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The influence of motives of sports fans on affinity for television, Internet, radio, and newspapers

Christopher Edward Lasak

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THE INFLUENCE OF MOTIVES OF SPORTS FANS ON AFFINITY FOR

TELEVISION, INTERNET, RADIO, AND NEWSPAPERS

A Project

Presented to the

Faculty of

California State University,

San Bernardino

In Partial Fulfillment

of the Requirements for the Degree

Master of Arts

in

Interdisciplinary Studies:

Integrated Marketing Communication

by

Christopher Edward Lasak

September 2001

THE INFLUENCE OF MOTIVES OF SPORTS FANS ON AFFINITY FOR

TELEVISION, INTERNET, RADIO, AND NEWSPAPERS

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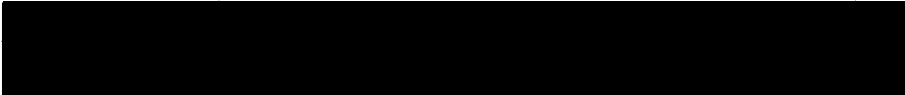California State University,

San Bernardino

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by

Christopher Edward Lasak

September 2001

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ABSTRACT

This study investigated the relationship between motives of sports fans, and affinity for television, Internet, radio, and newspapers. Specifically, escape, economic, aesthetic, eustress, self-esteem, group affiliation, entertainment, and family motives all were expected to influence affinity for television, Internet, radio and newspapers. Using data collected from 254 students enrolled in communication studies classes this study examined this relationship. Fan motivations was measured on Wann's measure, affinity for types of media were assessed with a modified measure of Rubin's Television Motives Scale. Analysis indicated sports fan motives were related to television viewing and Internet use.

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What a great time in my life today is! It is amazing how much I have been through and all the time I have spent in my college career. I can still remember my first day in college, when I was struggling in some classes and didn't know if I would ever get my college degree. Well, I finally buckled down, made it to that point to get my degree and actually exceeded it with a Masters degree. There are many people that have helped me so much during my college career, and without their help this would have been a much more difficult process. These individuals definitely deserve a great deal of thanks.

First, I would like to thank my parents for being the best that anyone could ever ask for. You built the drive in me that has made me successful so far. Everything I have learned in my life has come from you. You are the greatest teachers. You have always taught me to work hard and never give up in everything I do, and that's the greatest lesson that I could have ever learned. You have also taught me that school comes first and everything else is secondary, which is important to grasp early in your college career. I can't begin to tell you how much your lessons have meant to me throughout my collegiate career. I love you so much for being the greatest parents and

truly appreciate all that you have done for me. I couldn't

have done it without you! I love you!

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for being the best girlfriend and friend that I could ever

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deal of valuable information from you. Thanks!

TABLE OF CONTENTS

LIST OF TABLES

CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

Sport fan motivations involve those type of reasons whereby fans are enthusiastic about a particular sport or athlete. Media affinity is an attitude toward a type of medium that reflects the importance people assign to the medium or specific programs. However, relatively little or anything is known about variations in types mediums and motivations of sports fans. The purpose of this study is to fill this void by examining how respondents' self-reported sport fan motivations are differentially affected by types of media.

Background

Integrated marketing communications (IMC) is the coordination of advertising, publicity, sales promotion, point-of-purchase communications, direct marketing, and event marketing with each other and with other elements of a brand's marketing mix (Shimp, 2000). IMC is also realigning communications to look at it the way the consumer sees it (Schultz, Tannenbaum, & Lauterborn, 1993). Two key database ingredients that are essential to any integrated marketing communication planner or marketer are segmenting consumers or prospects attitudes and

behaviors and media fragmentation. Traditional marketers agree that demographics, psychographics, and purchase history are important factors in segmenting customers and prospects. More recently, IMC researchers recognize that an expanded database that examines how consumers associate specific information seeking behaviors about products and services with media use is needed. In particular, Schultz, et al. (1993) observed, "technology has allowed media organizations to begin identifying, segmenting, selecting, and attracting smaller, more attentive and focused audiences for their audio, video, internet, and print vehicles" (p. 21).

Despite overall acknowledgement of the importance of expanding consumer segmenting factors and their relationship to a "fragmented" media, evidence in support of these IMC database variables is largely unknown. To further enhance our understanding of consumer media effects, this study will explore how specific sports fan motivations are associated with four main types of media. The paper will begin by discussing the uses and gratifications theoretical perspective and the sports fan motivations to provide the conceptual background for the study.

The uses and gratification theory and its model is designed to assist in dealing with and explaining people's behavior with regards to media usage and the gratifications or rewards derived from its use (Conway & Rubin, 1991). Obtaining information and understanding why people select certain media is crucial if one wants to understand the uses and gratification theory. Researchers are constantly trying to find out what specific gratifications the audience receives from the mass media, in particular television, newspaper, Internet, and radio (Rubin, 1979). According to Rubin (1981a), there are five main assumptions to the "uses and gratification model" that are widely used and explained by many authors and used in many studies. The areas to this model all represent an attempt to explain the way individuals apply communications to satisfy their needs and to fulfill their goals.

The audience is instituted of as active; therefore, goal direction may be an important part of mass medium use and selection. Greenberg (1974) feels that a main difference between uses and gratification model compared to other models has to do with the audience being actively involved in the media usage. For example, the web is a medium that applies to this model since it requires a

great deal of consumer involvement, as well as the

television medium, which offers gratifications such as

control over viewing and diversity of selection.

Much initiative in bringing together need

gratification and media choice is based on the audience

member. According to Rubin and Rubin (1982) the medium

does nothing directly to the audience member, and that the

audience member is the most active in the relationship.

The audience uses the medium, as opposed to the mass

medium that uses them. In agreement, Littlejohn (1999)

feels that even though the audience member experiences

specific gratifications from the media, he or she is not

solely controlled by the message or medium. Rather, the

audience customizes mass communication to their unique

liking to accomplish satisfying their needs. Also, the

audience exhibits a certain amount of diversity in linking

gratifications to messages of the media audience members.

Therefore, an individual's values, needs, beliefs, and

motives affect certain behavior such as media selection,

media use, and media exposure. As opposed to other

communication models that focus mainly on the content,

this particular model's emphasis is on, both the medium

and the audience. Also in agreement with this assumption,

Huesca and Dervin (1994) explains how the uses and

gratification theory revolves around how situational and personality factors gives certain expectations of need gratification that need to be satisfied through media, media messages, or other alternatives. He feels that it deals with the question, is the medium in use providing the user or viewer with the wants and needs they are seeking from that particular medium and is it satisfying them. Many of the goals that the audience seeks through mass media use can be obtained from data. People are aware what interests and motivates themselves towards media use and they are the best to be able to confront in order to gain research substance. According to Meryrowitz (1993), the uses and gratification model deals with how people are motivated to use the mass media in order to gain gratifications or happiness to please themselves. Gratifications, as a result of using media, may be experienced by specific messages that the medium provides, the ease or availability of using the medium, and particular attributes of the medium itself.

While audience orientations are explored individually, value judgments about cultural importance should be put to halt. This assumption includes particular affinities and contrasts between the uses of gratification

approach and consideration must be given to speculative

writing about popular culture.

Based on numerous studies and rigorous time and

effort put into studying this topic, audience

gratifications has been shown to come from three main

sources: media content, media exposure, and the social

context that embodies situations of exposure to various

media (Katz, Blumler, & Gurevitch, 1974). These

researchers feel that all the different forms of mediums

tend to offer distinct characteristics in which audience

members are interested in. A number of specific

gratifications have been identified and are said to be

related to the use of mass media. For example, it has been

suggested that some of the reasons people read newspapers

is due to the need for information, social fame, social

impact, and respite (Rubin, Perse, & Powell, 1985).

Another study showed that some of the main gratifications

from using the radio medium include forming companionship,

relieving boredom, passing time, as well as acquiring

important knowledge. In addition, gratifications gained

from using the television medium include leisure,

entertainment, habit, need of information, and a departure

from everyday life. Greenberg (1974) states that there are

seven main reasons that attract audience members to watch

television. They are: watching as a habit, watching for arousal, watching to learn, watching for companionship, watching to relax, watching to forget, and watching to pass time. Finally, users expect different gratifications when using the Internet. Individuals are seeking more than just plain information whenever they go online. There are seven proposed motivations that are said to attract users to going online. They are: social escapism motivation, transaction-based security and privacy dealings, interactive control motivation, information motivation, socialization motivation, non-transactional privacy concerns, and economic motivations. Sports have always been a big interest for the majority of people in the world and continues to be to this day. Sports is universal since it is a subject that most people have some sort of knowledge of and initiating conversations about it involves little risk (Rubin & Rubin, 1982). Watching sports is such a fascinating form of entertainment, watched by millions of people, that if sports disappeared forever, many people would feel that the world would be a less exciting place. Even though a high percentage of the population is somehow involved with sports, either as a fan or a sports player, there has not been much empirical research that has focused on these individuals (Wann,

1997). Actually, there has only been 4% of the research on sports that has centered on sports fans (Wann & Hamlet, 1995).

A fan can be defined as one who is enthusiastic, empowering, generating pleasure and passion about a particular sport or athlete, and a non-fan is one who is just plainly observing a sporting event, whether in-person or not (Wann, 1997). According to Zillman, Bryant and Sapolsky (1989), being a fan gives a person a sense of feeling, sharing, loyalty and belonging. A main difference between the fan and the non-fan is that the fan feels that winning and losing matters, while the non-fan isn't interested and doesn't care too much about the final results (Smith, 1988). According to Duncan (1983), sports fans don't mind the hardships like waiting for hours in line to get tickets to a game, going to games even in terrible weather, or even dealing with defeat during a long, miserable season. Gantz (1981) adds that sports fans can experience the struggles of a bad season and the good moments of a team or athlete. In addition, non-fans simply watch the sports event and soon forget about it when it is over, while the sports fan' interest continues throughout the entire season (Branscombe & Wann, 1991). Gantz and Wenner (1995) argue that non-fans don't plan to watch the

game well in advance, and emotionally, they are much more passive and inactive in nature. Overall, the non-sports fans were much more uninvolved and less passionate towards sports.

Even though there has been a lack of research on sports fans, the previous research has focused on fan identification a great deal (Wann & Branscombe, 1991; Wann, Dolan, 1994; Wann, Schrader, & Adramson, 2000). As noted by Wann (1997), fan identification is defined as how individuals see themselves as fans and how they relate to the team, see the team as a reflection of themselves, and are very much concerned about the way the team performs. Wann and Branscombe (1991) found that highly identified fans were more involved with a team, were more positively related to having concern for the team performance and future predictions, and felt that it was very significant for their friends to also like this particular team, as opposed to those who identified lowly or moderately with the team.

Wann (1997) argues that it is possible for fans to make a difference in the outcome of sport competitions by cheering a particular team on. However, only those fans that highly identify themselves with a sport team should feel that they have the ability to somehow control the

outcome of the contest. Wann (1997) found a positive

relationship between sports fans level of identification

and the attempts to control sporting events results. These

highly-identified fans also recognize the crowd as being a

big lift to the team and give credit to the crowd for

helping to attempt to be a force in the outcome of the

sporting event.

Verbal aggression has also been a popular topic with

regards to sports fans. Zillmann, Bryant, and Sapolsky

(1989), argue that most of the aggression by sports fans

has to do with the verbal derogation of others, which is

done to improve that persons overall self-esteem.

According to Littlejohn (1999), the severity of damage

associated with verbal aggression ranges anywhere from

harming someone's self-concept to harming relationships

with other people. When individuals are not successful in

arguing their viewpoints competently or if their team is

having negative results in a game, verbal aggression can

act as an active device for certain violent acts and

violent behavior. Due to the lack of ability of

controlling a player while watching a game, these fans

sometimes get very angry with results or outcomes, and the

anger may lead to some sort of physical aggression

(Littlejohn, 1999). These people who partake in verbal

aggression, become frustrated and, instead of resolving their frustration in an appropriate manner, they use aggressive communication to try to make up for their frustrations. In addition, Wann (1997) reported sports fans who highly identify with a particular sports team are positively related to fan exhibition and verbal response appropriateness.

In addition, other research on sports fans has focused on group affiliation and group membership. According to Wann (1997), affiliation or being in a group is very important to sports fans, which represents the social nature of being a sports fan. Gantz and Wenner (1995) found similar results, stating that TV sports are tailored for a shared viewing experience, among groups of people with similar fanship and feelings towards a team. A Joiners' scale was introduced to find out which particular individuals make an effort to join and sustain memberships in certain groups and which do not (Wann, 1995). Wann (1997) reported that even though some differences have been found between those in team and individual sports, there is no difference between those certain athletes involved in different sports either as a fan or a player, with regards to their desire to join and maintain group membership. According to Sloan (1989), fans actually feel

as if they belong to a very important group, with their relationship with the team.

In addition, group membership is related to the social identity theory. The social identity theory argues that the best way to self-enhance a person is to find ways to achieve and maintain a sense of in-group superiority compared to the out-group (Gantz & Wenner, 1995). One reason people like to join groups is that they want to see the in-group, the group people join, as being completely different and unique from other groups. Each group feels that they are superior to other groups. This theory relates with the sports world too. For example, sport fans of a particular team feel that they are in a special group, far superior to the rest of the fans of teams throughout the league. This type of feeling is a form of in-group favoritism.

Throughout the previous research on sports fans, much has been focused on degree of identification with a team, verbal aggression, and group affiliation. However, there has not been little attention placed on media usage that sports fans prefer or use to follow their team. Therefore, this new area would be a good addition to combine with the Sports Fan Motivation Scale, to find out what motivates fans and what mediums these people seek when they want to

obtain information about their team or sport. Much of this new issue, relating to what particular medium's people choose over others is based on theories of Communication Media Usage.

Previous research on mass media suggests that the Internet medium has become a much bigger player lately in the battle for media selection among individuals. McLeod and Becker (1974) feels that the demographics of Internet users are abruptly starting to change and resemble the diversity of the American population, meaning more and more nationalities and different ages are interested now too. Researchers are predicting that by the end of the year that 32% of black households in the U.S., 39% of white households, 43% of Hispanic, and 67% of Asian-American households will be using this new online medium. Of all factors that contribute to the possibility of consumers accessing the Internet, income was found to be the main factor driving access on the Internet (Littlejohn, 1999). According to Sloan (1989), in addition, even though the younger generations are the main target audience for the Internet medium and have the most of the new medium's options, they aren't only the only users on the Internet anymore. Individuals aged 55 to 64 currently account for approximately 22% of households

online, and the number is expected to reach up to 40% by the year 2003 (Sloan, 1989). While taking a trip into cyberspace via the Internet, the average user spends approximately one hour per time visited (Shimp, 2000). According to Shimp (2000) the typical person who uses the Web is aware, absorbed, and enjoys the use of the medium. Principal motivations found for using the Internet are recreation, a change of course, and amusement. Heavy users, when they log onto the net, they spend at least two or more hours for each time visited. Once these heavy users get online, more than 85% of them read and write e-mail, 65% of them access the Internet for typical surfing purposes, 63% of them for gaining knowledge on services and products, and 48% for buying certain products or services online. On the contrary, 80% of the people who haven't tried using the Internet for electronic purchasing never plan to do so in the future because their preference is to shop only at non virtual stores, due to their fear of giving out personal information online, and their fear of not trusting online credit card transactions. Another plus about this new medium is that the use of it is rising for those people with less money, which is a plus because when it was first introduced many feared that the people with the lower income levels would not be able to afford a

computer with Internet access and take advantage of the

new cyber explosion. This new medium, the Internet, offers

advantages that the other traditional mediums can't

counter; for example, as for sports, it provides regularly

updated scores, team reports, and even provides sports

discussion and analysis of all teams in all sports (Wann,

1997). In addition, it is a much easier and quicker

process to look for scores on the Internet, since it has

all the box scores saved from every game and with one

click of a button, an individual can find anything they

want to about a particular game. Shimp (2000) argues that

it is very important for sports statistics and scores to

updated frequently and found easily, which the Internet is

easily able to accommodate, compared to the troubles the

other mediums are having.

According to Wann (1997), sports fans have already

taken the drive towards the Internet and are already

showing their loyalty to those sites that are user

friendly, authentic, and entertaining. It is predicted

that fans spending money online for tickets, sporting

goods, and other various sporting attire will leap up to

$3 billion by the year 2003 (Wann, 1997). It has been

noted that people who use sport sites are more wealthy and

are more willing to make an online transactions compared

to those who access other types of sites. The various

sports leagues are learning what the fans are interested

in when they visit an online sports source. In response to

the fans needs and interest in fantasizing about playing a

professional sport, various companies have set up fantasy

leagues to increase its membership. The NFL added a

fantasy league on its online site and so far has increased

to more than 300,000 members. It is a very successful

strategy since it involves fans playing the game, while

increasing its need for more news and statistics. The

older mediums, newspapers, television, and radio, have

been affected a great deal, with 16% of Web users online

during a time they would be reading newspapers, affecting

more than radio's 10%, but affecting less than the impact

of television viewing at 45% (Shimp, 1999). Television is

a remarkable communications tool that has been in

existence for a very long time. It offers the most

complete, ultimate level of mediated experience today

(Guttman, 1986). Television has had an enormous impact on

the entire world, whether by entertaining, influencing, or

educating a vast majority of the population. According to

Mcleod and Becker (1974) a Nielsen report showed that the

1970-71 average for watching sporting events on television

was 5.8 million adult males, 3.4 million adult females,

and 2.6 million of those people who are under the age of 18 per broadcast. Recently, households have been watching even more television lately, on average 7 hours and 58 minutes per day and 9 more minutes than last year at the same time, and the Internet is not having much of an impact on the viewing pattern of American TV (Shimp, 2000). The heaviest users of television come from those viewers and their families that are high-school educated, with middle income (Littlejohn, 1999). Television has an advantage that the other mediums don't have; it combines visual movement and audio at the same time, for those individuals watching a contest. As opposed to having to wait to get the results the next day with the newspaper, or reading about the game or listening to it on the Internet; television offers viewers the opportunity to see the actual game-play, while it is occurring, and to hear it at the same time. Additionally, this medium is so amazing, since it has the ability to present close-ups, color, slow motion, spilt screens, and even instant replays for the ultimate viewing panorama (Guttman, 1986). Newspapers are a medium that has been read by the majority of people in the world today. It is a communications tool that delivers the public the written word about news happening all over the world. According to Shimp (2000),

the readership of daily newspapers has decreased from 56.9% last fall to 56.2% this spring. More than half of all adults still read the newspaper each and every day, and the Sunday edition, two-thirds of the population read (Littlejohn, 1999). The heaviest readership of newspapers come from the middle aged and the older population of people, 45 to 54 years of age, as opposed to the lower readership of the younger generation. Minorities don't show much of an interest with newspapers, showing that only a little more than 1/3 of Hispanics, African-Americans, and other minorities read the newspaper on a daily basis (Shimp, 2000). White people represent the largest segment of readership, especially those that have graduated from college and are educated According to Littlejohn (1999), they argue that newspaper readership can be similar to smoking a cigarette; it's a habit that is reinforced early in life by parents or other siblings which is very difficult to quit. The Internet is starting to also have a negative effect on newspapers. People would rather go on the Internet to find breaking news or sports scores than to wait an entire day to get the results of the article or the box score. Radio has also been in existence for a long time. In the 1930's and 1940's this medium was at it peak in sports casting and after that

basically abandoned the market giving away to television
(Guttman, 1986). According to Shimp (2000) the population
of radio listeners has also decreased, tumbling from 17.5%
in 1990 to 15.9% in 1999, which represents the lowest
level of radio listening since 1981. Of the population of
radio listeners, Hispanics showed the most interest in
radio sports, 44.7%, and turned their dial to tune into
sports radio at least once during the 1998-1999 season,
followed by African-Americans at 42.1% and then whites at
41.3%. The one advantage that radio offers over print
mediums is immediacy; fans hear the game being played live
and don't have to wait till the next day to find out the
results as with print mediums (Guttman, 1986). In an
interesting result, people who use the Internet are 19%
more likely to be the heaviest users of radio compared to
the average adult (Shimp, 2000).

According to Rubin (1979), motivation is a primary,
important condition of learning. Therefore, in order to
understand motivation, it is important to first realize
that motivation is a part of learning. In the definition
of learning, a motivating condition is defined as a
stimulating condition that starts and leads action until
it is completely removed. In addition, the motivation
circumstance may be of two different types. It can be

hysiological, dealing with sex, the need for rest, hunger and thirst, or psychological, that pertains to an interest, a want, or an attitude. As human beings, our entire life of an organism is under the route of some motive or need, thus motivation helps us achieve these needs.

The motivating conditions, or motivation of an organism, has three specific functions in the learning process. Firstly, they make the organism active by giving them a sense of energy. This energy helps the organism to remain constantly on the move, always wanting something new and better. Secondly, for the organism, the motivating condition directs the variable and tenacious activity. When there is an incentive present, the directive function of the motive drives an organism towards the organism. The directive function is also involved with past experiences of an organism. If the past experience was beneficial to the organism the directive function remembers that and may still direct an organism towards that past, beneficial condition. When the motive comes up again in a different situation, it tends to seek the acts, which relieved and made the condition better in the prior situation. Lastly, another function of the motivating condition may be called selective or emphasizing function. This function deals

with reward and punishment. A reward is defined as a situation or an object that fulfills and alleviates the present motivating condition; a punishment is a situation or object that does not fulfill the present motivating condition.

When dealing with sports fan motivation, the fans are only interested in the possible rewards they can receive from watching a game. They watch the games because they enjoy the feeling of following sports, whether watching a game at the stadium, watching the game on television, listening to the game on the radio or reading the box scores of last nights games in the newspaper. To sports fans, these kinds of activities give them a sense of reward, a pleasurable feeling that they constantly want to be associated with and experience often.

There are many different reasons why sport fans are motivated to watch sports, and they can vastly differ among each individual. According to Gantz (1981) viewers, including sports viewers, are motivated by many reasons, which all stem from around satisfying their own internal needs and the activities that they are watching. Viewing is a chosen action that seems to attempt to meet needs as opposed to just passing time and relieving boredom (Gantz & Wenner, 1995). Basically, watching sports is a win-win

situation, since it offers people a chance to escape from the routine life, a chance to relax, a unique opportunity to fantasize as if they were playing the game, and even to reduce tensions (Gantz, 1981). Fans, in addition, enjoy feeling in their glory when the team wins or they find a way to disassociate from the team when it loses. The majority of past research on sports fan motivation has mainly focused on motivation for watching televised sports. However, these motivation reasons for individuals are basically the same, whether they are watching sports on a television or attending sporting events in person (Wenner & Gantz, 1989).

Gantz and Wenner (1995) feel that many people are motivated to watch sports, in particular televised sports, cause it offers something different than normal television programs or other forms of entertainment. According to Guttman (1986), American viewers are so interested in sports that they would rather watch televised sporting events over documentaries, newscasts, and situation comedies. Televised sports offer a live, unscripted spontaneous form of entertainment, which does not include planned plots (Gantz & Wenner, 1995). Most importantly, televised sports is advantageous because it gives viewers a sense of reality and uncertainty, as opposed to most

television programs which are scripted and totally fake in nature. Gantz (1981) found that the most important motivations to watching televised sports, in particular baseball, hockey, football, and tennis, were that the fans feel good when their team or player wins, they watch to see who wins the contest, and that they enjoy cheering for a player or a team. Gantz and Wenner (1995) slightly disagreed, claiming that they found that the strongest motive for watching televised sports is to see how one's favorite team/athlete performs, followed by that they liked the drama and tension involved in the sporting event, and they enjoy learning and relaxing while watching the game. This difference found by these two groups of researchers justifies the fact that all people are different and all are motivated by different reasons.

Gantz and Wenner (1995) feel that in most instances, non-sport entertainment programs are unrealistic and rehearsed, which can sometimes play a factor in a loss of interest among its viewers. Characters in these shows are actors playing roles to receive money and don't mirror their lifestyle off the set as they are portrayed in the show. In a television series, the audience can normally always figure out what the outcome will be, so the shows attempts to make up for the disadvantage with fake,

twisting plots to try to keep the audience unaware, which

leads to anticipated results.

Motivations are the most powerful with those who like

watching sports and are interested in sports programming

(Gantz, 1981). The majority of people who are interested

in watching sports are the highly-identified sports fans.

These sports fans that are highly identified to a team

have the most knowledge, for their preferred team, of all

fans and are highly motivated to watch their teams

performance every game. Gantz (1981) found that when a

team experiences success and performs well,

highly-identified fans share the success because they feel

a fierce connection between them and the team and as if

they may have contributed to the team's extraordinary

performance. In agreement, Wann (1997) reported that these

loyal fans go on the same emotional ride as the athletes

on the team, as if they were actually a member of the

team. These strongly identified fans actually feel as if

they are bound together in the same group of fans of a

team against another group of fans of another team, like

as if in a war (Wann & Branscombe, 1991).

Recently, Wann, Schrader, and Adramson (2000)

proposed that fans who are highly identified also show

higher levels of anxiety, compared to spectators who are

lowly identified. In addition, they also felt that even

several days after a sporting event, it is possible for

spectators to precisely recall their distress. Wann (1997)

reported similar results, agreeing that lowly identified

fans show significantly less intense reactions and

distance themselves after a team fails, compared to those

fans who were highly identified.

In addition, in other research on fan identification

Wann (1997) reported that fans that were highly-identified

to a team were seeking ego enhancement, since those fans

served particular, attribution patterns after a victory

instead of a defeat. In their studies, they were able to

show that it was a case of ego enhancement as opposed to

ego protection, since those particular patterns were shown

after a victory instead of after a loss. In addition, they

found that individuals with a surplus of self-esteem are

more likely to be attracted to finding ways to enhance

their egos as opposed to those that are just interested in

protecting their egos so they will not get damaged.

According to Wann (1995), the main reasons believed

to motivate sport fans to watch sporting events revolve

around eight proposed motivations. These motivations

include; escape, self-esteem, economic, entertainment,

aesthetic, group affiliation, eustress, and family needs.

Each of these motivations provide a different reason,
which is said to inspire sport fans to watch a sporting
event.

Escape - this hypothesized motivation of fans is their
desire to see sports as an escape route or a
diversion from normal, everyday life (Wann, 1995).
An escape is seen as temporary and does not become
reality. To sports fans, watching sports serves as
a fantasy function and can be a joyful experience
if a certain team or athlete performs better than
accustomed (Gantz, 1981).

Self-Esteem - this motivation of fans is the need to
enhance their overall self-confidence (Gantz,
1981). Fans who are motivated by type feel a sense
of achievement and accomplishment by watching or
attending a sports game (Wann, 1995).
Identification with an athlete or a sports team
can overall boost a person's self-esteem and
prestige (Gantz & Wenner, 1995). For these fans,
when their team wins they are full of pleasure and
happiness, however, if their team loses, they get
very mad and hostile. When the team of interest is
winning and is successful, that gives the fans a

feeling of self-worth and satisfaction (Gantz, 1981).

Economic - this motivation of fans is the need to improve individuals self and social image, through another area of participation. When an individual wins a sports gambling bet, there are certain psychological rewards that make the triumphant party feel good and make them want to repeat their act. Sport fans who are motivated by this reason usually are more interested in winning money than teams standings, but they still find some sort of an enjoyment from being a sports fan (Wann, 1995). These people who bet on sports consider themselves sports fans because it give them an opportunity to wager on games and possibly win money.

Entertainment - this motivation of fans is the need serves basically as a pastime for having fun, similar to watching movies, going to concerts, and listening to music (Wann, 1995). These individuals enjoy watching a sporting contest for the pleasure they receive from it and enjoy being entertained. These fans gain increased pleasure, happiness and satisfaction, regardless of the outcome of the game.

Aesthetic - Certain fans are motivated by the excellence,

    beauty, and creativity of athletes in sports. To

    these particular fans, sporting events are seen as

    a form of art; a lovely, beautiful experience

    (Wann, 1995). For example, these people might

    really enjoy seeing spectacular catches made in

    football, perfect baseball swings, or entertaining

    slam-dunks in basketball. With this kind of

    motivation, the beauty of sports may improve

    peoples overall life and make them feel good about

    who they are.

Group Affiliation - this motivation is based on a fan's

    desire to be with a group of other people (Gantz &

    Wenner, 1995). These researchers feel that the

    great thing about sports is that it is a form of

    enjoyment since it gives people with similar

    interests a chance to interact. These individuals

    are mostly interested in maintaining group

    contacts so they won't feel alienated (Wann,

    1995). These people like to get together with

    others to watch shows, sports and other forms of

    entertainment to talk to everyone and have a good

    time together. Watching sports can be a social

    form of fun for some people, for example, maybe

going out to sports bars and watching the game

with a large group of fans or non-fans. Sports

promoters and businesses bank of this need for

sport fans to socialize by opening sport bars,

offering a family night at the stadium or even

creating and forming fan clubs.

Eustress - this common motivation for fans states that

sports are gratifying because it provides the

energy and stress that these people seek and need

(Wann, 1997). The fans enjoy excitement and

anxiety in their sporting events. These fans go

through an obvious change in tension and energy,

which these people seek. Those spectators who

normally show the most intense reactions are those

who are highly identify with a specific sports

team. This form of stress actually makes a person

feel better than worse and it can have the power

to improve a persons, overall life. Results from a

study on previewing behaviors and motivations by

most watched sport, found that the majority of

fans watch sports for this reason, since they like

the drama and tension feeling they receive while

watching the game.

Family Needs - this motivation has to do with a fan's

desire to want to spend time with his or her

family at a sporting event (Wann, 1995). These

people who watch games are not interested in the

outcome necessarily, but for the fun and closeness

with the family. Gantz and Wenner (1995) argue

that sports, especially televised sports, are

suitable for married and family life. In addition,

for those particular families that have children,

88% of Americans feel that children can learn hard

work and discipline from both watching and playing

sports.

This paper uses the Sports Fan Motivation Scale to

examine what are fans motives for watching/attending sport

games. The Sport Fan Motivation Scale (SFMS) is an

instrument developed to measure eight different sport fan

motives (self-esteem, eustress, aesthetic, group

affiliations, escape, entertainment, economic and family)

[Wann, 1995].

TV affinity is an attitude toward the medium that

reflects the importance people assign to TV or specific

programs. Greenberg (1974) first reported using a

three-item Likert scale to measure the intensity of one's

attachment to TV. Rubin (1977, 1979) used that measure,

and later increased it to five items (Rubin, 1981a).
Adoptions of the Television Affinity Scale (TAS) have been
used to measure affinity with soap operas (Rubin, 1981a),
TV news and information programs (Rubin, 1979), religious
programs (Ruban, 1983), and talk radio (Rubin, 1979).

Affinity measures have been used in uses and
gratifications studies in which affinity is not usually
the primary focus of the research. Affinity is usually
used to mediate or moderate the relationships between
other TV viewing variables such as motives and exposure.
Only a few studies have treated affinity as a criterion
variable (Rubin, 1983).

In early studies, affinity was correlated with
viewing motives to explore the meaning of reasons for
using TV (Greenberg, 1974; Rubin, 1979). Other research
considered how affinity related to ritualistic and
instrumental media orientations (Rubin, 1983) and to
watching various TV programs such as 60 Minutes (Rubin,
1981b) and the 700 Club. In recent research, affinity has
been a predictor variable for viewing outcomes such as
parasocial interaction, soap opera cultivation, and soap
opera involvement (Rubin, Perse, & Powell 1985).

Most studies using adoptions of the scale report the
items they used. The TAS used by Rubin and Rubin (1982) is

given below. Earlier studies (Rubin, 1979, 1981a) used a
negatively worded item two, "If the television wasn't
working, I would not miss it." But the double negative
made it confusing. Respondents mark their agreement with
the statements using 5-point Likert scales, from strongly
disagree (1) to strongly agree (5). Averaged scored are
usually used in analyses. The scale takes about 1 minute
to complete. The items are often mingled with other
attitudinal statements.

Although Greenberg (1974) did not report the
reliability of the original three-item scale, four- and
five-item versions are internally consistent. Cronbach
alphas for the four-item version range from .75 to .83;
alphas for the five-item version range from .79 to .93.
Four-item versions usually exclude the negatively worded
item to increase reliability. The scale has been used
reliably with different samples: children (Rubin, 1979),
traditional and nontraditional college students (Rubin,
Perse, & Powell, 1985), adults (Rubin, 1981a), and elders
(Rubin & Rubin, 1982). Although affinity is conceptualized
as an attitude towards TV, studies have not assessed the
scale's test-retest stability.

Establishing validity for the TAS has not been a
primary research focus. Although there is no discussion of

scale development in the literature, the scale items

appear to have face validity. That is, the items seem to

be assessing a sense of TV importance and attachment to

the medium. Researchers have found that the more motivated

people are to watch TV, the more important they believe TV

to be (Greenberg, 1974; Rubin, 1979, 1981a; Rubin & Rubin,

1982).

Because affinity measures how important people

believe TV or its content is, analyses do provide support

for construct validity. Several authors point out that TV

should be more important to respondents who have fewer

opportunities for mass or interpersonal communication. For

example, using contextual age measures, Rubin and Rubin

(1982) observed that affinity was negatively related to

self-reliance in an elder sample. Talk-radio affinity also

related to perceptions of being less mobile, more frequent

talk radio telephoning behavior, avoiding interpersonal

interaction, and receiving fewer rewards from

communicating with others (Rubin, 1981a). And, Rubin and

Rubin (1982) observed that deaf respondents report greater

affinity for TV than do hearing viewers. They explained

that TV's importance might reflect its role as a social

surrogate for the deaf.

Later studies that tested multivariate relationships among variables suggest the scale's criterion-related validity. Affinity is a predictor of para-social interaction, or feelings of interaction with TV personalities (Rubin, Perse, & Powell 1985). Soap opera affinity also predicted planning to watch a favorite soap opera, engaging in fewer distracting activities when watching, and thinking about and talking about the program after watching.

Although there is evidence for the scale's reliability and validity, affinity scores are usually low. On 5-point scales, averaged affinity scores have ranged from 1.45 to 3.38. Most scores are in the 2.00-3.00 range suggesting that most respondents do not see TV or specific programs as extremely important in their lives.

Research using the TAS has been restricted to uses and gratifications research. Because few studies have focused on affinity as an outcome variable (Rubin, 1981a), little is known about various influences on attachment to different media. Because of its positive relationship to exposure and initial results that support links to viewing outcomes, affinity might have utility for media effects studies.

Although the literature on uses and gratifications and media usage includes many studies of the negative influence of media effects on a number of consumer behaviors, research-delineating characteristics of sports fans and media usage has not been examined. Specifically, a major gap in the current body of research on uses and gratifications theory is the lack of comprehensive understanding of how sports fan motivations differ as a function of type of media use.

CHAPTER TWO

METHODOLOGY

The respondents consisted of 254 undergraduate college students (56% female and 44% male) drawn from communication classes at California State University, San Bernardino. All respondents volunteered, although credit for a communication class was given for participation. To maintain raters' anonymity, other than gender the study did not address other demographic data. All subsequent findings are based on this data.

Measures

Sport Fan Motivation Scale

Respondents' perceptions of their motivations for sports were measured with the mortified version of the Sports Fan Motivation Scale (Wann, 1997). This measure consists of eight different motives: eustress, self-esteem, escape, entertainment, economic, aesthetic, group affiliation, and family. The scale was modified to include four items grounded in the sports fan context for each of the eight motivations. The 24-items were presented in four groups of eight items each on a five-point Likert-type scale (strongly disagree to strongly agree). Each group included one item from each dimension. This

procedure was employed as a safeguard against possible

message distortion.

Evidence of construct validity for the original

version of the scale is reported by Wann (1995). Estimates

of internal consistency (coefficient alpha) in this

administration were: eustress, .89; self-esteem, .78;

escape, .76; entertainment, .83; economic, .87; aesthetic,

.81; and group affiliation, .77; and family, .86.

Media Affinity

To assess media affinity, respondents were presented

with four possible types of mediums (television, radio,

internet, and newspapers) and asked which of type of

medium is "one of the most important things I do each

day." In addition, a fifth other category was available to

respondents to describe a medium not included in the four

media types. No respondent employed the other category.

Consequently subsequent analysis was based on the internet

(n = 71), television (n = 108), radio (n = 34), and

newspaper (n = 36) types of mediums.

Analysis

The first set of analyses assessed the level

motivators varies with each type of media. Stepwise

multiple discriminant analyses were performed on the

entire sample, with the eight sport fan motivators as the independent variable and preferences for type of media (television, internet, radio, and newspaper) as the dependent variable. The stepwise selection criterion used was Mahalanobis distance, in which the variable that maximizes the distance between the two closest groups is selected. In addition, the canonical discriminant functions were rotated, using varimax criterion and Kaiser's normalization, to improve their interpretation.

The second analysis used the ANOVA method to assess individual motivator scales with those of media types. This technique is basically similar to that of regression analysis. The main difference is that each of the predictor variables is dichotomized using a median-split procedure. A major advantage of ANOVA is that it provides a straight forward way of examining the direction of the effects (mean scores for each of the conditions).

CHAPTER THREE

RESULTS

The discriminant analysis produced one significant canonical discriminant function, and the sports fan motivation scale discriminated among the four media types. The discriminant function ($\chi2 = 30.27$, $p < .01$) which explained 71% of the relative variance, had positive coefficients for television (.98), internet (.44), radio (.31), and newspapers (10). The groups with positive centroid were television (.69) and Internet (.31) media types, and the groups with negative centroids were radio (-.28) and newspaper (-.20) media types. These indicated that respondents' were more likely to have a preference for television and internet to satisfy their sports fan motivations than preferences for radio and newspaper.

Table 1 indicates significant differences were obtained for eustress ($F = 5.16$, $df = 3/240$, $p < .001$, $eta2 = .07$), self-esteem ($F = 3.15$, $df = 3/244$, $p < .05$, $eta2 = .05$), escape ($F = 7.11$, $df = 3/243$, $p < .001$, $eta2 = .09$), entertainment ($F = 4.21$, $df = 3/245$, $p < .01$, $eta2 = .05$), economic ($F = 2.64$, $df = 3/245$, $p < .05$, $eta2 = .05$), aesthetics ($F = 2.78$, $df = 3/245$, $p < .05$, $eta2 = .04$), group affiliation ($F = 5.40$, $df = 3/242$,

p < .001, eta2 = .05), and family (F = 3.44, df = 3/243,

p < .05, eta2 = .06).

Table 1.

Significant Analysis of Variance Results, Means and

Standard Deviations for Motivations on Types of Media

Fan Motivations	F-ratio	d.f.	p	Media Types			
				Radio	TV	Internet	Newspaper
Eustress	5.16	3/240	.001	1.89	2.68	1.86	1.88
				.93	1.47	1.07	1.06
Self-Esteem	3.15	3/244	.05	2.27	2.62	2.08	2.16
				1.03	1.37	.97	1.05
Escape	7.11	3/243	.001	1.41	2.15	1.97	1.51
				.65	1.33	1.34	.75
Entertainment	4.21	3/245	.001	1.89	2.56	1.89	1.79
				.98	1.50	1.21	1.03
Economic	2.64	3/245	.05	1.20	1.50	1.56	1.27
				.50	1.11	1.05	.62
Aesthetics	2.78	3/245	.05	1.63	2.21	1.70	1.74
				.74	1.39	.89	1.01
Group Affiliation	5.40	3/242	.001	1.89	2.85	2.11	2.17
				.99	1.54	1.33	1.05
Family	3.44	3/243	.05	1.82	2.24	1.53	1.72
				.92	1.41	.77	.91

Scheffe' contrasts revealed that sport fan

respondents with a preference for television (M = 2.68;

M = 2.56, M = 2.21, M = 2.85, M = 2.24) were more likely

to be motivated by eustress, entertainment, aesthetics,

group affiliation, and family sports fan motivations than

a preference for radio (M = 1.89; M = 1.89, M = 1.63,

M = 1.89, M = 1.82), internet (M = 1.86; M = 1.89,

M = 1.70, M = 2.11, M = 1.53), or newspapers (M = 1.88,

M = 1.79, M = 1.74, M = 2.17, M = 1.72). Moreover, sport

fan respondents with a preference for television

(M = 2.15, M = 1.50) were more likely to be motivated by

escape and economic than preferences for radio (M = 1.41,

M = 1.20) and newspapers (M = 1.51, M = 1.27). Finally,

sport fan respondents with a preferences for television

were more likely to be motivated by self-esteem (M = 2.62)

more often than preferences for the internet (M = 2.08.)

and newspapers (M = 2.16), respectively.

Scheffe' contrasts also indicated sport fan

respondents with a preference for the internet (M = 1.97,

M = 1.56) were more likely to be motivated by escape and

economic than preferences for radio (M = 1.41, M = 1.20,),

and newspapers (M = 1.51, M = 1.27). Moreover, respondents

with a preference for the Internet (M = 1.53) were less

likely to be motivated by family than preferences for

radio (M = 1.82), television (M = 2.24) and newspapers

(M = 1.82).

CHAPTER FOUR

DISCUSSION

The findings lend limited support to the notion that individuals with preferences for different media possess different sports fan motivational patterns. Specifically, results indicate (1) fans reasons to seek out sports on a particular medium preferred television and the internet rather than radio and newspapers; (2) fans preferring to view sports on television were likely to be motivated by eustress, entertainment, aesthetic, group affiliation and family; (3) fans preferring to view sports on television rather than listen to the radio or read the newspaper were likely to be motivated by escape and economic reasons; (4) fans preferring to view sports on television were likely to be motivated by self-esteem rather view sports on the internet or read about sports in the newspaper; (5) fans preferring to use the internet to seek out sports rather than listen to the radio or read the newspaper were more likely motivated by escape and economic reasons; (6) fans preferring to use the internet rather than listen to the radio, watch television, or read the newspaper are less likely to be motivated by family reasons.

The present observations have significant

implications for research on sports fan motivations and

media use. It had been suggested that previous research

focused on (1) how fan characteristics affect motivations,

and (2) fan motivations were associated with antecedent

factors related to type of sport. The pattern of findings

across the four types of media, especially television,

points to the importance this use of media by fans to both

research approaches. For instance, based on the present

findings future sports fan motivations research needs to

address the association to characteristics of television

viewers' and other television viewing antecedents such as

programming, and cable versus network availability. The

connection between television viewing and sport fan

motivations is strong. The lack of significant differences

between fan preferences for radio and newspapers to seek

out sports and scores on the sports fan motivation scale

is not clear. One plausible explanation is perceptions of

media preference may be linked to media usage motivations.

This conclusion is consistent with the research of Rubin

(1977, 1979, 1981a) who found eight reasons why people

watch television. Reasons why individuals use other media

is not as clear. However, based on Rubin's research it is

possible that fan users of radio and newspapers may be

more motivated by media reasons than fan reasons. A further study is needed to assess whether fan motivations are related to television viewing motives. Another explanation for the lack of significant differences in radio and newspaper preferences reported in this study is the sampling.

The present study was designed to be exploratory in nature. One primary limitation is that the sample was nonrandom and limited to college students who self-selected into the respondents. In addition, only self-reported data were used.

Several research issues are raised by the present study. For example, it would be worthwhile to know whether the findings generalize to differences in gender and ethnicity. Longitudinal studies would further understanding of the use of media and sport fan motivations.

APPENDIX

QUESTIONNAIRE

Instructions: Below are a series of statements people may make about sports spectating and media use. There are no right or wrong answers. Indicate the degree each statement applies to you by placing a number from 1 to 5 in the space provided. A 1 means you **strongly disagree**, a 2 means you **disagree**, a 3 means you are **neutral or unsure**, a 4 means you **agree**, and a 5 means you **strongly agree**.

1. __ One of the main reasons that I watch, read, and /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, and/or discuss sports is so I can bet on the sporting events.

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

4. __ One of the main reasons that I watch, read, and/or discuss sports is for artistic value.

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

6. __ One of the main reasons that I watch, read, and/or discuss sports is that I enjoy being physiologically aroused by the competition.

7. __ Sports are enjoyable only if you can bet on the outcome.

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

9. __ One of the main reasons that I watch, read, and/or discuss sports is that doing so allows me to forget about my problems.

10. __ Making wagers is the most enjoyable aspect of being a sports fan.

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

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

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

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

15. ___ I enjoy sports because of their entertainment value.

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

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

18. ___ I like the stimulation I get from watching sports.

19. ___ I enjoy watching, reading, and/or discussing sports simply because it is a good time.

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

21. ___ To me, my favorite team's successes are my successes and their losses are my losses.

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

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

24. ___ Watching television is one of the more important things I do each day.

25. ___ Using the world wide web is one of the more important things I do each day.

26. ___ Listening to the radio is one of the more important things I do each day.

27. ___ Reading the newspaper is one of the more important things I do each day.

28. __ I would be lost without television to watch.

29. __ I would be lost without access to the world wide web.

30. __ I would be lost without radio to listen to.

31. __ I would be lost without the newspaper to read.

32. __ Watching television is very important in my life.

33. __ Access to the world wide web is very important in my life.

34. __ Listening to the radio is very important in my life.

35. __ Reading the newspaper is very important in my life,

36. __ I could easily do without television for several days.

37. __ I could easily do without access to the world wide web for several days.

38. __ I could easily do without radio for several days.

39. __ I could easily do without the newspaper for several days.

40. __ If the television wasn't working, I would really miss it.

41. __ If I couldn't access the world wide web, I would really miss it.

42. __ If the radio wasn't working, I would really miss it.

43. __ If I didn't receive the newspaper, I would really miss it.

For statistical purposes only:

Your favorite spectator sport is:

Your gender: Female Male

Age:

Thank You For Your Assistance

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