>1.67</td>
<td>4.08</td>
<td>1.96</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Scale Reliability and Validity

Cronbach’s alpha values for all motives in the two settings were deemed acceptable since the values were greater than the traditional cut-off of .70 (Nunally & Berstain, 1994), ranging from .80 (escape) to .95 (fan expression) in Korean sports and ranging from .89 (escape) to .97 (fan expression) in American sports. The AVE values for all the motives were greater than .50, indicating good construct validity except for escape (AVE = .45) in Korean sports. AVE values and Cronbach’s alpha values for the eight online motives in each situation were reported in Table 3. Since the online motive scale showed sound psychometric properties in each of the two situations, it was employed in the following repeated measure MANOVA and multiple regression procedures.
Table 3. Cronbach’s Alpha Coefficients (α), and AVE Values for Online Motivation Scale in Two Settings.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Motives and Items</th>
<th>Sports in Korea</th>
<th>Sports in America</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Socialization</strong></td>
<td>α</td>
<td>AVE</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I like to chat with people through the Internet about sports in (country)</td>
<td>.87</td>
<td>.67</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I like to share my opinions about sports teams, players, or coaches in (country) through the Internet</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I enjoy debating current issues on the Internet regarding sports in (country)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I use sport-related websites regarding sports in (country) because it shows me how to get along with others</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Information</strong></td>
<td>.92</td>
<td>.75</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The information about (country) sports I receive through the Internet is useful</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I can get various information about sport in (country) such as team performance, player profiles, and game schedule through the Internet</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I use the Internet because I am able to obtain a wide range of information about sports in (country)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I use the Internet because I can learn about things happening in sports in (country)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Entertainment</strong></td>
<td>.89</td>
<td>.74</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>To me, consuming sports in (country) through the Internet is simply a form of recreation</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I enjoy consuming sports in (country) through the Internet because of their entertainment value</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I enjoy consuming sports in (country) through the Internet simply because it is a good time</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Diversion/Escape</strong></td>
<td>.80</td>
<td>.45</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Using (country) sport-related websites excites me</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Using (country) sport-related websites arouses my emotions and feelings</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Using (country) sport-related websites provides an outlet for me to escape my daily routine</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
I use (country) sport-related websites because it allows me to enter a non-thinking, relaxing period
I use (country) sport-related websites because I can forget about work

**Fan Expression**

I use (country) sport-related websites because I can express myself through communication contents (message board, chat, . . .)
I use (country) sport-related websites because I can form my own opinion through communication contents (message board, chat, . . .)
I use (country) sport-related websites because I enjoy interacting with other fans on the Internet

**Pass Time**

I use (country) sport-related websites because it gives me something to do to occupy my time
I use (country) sport-related websites because it passes the time away, particularly when I’m bored
I use (country) sport-related websites during my free time

**Fanship**

One of the main reasons I use (country) sport-related websites is that I consider myself a fan of certain players or coaches in (country)
One of the main reasons I use (country) sport-related websites is that I am a huge fan of certain sports in general
One of the main reasons I use (country) sport-related websites is that I consider myself to be a big fan of my favorite team in (country)

**Technical Knowledge**

I use (country) sport-related websites because I want to know the technical aspects of sports in (country)
I use (country) sport-related websites because I want to know the rules of sports in (country)
I use (country) sport-related websites because I want to know sports in (country)
Tests of Repeated MANOVAs

To investigate online motivation differences between the two situations, a repeated measure MANOVA was performed. The overall MANOVA was statistically significant, \( F(8, 204) = 26.73, p < .01, \) with \( \eta^2 = .51 \). Follow-up univariate tests revealed significant differences due to sport contexts (sports in Korea vs. sports in America) in the following six motives: socialization \( [F(1, 211) = 81.10, p < .01, \eta^2 = .27] \), information \( [F(1, 211) = 127.04, p < .01, \eta^2 = .37] \), entertainment \( [F(1, 211) = 39.20, p < .01, \eta^2 = .15] \), escape \( [F(1, 211) = 44.02, p < .01, \eta^2 = .17] \), fan expression \( [F(1, 211) = 32.81, p < .01, \eta^2 = .13] \), and pass time \( [F(1, 211) = 39.45, p < .01, \eta^2 = .15] \). As shown in Table 2, mean scores for all six motives were significantly higher for those in the context of Korean sports than their counterparts.

Tests of Relationship between Motives and Actual Usage of the Internet

Table 4 displays the results of stepwise regression analyses by sports context. For the stepwise regression with Korean sport context, fanship, entertainment, and pass time were significant predictors for actual usage of sport-related website. The final model with the three motives was statistically significant, \( F(3, 208) = 230.62, p < .001, \) Adjusted \( R^2 = .76 \), indicating 76% of variance in actual usage of the Internet was accounted for by the above three motives. The standardized regression coefficient (\( \beta \)) revealed that fanship (\( \beta = .65 \)) explained the most variance, followed by entertainment (\( \beta = .20 \)), and pass time (\( \beta = .19 \)).

For the stepwise regression with American sport context, the following four motives were significant predictors for actual usage of sport-related websites: escape, pass time, information, and entertainment. The final model with the four motives was also statistically significant, \( F(4, 207) = 63.09, p < .001, \) Adjusted \( R^2 = .54 \), indicating 54% of variance in actual usage of the Internet was accounted for by the four motives. The standardized regression coefficient (\( \beta \)) indicated that escape (\( \beta = .96 \)) explained the most variance, followed by pass time (\( \beta = .44 \)), information (\( \beta = .35 \)), and entertainment (\( \beta = .28 \)).
Table 4. Results of Stepwise Regressions by Sports Contexts.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sports Context</th>
<th>IVs</th>
<th>B</th>
<th>β</th>
<th>t</th>
<th>R²</th>
<th>ADJ R²</th>
<th>F</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Korea</td>
<td>Fanship</td>
<td>.72</td>
<td>.65</td>
<td>16.60***</td>
<td>.76</td>
<td>.76</td>
<td>230.62***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Entertainment</td>
<td>.32</td>
<td>.20</td>
<td>4.78***</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Pass Time</td>
<td>.21</td>
<td>.19</td>
<td>3.84***</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>U.S.</td>
<td>Escape</td>
<td>1.58</td>
<td>.96</td>
<td>10.00***</td>
<td>.54</td>
<td>.54</td>
<td>63.09***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Pass Time</td>
<td>.57</td>
<td>.44</td>
<td>6.29***</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Information</td>
<td>.60</td>
<td>.35</td>
<td>5.48***</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Entertainment</td>
<td>.44</td>
<td>.28</td>
<td>3.55***</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note. *** p < .001

Discussion and Conclusion

The aim of this research was to understand differences in online sport consumption motivations of an ethnic minority group living in the U.S. by offering two situations following sports of a native country (i.e., Korea in this study) and those of a host country (i.e., the U.S. in this study) through the Internet. In addition, the current study concentrated on the relationship between the online sport consumption motivations and actual usage of sport-related websites based on frequency and time spent in each of the two situations (i.e., consuming sports in Korea and consuming sports in the U.S. through the Internet).

The Online Sport Consumption Motivation

The current study used a total of 28 items with eight motivation factors in order to measure online sport consumption motivations. From the descriptive analysis, the results suggest that information and entertainment were two highest motivation factors in both situations. When it comes to the information factor, the results were consistent with existing research (Hur et al., 2007, Hur, Ko, & Claussen, 2011) indicating that getting information and knowledge regarding sport teams, players, coaches, and current trends of sport industry was one of the most important motives of online sport consumption. With respect to the entertainment factor, the findings also support a previous study (Ko, Park, & Claussen, 2008) that stated that fun/enjoyment is an important reason why people were motivated by sports. These two notable motives from these results were...
also consistent with a Sport Website Acceptance Model (SWAM) developed by Hur et al. (2011). This model suggests that providing sport fans with rich and relevant information about their favorite teams or players to meet their needs through websites enables sports fans to have access to sports-related websites. Further, the SWAM suggests that perceived level of enjoyment determines sports fans’ acceptance of sports-related websites (Hur et al., 2011). Therefore, when sport practitioners design sport-related websites, they should make it easy for fans to find the desired information, which will in turn lead to enjoyment.

Based on these findings, sport marketers first need to understand what specific information sport fans want. Rather than providing simple information such as game schedules, its results, or athletes’ profiles, useful, relevant, and timely updated information about what sports fans are interested should be on their websites. In addition, when it comes to entertainment factor, individuals typically tend to be motivated to have an enjoyable time (Wann et al., 2008). In the context of online sport consumption, enjoyment is defined as “the extent to which a sports fan’s use of a sport website is perceived to be enjoyable” (Hur et al., 2011, p. 215). To meet sports fans’ entertainment motive, it is critical for sport marketers to place greater emphasis on enjoyable contents in websites, such as video highlights of today’s games, interviews with players or coaches, chatting space on a board, and so on.

With the rapid growth of ethnic minority populations and their economic power, there seems little doubt that it is critical to analyze their sport consumption motivations to increase revenue in the sport industry (Armstrong, 1998; Bilyeu, et al., 2002; McCarthy, 1998; Wann, et al., 1999). Furthermore, through the technological development and increasing popularity of the Internet, it is possible for sport fans to watch their favorite sports, teams, players, or coaches through the Internet without any geographic and temporal limitations (Coakley, 2006; So & Morrison, 2004). In this sense, examining online sport consumption motivations with cultural differences of an ethnic minority group might be meaningful, in that most previous research has placed more emphasis on cultural differences of offline sport consumption motivation (Bilyeu, et al.; Ko, et al., 2008) or online sport consumption motivation without examining the influence of cultural differences on sport motivations (Hur, et al., 2007; Seo & Green, 2008). Also, from the proposed two situations (American sports vs. Korean sports), it might not only offer new directions for future research, but also provide useful information to sport marketers in
terms of identifying specific motives that apply to ethnic minority individuals in the two different situations.

While comparing sport fans’ motivations across the different online sport consumption situations, there were several differences in online sport consumption motivations between when people followed the sports in a native country (i.e., Korea in this study) and when they followed the sports of a host country (i.e., the U.S. in this study) via the Internet. Specifically, significant differences were detected in the six motivation factors socialization, information, entertainment, diversion/escape, fan expression, and pass time, and mean scores for all the six motives were higher in the context of Korean sports than in the context of American sports. Considering that most participants in this research were born in and spent their childhood in Korea, these findings can be understood more easily.

First, there are significant differences in socialization and information factors. Specifically, participants are more motivated in these two factors when following sports of a native country. Since ethnic minority individuals living in the U.S. might not be fluent in English skills, it is plausible that they might prefer to obtain information about popular sports of a native country with their native language. In addition, if family members and friends share the same language, they particularly need to follow the sports of their native country through the Internet in order to communicate with them. Further, sport consumption through the Internet might be the best way to follow the sports of a native country since it is almost impossible to learn about Korean sports through television or magazines in the U.S.

Second, there are also significant differences in entertainment, escape, and pass time motives, which were rated higher in Korean sports context than in American sports context. Previous research (Livingston, 1993) indicated that ethnic minorities encounter more stress when adapting to a new society due to cultural differences. As such, in order to address such stressful symptoms in the new society, ethnic minority individuals might be more likely to consume sports of the native country for the purposes of entertainment, escape, and pass time. Further, considering that the language barrier is one of the most significant constraints to participate in sports within a host society (Hudson, Hinch, Walker, & Simson, 2010), individuals are more likely to follow sports of their native country than those of a host country. Therefore, from a practical point of view, it is critical for sport marketers in the U.S. to offer various language options on sports-related websites to attract more ethnic minority individuals as a way of expanding their fan base.
Third, participants rated significantly higher in fan expression motivation factor in the Korean than American sport context. Given that the Internet has eliminated geographical limitations, it could be predicted that the participants could have higher motivation scores when directly communicating with certain sports, teams, players, or coaches of a native country with their native language. In particular, because the advent of social network systems (SNS) enables sport fans to interact with their favorite athletes at any time and anywhere, there is no limitation for fan expression through the Internet, particularly in the Korean sport context, although the participants in this study are living in the US. In other words, if this study is implemented to examine offline sport consumption motivation between the two situations, the results in the fan expression motivation factor could be the complete opposite of those actually obtained.

**Actual Usage of Sport-related Websites**

With respect to the relationship between actual usage of sport-related websites and consumption motivation in the Korean context, the results showed that fanship, entertainment, and pass time were significant predictors for actual usage of sport-related websites when following sports of a native country (Korea). In light of their situation of living in the U.S., the reason they seek these three motivation factors by connecting Korean sports-related websites might be due to their language difficulties and cultural differences. In that sense, Korean sport marketers should seek to enhance their online contents in terms of fanship, entertainment, and pass time. For instance, if the Korean sport websites enable them to obtain information related to Korean athletes playing in the U.S. such as Shin-Soo Choo (Cleveland Indians) or K. J. Choi (Professional Golf Association), it would be an effective marketing strategy.

In terms of the American context, escape, pass time, information, and entertainment were significant predictors for actual usage of sport-related websites when following sports of a host country (U.S.). Of course, like the Korean context, it might be very important for sport marketers in the U.S. to offer online content regarding Korean athletes in the U.S. The U.S. sport marketers also need to focus on various promotional events for ethnic minorities. Further, they should put more effort into creating diverse language services that address language barriers in consuming the sports of a host country through the Internet. In addition, recruiting competitive international athletes will be one of the most effective strategies to attract sport fans of ethnic minority groups (Ko, Claussen et al., 2008). These efforts are absolutely necessary to attract ethnic minority
groups who have rapid population growth and purchasing power as sport fans in the U.S. sport industry.

**Limitation and Future Research**

The primary limitation of the current study is that most participants are young international college students. Even though this sample could elucidate why sport fans consume sport contents through the Internet, the results of the study cannot be generalized to general Korean adults in the U.S. because it may be natural that there are different characteristics (e.g., level of English skills, length of residence in the US, age) between Korean students and general Korean adults. Hence, future research needs to investigate motivation differences between young Korean adults and general Korean adults based on different sport consumption contexts.

This study is also limited in that only Korean sport fans, as an ethnic minority group living in the U.S., were surveyed. Thus, the results cannot be generalized to other ethnic minority groups living in the U.S. Given that African American and Hispanic groups are regarded as the two biggest population segments in the U.S., it is strongly recommended for future research to explore online sport consumption motivation of such major ethnic minority groups (Pollard & O’Hare, 1999) as previous researchers have done in offline sport consumption motivation. In addition, given that access to the Internet varies among ethnic minority individuals, future research needs to focus on individuals having a variety of Internet environments, speeds, or capabilities.

As mentioned earlier, every sport consumption process takes place in one of two circumstances: (a) offline and (b) online. Although Koreans in a host country can engage in offline sport consumption process (e.g., attending sporting events and watching them on TV) especially when consuming sports of the host country, the current study is limited by examining their sport consumption behaviors in online context, not offline. In addition, the current study has primarily defined online sport consumption as obtaining sport-related information rather than shopping sport-related products or goods. Considering its tangible economic benefits, future research needs to concentrate on consumption behavior to purchase sport-related products. In particular, by understanding consumers’ propensity, sport marketers would be able to establish marketing strategies based on findings of the research. In contrast to sport fan motivation, there are also constraints for them to obstruct sport consumption through the Internet such as language and cultural differences. Similarly, study of possible concerns about online sport consumption, such as security and privacy, delivery, product quality, and customer service (Hur et al., 2007)
is also needed for future research with an ethnic minority group. Lastly, to fully understand ethnic minority individuals’ sport consumption behavior, cultural-related factors or theories (e.g., acculturation and ethnic identity) should be explored in the future research (Ha, Ha, & Greenwell, 2011).

Lastly, Berry (1997) suggested that the longer people reside in a host country, the more they consume products or services of the host country. However, this study did not control the length of residence in a host country, as allowing both the U.S. born Koreans and native Koreans to fill out survey. Therefore, future research may need to control the length of residence as a covariate or employ a moderator in data analysis.

In conclusion, information and entertainment were the most important motives for online sport consumption in both sport consumption contexts (consuming Korean sports through the Internet and consuming U.S. sports through the Internet). Additionally, the current study found that there were significant differences in online sport consumption motivation between the two consumption contexts. With this in mind, it is critical for sport practitioners to utilize different marketing strategies according to different situations (sports in a native country vs. sports in a host country). The results of the study contribute to expanding the body of knowledge in the current motives literature and provide meaningful information for sport practitioners to develop ethnic minority groups as a niche market. If the limitations revealed in the study are minimized, sport organizations and teams could utilize the unlimited potentials of online sport consumption for ethnic minority groups anywhere in the world.

References


Ha J. -P., Ha, J., & Greenwell (2011). *The conceptual linkages among acculturation, ethnic identity, points of attachment, and consumption behavior in spectator sports*. 86
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