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## Value of Professional Sport Teams in the Community: Reexamining the Measurement Properties of the Community Impact Scale

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## Value of Professional Sport Teams in the Community: Reexamining the Measurement Properties of the Community Impact Scale

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### ABSTRACT

The Community Impact Scale was developed by Zhang et al. (1996) to measure essential value dimensions of professional sports in the community. The original scale includes 45 items under eight factors (Community Solidarity, Public Behavior, Social Equity, Pastime Ecstasy, Health Awareness, Individual Quality, Excellence Pursuit, and Business Opportunity). To further ensure its usefulness for theoretical and practical applications, this study re-examined measurement properties of the scale through conducting a confirmatory factor analysis (CFA). Research participants ( $N = 349$ ) were residents of three major metropolitan areas, who responded to a survey in various community settings. With some modifications and eliminations of items, the CFA revealed that the eight-factor model with 32 items provided a good fit to the data (e.g., RMSEA = .060; SRMR = .053; CFI = .910). The resolved scale also displayed good convergent and discriminant validity, as well as internal consistency. Discussions are made with respect to the merits of the scale and its research applications in addressing social, political, marketing, and financing issues of professional sport teams.

Keywords: sport marketing, social impact, community campaign, professional sports

### INTRODUCTION

Due to the quick evolution of media technology and the growing interest in leisure activities and healthy lifestyles, sport industry has shown a rapid growth and become one of the largest industries in the U.S. The estimated size of the sport business industry has risen sharply in recent years, from \$213 billion at the end of the 1990s (Broughton et al., 1999) to \$410 billion in 2007 (Plunkett Research, 2007). Professional sport leagues, teams, and events in particular, have been an integral part in forming the cultural and economic basis for many communities and have become one of the most popular entertainment options in the U.S. Currently in the United States, more than 800 professional sport teams are playing for various major and minor sport leagues (Howard and Crompton, 2004). The financial value of professional sports and the ripple effects associated with

them in terms of creating new business and generating revenues reflect the immense power of professional sports in modern society. Sport fans as direct consumers of sport products spend a considerable amount of money for a variety of sport products, and spectator annual spending alone amounts to \$26.17 billion (Sport Business Journal, 2007). Professional sport leagues also obtain a large percentage of their income from media products. The most lucrative television market in professional sport is the NFL, which profits approximately three billion dollars annually from television contracts (Sweeney, 2007).

As sport is such an import part of modern society with its educational, social, and economic impacts, various researchers have attempted to systematically examine its value to the community and society at large. Two major approaches are commonly adopted when studying sport value, including economic and social perspectives. Numerous studies examined the economic impact and financial benefits of sport facilities and sport teams (Rosentraub and Swindell, 2002; Siegfried and Zimbalist, 2000; Zimbalist, 1998). These studies usually examined the overall costs and gains of sport facilities, validity of public subsidy for sport facilities, and subsequent effects on regional economic activities. For the most part, this approach focuses on the direct economic effect and often ignores the intangible value that sport events deliver to the community. Thus, they often fail to provide information regarding the indirect benefits that professional sports contribute to the community (Swindell and Rosentraub, 1998).

The other area of research has focused on the value and norms entailed in sport (e.g., Coakley, 2007; Frey and Eitzen, 1991; Heeren and Requa, 2001; Simon, 2004; Sloan, 1996). Studies in this area emphasize the value of sport as a means to accomplish educational, social, and health goals. The value of youth sport as an educational and socialization tool and the value as perceived by athletes have often received attention from researchers (e.g., Putler and Wolfe, 1999; Seefeldt and Ewing, 1997). These studies provided implications for how sport contributes to individuals in learning to conform to social norms, value of teamwork, and discipline as established by society (Eitle and Eitle, 2002; Frey and Eitzen, 1991; Melnick, 1993; Smith and Ingham, 2003). However, several weaknesses associated with previous studies have been observed. First, previous studies focused on the value that people gain from participating in sporting events and/or physical activities (e.g., Lee et al., 2000; Blinde, 1989; Dubois, 1986); however, value perceived by the community members and spectators, rather than direct participants are seldom examined. Second, researchers have primarily focused on conceptual discussions and qualitative description of the value, rather than quantitative analyses (e.g., Wann et al., 2001). Third, various levels of sport competition (e.g., professional, intercollegiate, recreational) were not taken into consideration. As different levels of competition have different missions and play different roles in the society, value specific to the competition level needs to be considered (Kahle et al., 1996).

The demand for professional sport in the community is increasing; at the same time, public funding of sport facilities induces ongoing controversies. Unavailability of evidence, knowledge, and information that are derived from scientific inquiry has offered little help to reduce the controversies and debates occurring in American communities. Limited research has been conducted regarding the value specific to professional sport franchises and the indirect value that comes from the presence of them. In response to calls for better understanding of the value of professional sport in the community, Zhang et al. (1996) developed the Community Impact Scale (CIS). The CIS measures the essential value dimensions of professional sport as perceived by spectators, and it provides empirical evidence to support the value of professional sport in the community. It should be noted that their work was the first attempt to comprehensively examine the value of professional sport. The developed CIS was found to appropriately assess the value of hosting professional sport events in a community, where one or more major league professional franchises are present. The CIS was developed utilizing contemporary literature within sport sociology (e.g., Anderson and Stone, 1981; Chelladurai et al., 1984; Coakley, 2007), and the implications from functional, conflict, and critical theories. The preliminary scale of 66 items was formulated based on a comprehensive review of

literature and a test of content validity. A random sample of spectators ( $N=224$ ) from six NBA games responded to the scale. Conducting an exploratory factor analysis (EFA), simple factor structure was obtained. Eight factors with 45 items were retained and deemed to be relevant to the value dimensions of professional sport to the community as perceived by spectators: Community Solidarity (14 items), Public Behavior (8 items), Social Equity (4 items), Pastime Ecstasy (5 items), Health Awareness (4 items), Individual Quality (3 items), Excellence Pursuit (4 items), and Business Opportunity (3 items). Since its publication, the CIS has been adopted and referenced in a number of studies (e.g., Heeren and Requa, 2001; Shank, 2009; Zhang et al., 2004). The submitted eight dimensions represent perceived impact of professional sport on a community by spectators. Positive relationships have been reported between spectator attendance and perceived value of the team to the community (Wann et al., 2001).

Although the CIS provides useful information about the intangible aspect of value dimensions associated with professional sport, a closer examination of the measurement properties of the scale is necessary to further warrant its usefulness. First, the findings of the study were based on an EFA, which was data driven. It is necessary to continue to examine various measurement parameters through a confirmatory factor analysis (CFA), which is a theory testing procedure for confirming the factor structure of the scale. Specifically, the EFA is designed to uncover the underlying structure and relationship between observed variables and latent variables among a relatively large set of variables. In order to confirm the factor structure of the scale, it is necessary to conduct a CFA, which is used when the latent structure has previously been identified. Specifically, CFA is a procedure in which variables can be specified to be loaded on certain factors, with the number of factors fixed in advance (Bollen and Long, 1993). Second, two factors ("Social Equity" and "Business Opportunity") had low reliability coefficient (i.e., .49 and .46, respectively); thus a re-examination of reliability is necessary. Third, only spectators of a particular sport (i.e., professional basketball games) participated in the study. Validity of a scale is population specific (Thomas et al., 2005). When studying sport value, it is necessary to include other professional sports' consumers that represent a more general population. Lastly, since its development of the CIS scale in early 1990s, the social environment has changed greatly and it is necessary to reflect the change of the value people associate with professional sport. Kahle et al. (1988) also indicated that values reflect individuals' societal goals, and with the change of society, values perceived by individuals and society change as well. When political and economic power shifts or social structures change, sport alters in both its function and relationship with the society simultaneously (Maguire et al., 2002).

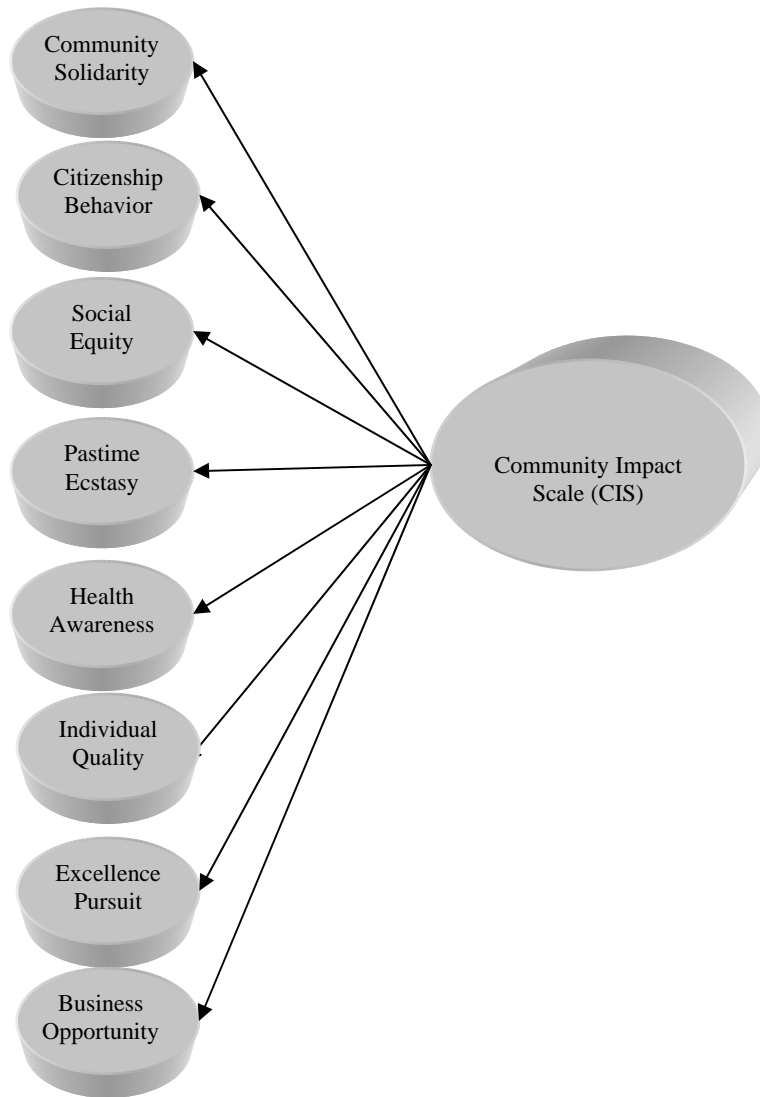
Numerous researchers have stressed the importance of continuous evaluation of a scale to monitor its psychometric properties (Nunnally and Bernstein, 1994; Safrit and Wood, 1995; Thomas et al., 2005). The purpose of this study was to conduct a conceptual analysis on value dimensionality of professional sport teams by further examining and improving the validity of the CIS through a CFA in an effort to ensure the continued usefulness of the inventory. Factor structure of the proposed eight-factor measurement model is presented in Figure 1.

## **REVIEW OF LITERATURE**

One thing that most major cities in the U.S., from New York to Los Angeles, have in common is that they all have at least one professional sport franchise. A majority of the U.S. population lives within one of 39 metropolitan areas, where at least one of the professional sport teams reside (Zhang et al., 2004). As a whole, American cities tend to place a high value on the presence of professional sports in their communities. In the 1970s and 1980s, it was widely believed that professional sport franchises would produce substantial revenue to regenerate the post-industrial deprived communities, and thus improve social, economic, and environmental aspects of the Eastern and Midwestern urban centers of America (Euchner, 1993). Professional sports were seen as a way to repair the image of large cities, as well as a way to make smaller cities appear big-league (Quirk and Fort, 1992). Local city leaders

tried to obtain the attention of potential investors and visitors by means of successful professional sports because successful sport teams were considered as a vehicle to attract public attention to their

**Figure 1**  
**Factor Structure of the proposed Eight-Factor Measurement Model**



communities via national media (Whitson and Macintosh, 1993). Believing that hosting a professional franchise was one way to rejuvenate a city by means of an improved image, numerous cities began to construct professional sport venues and arenas (Shropshire, 1995). The aggregate investment for the facilities in which four major league sports in the U.S. play was nearly \$24 billion. Out of this amount, over \$15 billion were shared by the public sector (Crompton et al., 2003).

Though skeptical views about professional sports and public funding of sport facility prevail, sport economists acknowledge that professional sports contribute to the society in such a way that mathematical analysis often underestimates. Recent studies have suggested that intangible rewards

that teams bring into the community compensate for the investment of public resources (Crompton, 2004; Shropshire, 1995; Sparvero and Chalip, 2007). Noll and Zimbalist (1997) also noted that “whether the value of the external benefits of a major league team to consumers really does exceed stadium subsidies is uncertain, but by no means implausible” (p. 58). Intangible benefits such as civic pride, reputation, image, psychic income, community integration, and improved quality of life are critical factors for the overall development of a city. Psychic income refers to the “emotional and psychological benefit that residents perceive, even though they do not physically attend sports events, and are not involved in organizing them” (Crompton, 2004, p. 49). The community benefits from positive economic impact associated with visiting the sport facility as well as psychic income, as a result of the positive experience with the event (Braunstein et al., 2005).

A number of theoretical perspectives have been used to investigate sport in society and societal values of sport spectatorship. Sociological theories become a tool to analyze and understand the changing society, the sport world, and the role of sport in societies and communities (Jarvie, 2006). With their own strengths, weaknesses, and biases, these theories provide different perspective for understanding the sport culture, and the relationship between sport and society (Wann et al., 2001). A number of theories have been developed to interpret sport within society from a diverse point of views, including functionalism, cultural studies, feminism, conflict theory, interactionist theory, critical theory, Marxist theory, pluralism, globalization theory, and figurational theory. Among these perspectives, functional, conflict, and critical theories have had major impacts upon the study of sport in the society (Coakley, 2007).

Functionalists assume that social order is based on shared values and consensus that create shared culture and ideas, thus leading to achieve common goals. They see the positive aspect of sport in the community, considering that sport inspires personal and social values (Curry and Parr, 1988). According to Coakley (2007), major functions of sport are: (a) pattern maintenance and tension management function, (b) integration function, (c) goal attainment function, and (d) adaptation function. Through these functions, sport provides a valuable lesson for the members of society and creates common values that allow them to initiate new social relationships. Approaches by functionalists fall in the area of personal growth and the continuation of the social order, harmonious integration of diverse social groups, socialization, achievement motivation, learning ones' role in society, tension and excitement management, adjustment to social change, social mobility, compliance, and social equity (Nixon, 1984; Snyder and Purdy, 1987). On the other hand, conflict theory in sport focuses on such concerns as alienation, coercion, social control, commercialism, nationalism and militarism, sexism, drug abuse, and racism (Coakley, 1993). Others are concerned about how sport serves as a means of economic exploitation and oppression in capitalist society. This theory takes a negative position about the role of sport as a means of maintaining or promoting the societal status of elite groups (Frey and Eitzen, 1991). Although conflict theory emphasizes the negative consequences of sport and is very critical of sport within social systems, it is very useful in calling attention to the problems in sport and the need for radical changes in sport and society (Eitzen, 1984).

Critical theory acknowledges the merits of both functional and conflict theories, and complements the shortcomings of these two theories (Chandler et al., 2002). Rather than making sport more efficient in order to maintain the status quo in society as claimed by functionalists and dismantling sport altogether as claimed in conflict theory, critical theory calls for changes in the existing form and the development of a new system in the sport world (Coakley, 2007). According to Coakley (1993), critical theory has been applied in the following ways: (a) defining sport in certain social, political, and economic contexts, (b) identifying sport's role in the development and change of society, (c) examining the relationship between sport and the development and maintenance of cultural ideology, and (d) promoting the transition of sport and its value in a particular neighborhood, community, or society. As critical theory is based on diverse approaches and explains the relationships between

sport and society comprehensively by providing close articulation into the weaknesses of functionalism and conflict theory, this theory may best fit with the purpose of current study.

## Values

Value is an “enduring belief that a specific mode of conduct or end-state of existence is personally or socially preferable to an opposite or converse mode of conduct or end-state of existence” (Rokeach, 1973, p. 5). A set of values allow people to connect them with society because they help individuals evaluate and understand interpersonal relationships and guide the individuals’ adaptation to the surrounding world. Values are also conceptualized as criteria used by individuals to evaluate, select, and justify their actions (Grunert-Beckmann and Askegard, 1997). Moreover, values are categorized according to their importance to the individual, which in turn influences the role of an individual. These values play a significant role in determining one’s attitudes and behaviors (Homer and Kahle, 1988). There are different ways to define human values and five main features of values are identified: (a) are concepts or beliefs, (b) are about desirable end states or behaviors, (c) transcend specific situations, (d) guide selection or evaluation of behavior and events, and (e) are ordered by relative importance (Schwartz and Bilsky, 1987). Values influence people’s attitude toward social events and objects, and play a role in such areas as political inclination (e.g., Rokeach, 1973; Schwartz, 1992), economic beliefs (e.g., Dickinson, 1991), advertising and communication strategy (e.g., Prensky and Wright-Isak, 1997), and consumer product choice (e.g., Allen et al., 2002), to name a few. Values directly influence interests, activities, and roles, which in turn influence sport consumer behaviors. Values have been found to be linked with certain demographic profiles and used to segment spectators for developing marketing strategies (Kahle et al., 2001).

Scholarly efforts have been made to systematically understand the structure and role of values in human behavior. For instance, Rokeach (1973) developed comprehensive lists of values that serve as guiding principles in individuals’ lives and classified values into two categories: terminal and instrumental values. While terminal values represent ultimate end-goals of existence, instrumental values are those beliefs that direct behavior toward more general end states (Rokeach and Ball-Rokeach, 1989). Rokeach’s Value Survey (RVS) contained 18 terminal values (e.g., equality, comfortable life, sense of accomplishment, inner harmony, true friendship, social recognition, and happiness) as well as 18 instrumental values (e.g., ambitious, broad-minded, obedient, self-controlled, and responsible). These values have been tested with exceptionally large samples in a variety of contexts and across demographics, countries, and political ideologies. Though criticisms exist surrounding the validity and clarity of definitions, the RVS still provides vital insights about value. Later, in an effort to overcome the limitations associated with the study of values, Kahle (1983) developed the List of Values (LOV) incorporating information from Maslow’s (1954) hierarchy of needs, Rokeach’s (1973) list of 18 terminal values, and Feather’s (1975) social values. Specifically, from the national survey in the United States with a large number of participants, people were classified according to the values they consider the most important. The LOV closely reflects the daily lives (Beatty et al., 1985) and consists of nine values including a sense of belonging, excitement, fun and enjoyment in life, warm relationships with others, self-fulfillment, sense of accomplishment, being well-respected, security, and self-respect. Shoham and Kahle (1996) applied the LOV to identify consumption and communication patterns in the sport market and found that warm relationship with others was positively associated with attending a sport event, but negatively with reading sport and hobby magazines. A positive relationship was found between competitiveness and attending a sport event. Conversely, being well respected and with high accomplishment were negatively related with watching sport on television. Later, Kahle et al. (2001) investigated the social values of fans from university basketball games by applying the LOV concept and found that fans of men and women’s university basketball teams held different values in the areas of belonging, self-fulfillment, and security.

Researchers have also taken multidimensional approaches to studying value. Major dimensions of values are functional, emotional, and social (Sanchez-Fernandez and Iniesta-Bonillo, 2007). Functional value refers to the “perceived utility and acquired from an alternative’s capacity for functional, utilitarian or physical performance” (Sheth et al., 1991, p. 160). Functional value signifies benefit-sacrifice relationship. Social value is acquired by interacting with various types of social groups and becomes a basis for social class and prestige. Social values influence a wide range of human behavior and are integral to understanding the societal science (Kahle et al., 1988). Emotional value is associated with internal feelings or affective states (Sanchez-Fernandez and Iniesta-Bonillo, 2007). Values are created based on heritage and life experiences, and those values influence subsequent behaviors. Thus, in order to effectively understand the dynamics of societal changes, it is integral to understand the criteria or standards of values. Considering its significant contribution to the economy, environment, and society, it is important to gain an understanding of sport spectators’ perceived values. An understanding of spectators’ values would help to better understand their motivations for following sporting events, and attitude toward the presence of sport teams in their community.

### **Value Dimensions of Professional Sport**

In this study, eight dimensions were proposed for the value of professional sport teams. Three dimensions were related to social value (i.e., Community Solidarity, Citizenship Behavior, Social Equity), four related to personal value (i.e., Pastime Ecstasy, Health Awareness, Individual Quality, Excellence Pursuit), and one functional value (i.e., Business Opportunity).

*Community Solidarity.* Solidarity is similar to the community values (i.e., sense of belonging and warm relationship with others) identified in previous study (Kahle, 1996). Solidarity refers to rejection of individualism, emphasis on social networks, family, neighborhood, and relatives, and fostering a sense of community (Maguire et al., 2002). Solidarity provides a sense of collective identity allowing one to associate with other members and the community as a whole. Sport teams engender social bonding as they tie community members together regardless of their race, ethnicity, gender, or economic status (Crompton, 2004). No institution or organization in a community has a stronger influence in bringing people together as a local sport team does (Anderson and Stone, 1981). Sport highlights community integration, philosophy based on mutuality, social inclusion, and internal members’ sense of belonging to the community. Sense of belonging is a home and family oriented social value (Kahle et al., 2001). It consequently reinforces civic pride and loyalty to the community.

Researchers have highlighted community solidarity as an important community value (Crompton, 2004; Lipsky, 1979; Zhang et al., 1996). According to Lipsky, sport is a “magic elixir” that helps individuals identify themselves with community and reassures an attachment that becomes a tool for achieving community solidarity. Sport teams help the residents feel united regardless of their backgrounds by promoting social awareness and bonding, and unifying diverse social groups. The experiences at the sport events become a part of a shared memory. Sport serves the purpose of community building and integration. Through sporting events, residents are often given the opportunity to identify with the community and its members publicly (Anderson and Stone, 1981). They can express their emotional ties and feelings with the community by associating with the team through songs, chants, creating signs, tattoos, or even face painting. Moreover, sport plays a significant role in the healing of a nation. Professional sport represents a standard of normalcy that soothed an injured nation in its greatest hour of need. Following the tragedy in New York City on September 11, 2001, events for honoring and remembering those who died were held during sport events (Brown, 2004). Another important area of solidarity relates to symbolic association. Lipsky (1979) noted that sport enables people to realize human needs and ideals in a symbolic form. Sport contains powerful symbolism and rituals. Humans long for affectionate relationship with others and a visible object is necessary to satisfy this need. Sport teams have the power to embody and boost a



city's identity, thus enhancing the emotional tie that the residents have with the team. The symbolic value, in which sport teams help to characterize a city and the life in it, lets the residents connect themselves with the city and feel a sentiment and nostalgia for it when they are away (Anderson and Stone, 1981).

*Citizenship Behavior.* Citizenship behavior refers to the means whereby a group or society encourages compliance with rules and regulations articulated in the society. In a sport context, the rules represent norms. Participants in a game are required to abide by the rules of the games. Officials in a game interpret and enforce the rules and execute penalties when a rule is not observed (Snyder and Purdy, 1987). Learning experiences in sport are mostly associated with emotional regulation and conforming to social norms. Sport teaches the importance of self-discipline, social control, teamwork, mutual respect, and fair play (Simon, 2004). It teaches individuals to adjust to public life and to learn how they can contribute to their communities. Through spectator sports, one can learn the importance of rules and the consequences resulting from not observing them. Sport provides common behavioral guidelines to generate shared experiences, values, and beliefs through collective conscience, and thus bond the community members to one another in modern societies (Eckstein and Delaney, 2002).

Sport not only contributes to reducing the incidences of anti-social behavior, but also prevents people from deviating from societal norms by teaching common goals and standards (Coakley, 2007). Individuals learn social norms, rules and regulations, and a positive public manner (Nixon, 1984). Individuals develop a socializing process and learn to conform to a social system. Being a sport spectator provides an opportunity to learn to conform publicly to a reference group's norm (Kahle et al., 1996). Sport also teaches how to accept both victory and defeat. Ejection or suspension from the games, discharge from a team, and sitting on the bench are some examples of these corrective consequences. From these incidents, people learn that violation of the rules or deviated behaviors will result in certain punishment.

*Social Equity.* "Equity" emphasizes an understanding of the diverse social aspects of society and describes that a person or group needs to be compensated in proportion to the investments of efforts one exerts (Duquin, 1984). Equal opportunity identifies with various aspects such as nondiscrimination, equal chance to attain benefits, and equal chances in terms of achievement for the major social groups (English, 1978). Sport promotes social inclusion by increasing accessibility and opportunity for shared experiences in the community, while providing culturally diverse environment for community members. One aspect of equity relates to gender relations. Efforts have been made to pursue sex equality through sports. An increasing number of female sport fans are attending professional sport leagues. For example, female fans account for 46% of MLB and 38% of NBA fan bases (Yerak, 2000).

Another aspect of Social Equity is associated with providing equal opportunity for diverse ethnic and racial groups (Long et al., 2005). When individuals root for their home team, various social classes and racial differences are ignored (Eckstein and Delaney, 2002). Sport also promotes social inclusion. During the last two decades, American society has witnessed a tremendous growth of minority groups. As Phinney and Alipaira (1996) referred, American society is a mixture of diverse ethnicity and culture and is often called a "melting pot;" an increasingly diversified population characterizes modern American society. The rapidly growing proportion of ethnic and racial minorities in the United States warrants a deeper understanding of the characteristics of minority groups. Similarly, professional sport has seen a great increase of foreign-born athletes in the various leagues. For example, 59 international players from 28 countries and territories were playing in the NBA in 2007 (NBA.com, 2007). MLB is not an exception; 29% of major leaguers and 46.2% of minor leaguers on rosters at the start of 2007 season were born outside of the U.S. (ESPN.com, 2007).

Despite increased awareness on the importance of diversity in sports, problems in terms of gender, race, and economic status within sport still prevail. Sport is still mostly dominated by males; whereas, sportswomen are pervasively under-represented, stereotyped, and ignored by the media (Pederson, 2002). Less attention and support from community and media are given to female athletes (Theberge, 1995). Furthermore, though male athletes and teams present shared surroundings for the celebration and realization of masculinity, women athletes often are unfairly rewarded for their effort. Similarly, sport is also viewed as a medium for worsening racial discrimination (Allison, 2000). Disproportional ethnic and gender distribution in managerial positions of many teams, such as athletic director and head coach positions can be found throughout the professional sport leagues. Those positions are still dominated by males and Caucasians. For example, up to 97% of the MLB teams are owned by Caucasians and nearly 100% of team CEO's and presidents are male. Similar predominance of Caucasians can also be found across the professional coaching staff members. More than 90% of general managers and more than 70% of the coaches are white males (Lapchick et al., 2006).

*Pastime Ecstasy.* An increasing number of people, particularly those of younger generations, consider fun and enjoyment from leisurely activities as important (Kahle, 1996). This value is related with attendance at sporting events and consumption of nostalgia, elegance, authenticity, and patriotism (Shoham and Kahle, 1996). Commercial-oriented professional sport functions as an animator of mass-culture, delivering aesthetic and hedonistic values (Krawczyk, 1980), providing entertainment, socializing, and excitement opportunities, and enhancing cultural appreciation. Professional sport leagues and teams have long provided sources of entertainment in American society. They provide recreational and entertainment value for community members. Stadiums and arenas today offer a space for a total entertainment experience. People do not go to games just to watch athletes play; eating, drinking, shopping, and socializing are other options that people enjoy at sport venues (Wann et al., 2001).

Professional sport provides society members with the opportunity for self-expression and stretching oneself both mentally and physically. Sport fans are motivated to follow sporting events to experience their entertainment components (Funk et al., 2001, 2002; Wann, 1995). Sport spectatorship not only allows one to relieve boredom and fatigue associated with everyday life, but also helps reduce stress and anxiety, relax tensions, control aggressiveness, and develop varied interests (Milne and McDonald, 1999; Zillman et al., 1989). Also, fans attending live sporting events derive enjoyment by having an opportunity to experience comradeship and aesthetics, and socialize with other spectators. Cathartic experience is another emotional result of attending a game (Wann et al., 2001).

*Health Awareness.* An individual's mental and physical health is an important factor to the quality of life. Spectator sports are important activities among various public services that a community provides (i.e., automobile care services, local newspaper, and day care services; Sirgy et al., 2000). These services contribute to the citizens' satisfaction in community life. Safety of the area and natural environments, as well as sport and leisure activities, was believed to be important aspects in determining the quality of life in the community (Goitein and Forsythe, 1995). Cities ranked high on a quality of life index invariably had major league professional sport franchises or a NCAA Division I football and basketball team (Smith, 1998). Local sport organizations and spectator sports may enhance peoples' interests in recreational and fitness activities. Sport helps people develop better lifestyle skills, demonstrates the fundamental importance of physical wellness, and contributes to the quality of life and healthy lifestyle.

Sport consumers are interested in watching a sport event to appreciate the physical attractiveness and sexual appeal of the athletes (Madrigal, 2006). Professional athletes often are icons of healthy figures. Athletes' physical attractiveness encourages people to stay away from drugs and other substances and encourages regular participation in physical activities (Zhang et al., 1996).

Meanwhile, athletes demonstrate the beauty of the human body and the benefits of maintaining physical fitness. Therefore, spectator sports make people aware of a variety of beneficial effects of good health. Also, due in part to the advances in technology, people are easily able to access laborsaving devices at home and at work, which has resulted in the decline in manual occupations and the increasing reliance on convenient and automated instruments. On one hand, electronic devices at home afford people with more free time to engage in sport activities; on the other hand, technology has reduced physical labors at work, thus demanding for more physical activities. In general, athletes provide a good example for health and fitness.

*Individual Quality.* Individual quality is similar to self-fulfillment, which is associated with self-indulgence, and emotional fulfillment (Kahle et al., 2001). Although this value is relatively similar to accomplishment and achievement, self-fulfillment is psychological self-evaluations, while achievement-based set of value is more externally verifiable value fulfillment (Kahle, et al, 1988). In many cultures, the role of sport in building one's character has been persistently believed (Coakley, 2007). Sport enriches one's personality by creating existential, artistic, and hedonistic values (Krawczyk, 1980). Sport encourages such elements as spontaneity and competitive traits (Sloan, 1989; Zillman et al., 1989). Through their favorite players, spectators learn such qualities as self-discipline, self-control, confidence, altruism, ambition, and loyalty (Wann et al., 2001). Sport is also likely to have a positive effect on people's character building as it provides a chance to learn such values as competence, responsibility, and accepting a challenge. Skill development, rewards for competence, and forming new relationships with others are also important qualities people gain from sport.

*Excellence Pursuit.* Pursuing excellence is similar to sense of accomplishment. This value represents actualizing one's hidden potentialities (Kahle, 1996). Achieving individual success through articulated sets of goals is one of the most highly appreciated values in American society (Simon, 2004). People endorsing this value tend to have made significant accomplishment and hold high-status jobs (Timmer and Kahle, 1983). They appreciate the value of achievement and success. As a means to display their success, some people like conspicuous consumptions, such as expensive cars, imported goods, and fine restaurants (Kahle et al., 1988). The spectacular and record-seeking characteristic of sport becomes an instrument for individual excellence and achievement. Spectator sport demonstrates personal excellence through persistent challenge up to one's full potential and efforts to improve one's skills and abilities (Wann et al., 2001). Competitive sport exhibits beauty and artistic quality of life. Spectators are attracted to watching sport because they want to enhance self-esteem vicariously through excellent performance of athletes (Sloan, 1989; Wann, 1995). Sport also contributes to promoting achievement, heroism, hard work, risk taking, and quality of life. Enhanced quality of life allows individuals to expand their options and increase the capability to shape and experience potential completeness (Harris, 1996). Sport spectatorship encourages spectators to achieve their goals by having them associate hard work with success.

*Business Opportunity.* Professional sport provides functional value to the community. Traditionally, functional value was defined as a trade-off between quality and price (Dodds et al., 1991). Although economic impact studies have concluded that facilities and infrastructures associated with sport do little to provide additional revenue for the local community, sport facilities have been a central part of downtown redevelopment initiatives (Chapin, 2002). Sport facilities provide an important infrastructure in the community (Sparvero and Chalip, 2007). Major league sport teams along with their venues become national attractions and provide a great opportunity to secure prominent locations as an international marketplace (Whitson and Macintosh, 1993). Amenities and hospitality utilities of stadiums (e.g., luxury boxes, club seats) can effectively be used to host industry decision-makers, potential employees, clients, and quality workforces (Austrian and Rosentraub, 2002).

With successful management of sporting events and teams, such benefits can be derived as raising the profile of a city, increasing tourism-related activities, and reshaping of the city image can be

expected (Gratton et al., 2006). Many cities continuously engage in place marketing, which involves an effort to construct the image of a place to make the city appear attractive to business, tourists, and residents (Kotler et al., 1993). Sport teams and facilities together are able to boost tourism by increasing international awareness of the location as an attractive destination. By successfully revitalizing the city through sport teams, thus changing the image of the city, it is possible for the city to attract new investment and the influx of middle-income or high-income residents (Sparvero and Chalip, 2007).

Sparvero and Chalip (2007) noted that professional sport teams may be effectively used when a facility, events, surrounding amenities, transportation, and an overall development plan are strategically incorporated. They specifically suggested that goals and tactics that teams, facilities, and events be incorporated into an overall development strategy. By encouraging multiple uses of facilities, the facility can be used all year long, providing value added activities and attractions to the visitors by locating souvenir shops and museums, and developing surrounding areas and permitting zoning regulations. Zoning regulations allow small service businesses to be operated within a residential area. Some examples of successful execution of strategic development can be found in several places such as Baltimore, Cleveland, and San Diego. In these cities, sport facilities were effectively used to enhance the development of the metropolitan areas. Sport facilities became a part of the surrounding environments and an effort to provide success through a cooperative plan was accomplished (Chapin, 2004). For instance, San Diego officials realized that situating the ballpark project was an important part of downtown redevelopment to promote the area as a place for entertainment and convivial environment. The ballpark project was injected along with Horton Plaza, the downtown shopping mall, the Convention Center, and San Diego Zoo expansion (Chapin, 2002).

Through a comprehensive review of literature, content analysis, and domain tabulation, the eight dimensions in the CIS were overall supported. These dimensions broadly reflect the social and human values as well as functional values identified in previous studies (e.g., Kahle, 1983; Rokeach, 1973, Schwartz, 1992, Sweeney and Soutar, 2001; see Table 1). To further ensure its usefulness for theoretical and practical applications, this study re-examined measurement properties of the CIS through conducting a CFA. The findings of this study would further improve the validity of the scale and provide a framework for in-depth understanding the value dimensions associated with professional sport.

**Table 1**  
**Content Analysis: A Tabulation of Value Dimensions**

CIS	Schwartz, 1992	Kahle, 1983	Keng and Yang, 1983	Veroff et al., 1993	Rokeach, 1973	Sweeney and Soutar, 2001
Community Solidarity	Security	Security	Harmony	Security	Family security; National security; comfortable life	Social Value
	Benevolence	Sense of belonging		Sociability	True friendship	
	Tradition	Warm relationships with others				
Citizenship Behavior	Conformity			Moral respect	Inner harmony; World at peace	Social Value
Social Equity	Universalism				Equality; beauty; Mature love	
Pastime Ecstasy	Stimulation	Fun and enjoyment	Hedonism	Hedonism	An exciting life	
	Hedonism				Pleasure	
Health Awareness	Self-direction	Self-respect			Self-respect	
Individual Quality		Being well-respected	Respect	Self-actualization	Happiness; Freedom; Salvation; Wisdom;	
		Self-fulfillment				
Excellence Pursuit	Achievement	A sense of accomplishment	Achievement		A sense of accomplishment	Emotional Value
	Power				Social recognition	
Business Opportunity						Functional Value

## METHOD

### Participants and Procedure

A convenience sampling method (i.e., mall intercept technique) was employed in this study by conducting a survey in three large metropolitan areas in Florida, including Tampa, Orlando, and Jacksonville. Trained research assistants were positioned at the entrance areas of shopping malls and administered the survey packet to mall shoppers. Participants were informed of the purpose of the research and invited to voluntarily cooperate and provide sincere responses. The survey packet included an informed consent form, the CIS, and questions related to sociodemographic backgrounds. In order to include subjects from diverse backgrounds, data collection was conducted during both weekdays and weekends that lasted a time span of five weeks. A total of 500 questionnaires were

distributed and 384 individuals who were 18 years or older responded to the survey with a 77% response rate. Of them, 349 successfully completed survey packet and were thus included in the data analyses. Hair et al. (2006) indicated that though larger samples produce more stable solutions, as structural equation modeling (SEM) procedure is sensitive to large samples (e.g., >400), a sample size of between 150 and 400 is suggested for using maximum likelihood estimation (MLE).

Of the respondents, 51.3 % ( $n = 179$ ) were male and 48.7 % ( $n = 170$ ) were female. Participants ranged in age from 18 to 75 years ( $M=32.45$ ;  $SD=13.43$ ). A majority of respondents was Caucasians (64.5%) and the remaining sample included 12.0% African Americans, 11.7 % Hispanics, 9.7% Asians, 1.4% Native Americans, and 0.6% of other ethnic background. In terms of marital status, 37.5% were married, 58.7% were single, 2.6% were divorced, 0.9% was widowed, and 0.3% was separated. Of them, 12.3% held an advanced degree, 42.1% were college graduates, 37.5% were college or school students, 7.2% were high school graduates but not college students, and 0.6% did not specify. The National Football League (NFL) games were the most favored type of professional sport (43.7%), followed by the Major League Baseball (MLB; 11.4%) and the National Basketball Association (NBA; 11.4%) games. With respect to leisure options, 56.3% of the participants indicated attending professional sporting events as their favorite activity, followed by watching sport events on television with 30.6%. Overall, the sociodemographic characteristics of the participants appear similar to those in the Zhang et al.'s (1996) original study and to the U.S. population at large (U.S. Census Bureau, 2007).

### Measurement

The original CIS scale adopted a combination of semantic differential and 5-point Likert scales with bipolar statements. This 5-point bipolar semantic differential scale used in the original CIS is not a widely adopted approach of data collection and it has been criticized for its conceptual confusion and lack of fine grade to distinguish respondents' opinions (Al-Hindaware, 1996). Some bipolar items did not include two completely contrasting concepts. Failing to provide clearly opposing concepts may obscure the concepts and lead to a double-barreled interpretations, which deals with more than one construct. The problem of double-barreled items lies in their ambiguity and the reduction of respondents' logical ability to decide on an optimal answer (Funke, 2005). For example, one of the items was phrased "generates ritual reassurance versus generates ritual change." People may not necessarily perceive change as negative. Another example is "provides entertainment versus provides tension." Some people may like watching sport because a sport contest is comprised of periods of tension, which ultimately leads to an emotional release (Zillman et al., 1989). With the permission obtained from the researchers of the original scale (Zhang et al., 1996), in the current study a Likert 7-point Likert scale (1= strongly disagree to 7=strongly agree) was adopted to enhance direct readability of items; in the meantime, the original meaning of the items were strictly maintained. Comparatively speaking, a Likert scale is a more commonly used type of ranking than a semantic differential scale, and it has a number of merits. For example, Likert-type responses help

increase the reliability of the instrument (Thomas et al., 2005). Adopting only the Likert scale without the company of the semantic differential scale was intended to eliminate potential confusions caused by the semantic differential statements.

Additionally, considering the fact that four of the factors (Social Equity, Health Awareness, Individual Quality, and Business Opportunity) in the original CIS displayed internal consistency coefficients lower than the expected criterion of .70 (Nunnally and Bernstein, 1994), a small number of items were added to these factors. This was done by following the suggestions that increased reliability can be achieved by adding more items to a factor (Baumgartner et al., 2007). All of the added items were derived with minor modifications in wording from the initial item pools of the Zhang et al.'s (1996) study, which were formulated during the preliminary stages of the scale development and yet not retained as a result of the factor analyses. Specifically, two items were added to Social Equity, Health Awareness, and Individual Quality, respectively, and three items were added to the Business Opportunity factor. Consequently, a total of 54 items were included in the data collection process. These items were arranged in a random order and each item was preceded with a prefix, 'In general, I consider that professional sport teams .....

### **Data Analyses**

This study was designed to re-examine the factor structure of the CIS that included 54 items under 8 factors: (a) Community Solidarity, (b) Citizenship Behavior, (c) Pastime Ecstasy, (d) Excellence Pursuit, (e) Social Equity, (f) Health Awareness, (g) Individual Quality, and (h) Business Opportunity. With the number of factors fixed to eight, items were specified to be loaded on their respective factors. SPSS 15.0 (George and Mallery, 2006) and the Windows LISREL 8.5 (Jöreskog and Sörbom, 1996) computer programs were conducted to calculate descriptive statistics, test the hypothesized measurement model, and calculate reliability coefficients. A CFA using the ML estimation method was employed to examine whether the observed items were loaded on the pre-specified latent constructs. According to Tabachnick and Fidell (2006), CFA procedures are based on the following five steps: (a) model specification, (b) identification, (c) model estimation, (d) testing model fit, and (e) model respecification. When the hypothesized model fits the data well, the CFA process can be stopped. Otherwise, model respecification process needs to be conducted until a better solution is obtained.

To evaluate the goodness of model fit and the estimation of parameters of the hypothesized model, the following fit indices were adopted:  $\chi^2$  goodness-of-fit, root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA), standardized means square residual (SRMR), comparative fit index (CFI), Akaike Information Criterion (AIC), and Expected Cross-Validation Index (ECVI). Chi-square test statistic ( $\chi^2$ ) tests the hypothesis that the proposed model fits the covariance matrix. High value of  $\chi^2$  indicates large discrepancy between the sample and fitted covariance matrices and badness of the model's fit to the data. Although  $\chi^2$  test enjoyed substantial popularity, there is a tendency that chi-square goodness-of-fit statistic is sensitive to sample size (Hu and Bentler, 1995). In order to reduce this sensitivity, normed chi-square (NC,  $\chi^2/df$ ) is often used (Kline, 2005). The value of the NC ranging from 2.0 to 3.0 and as high as 5.0 is recommended as an indication of reasonable fit (Bollen, 1989). Along with  $\chi^2$  test, other fit indices also need to be examined to obtain a better understanding of model fit (Raykov and Marcoulides, 2000). For RMSEA, Browne and Cudeck (1992) recommended that a value less than .05 indicates a close fit of model; values in the range of .05 to .08 indicate a reasonable fit of approximation; and the value greater than .10 indicate poor fit. MacCallum, Browne, and Sugawara (1996) further suggested that values between .08 and .10 indicate mediocre fit. SRMR is based on the differences between observed covariance matrix and the predicted covariance. It measures the mean absolute value of the covariances. Thus, higher value of SRMR indicates bad fit. SRMR value less than .10 generally indicate a good fit of model (Kline). CFI is one of the incremental or comparative fit indexes (Kline). A rule of thumb for the CFI is that values greater than .90 may well represent reasonable approximation of the data (Hu and Bentler). ECVI is a population based,

parsimony adjusted fit index. ECVI represents a function of non-centrality parameter (Brown and Cudeck, 1993). AIC takes into account both the measure of fit and model complexity, and it is population based rather than sample based fit index (Kline). In examining the competing non-hierarchical models, those models with lower values of ECVI and AIC are preferred because they fit the model better with less parameters.

It is necessary to determine how well the indicators capture their specified constructs and the constructs are distinct from each other. To establish construct validity, the relationships between the observed variables and their latent construct, as well as the correlations among latent constructs, were examined. Specifically, convergent validity and discriminant validity were evaluated. Convergent validity refers to how well each indicator loads on specified latent construct and is established when each item has a significant factor loading on each construct (Netemeyer et al., 1990). To determine convergent validity, indicator loadings and the *t* values were examined. An item loading value equal to or greater than .5 and preferably .7 would be considered an acceptable loading and indicates good convergent validity (Hair et al., 2006). In addition, discriminant validity was examined to test how distinct the constructs are from one another. In the current study, three tests of discriminant validity were employed. According to Anderson and Gerbing (1998), discriminant validity can be established by examining the confidence interval around the correlation estimate between any two factors. The confidence interval should not encompass 1.0. Additionally, according to Kline (2005), discriminant validity can be established when inter-factor correlation is below .85. A more robust test of discriminant validity was to examine whether the AVE for each construct is greater than the squared correlation of the two referent factors (Fornell and Larcker, 1981).

To assess the reliability, the following tests were employed: Cronbach's coefficient alpha ( $\alpha$ ) values, construct reliability (CR), and AVE. The recommended .70 cut-off value were adopted to determine internal consistency ( $\alpha$ ) and CR (Fornell and Larcker, 1981; Nunnally and Bernstein, 1994). A benchmark value for AVE was .50 as suggested by Bagozzi and Yi (1988).

## Results

The skewness and kurtosis coefficients were well between  $\pm 2.00$ , indicating that the data distribution did not deviate from normality for any given variable. Conducting a preliminary CFA, the chi-square for the model was significant ( $\chi^2=4678.71$ ,  $df=1349$ ,  $p<.01$ ). The NC value ( $\chi^2/df = 3.47$ ) was above the suggested cut-off value (i.e.,  $< 3.0$ ; Bollen, 1989). Other goodness-of-fit indices of the model only indicated that the model was admissible, with RMSEA = .084 (CI=.082.to .087), SRMR=.079, and CFI =.77. Although the value of RMSEA and SRMR was within the range of acceptable fit, CFI value of .77 was substantially lower than the recommended cut-off ratio ( $>.90$ ; Hu and Bentler, 1999). The AVE coefficients for Citizenship Behavior, Health Awareness, and Excellence Pursuit were .78, .50, and .58, respectively; however, the remaining values were all below the suggested criterion: .34 for Solidarity, .40 for Social Equity, .34 for Pastime Ecstasy, .49 for Individual Quality, and .43 for Business Opportunity. Overall, the model did not display good psychometric properties.

Modification indices (MI) indicated that model fit could be improved with respecification of the model. To improve the model, a number of items were removed due to their poor performance in factor loading and also lacking in conceptual soundness. Six items with a lambda ( $\lambda$ ) value of lower than .50 were first removed from the model. Sixteen other items had a  $\lambda$  value between .51 and .59; however, they poorly represented the corresponding constructs as indicated in their MI. For example, an item under Community Solidarity was stated as "Professional sport influence the safety of the community." This item showed low factor loading ( $\lambda =.53$ ) and the notion of professional sports contributing to the safety of the host community was questionable, lacking strong theoretical support in the literature. Decisions were hence made to remove these items. A total of 22 items were removed through the model respecification process. The modified 8-factor model with 32 items showed a



better fit to the data, with  $\chi^2=989.01$  ( $df=436$ ,  $p<.01$ ), RMSEA = .060 (CI=.055 to .065), SRMR= .053, NC= 2.27, ECVI = 3.37, and CFI =.91.

To ensure the evidence of convergent validity, factor loadings and  $t$  -values were examined. All factor loadings were above the suggested threshold value of .5 (Hair et al., 2006), ranging from .60 to .84. The  $t$ - values for all indicators ranged from 11.33 to 18.97 and each of them was significant at the .05 level. The result suggested that each item significantly contributed to its posited underlying constructed. In addition, the significant relationships between any pair of the eight dimensions and the CIS in the second-order model further support the convergent validity of the scale (Anderson and Gerbing, 1988). Factor loadings ranged from .63 (Business Opportunity) to .94 (Social Behavior, and Excellence Pursuit). In sum, an examination of the indicators' loadings and  $t$  -values on their respective constructs provides evidence of convergent validity of the scale items. Factor loadings and descriptive statistics of the retained 32 items are presented in Table 2.

**Table 2**  
**Factor Loadings and Item Descriptive Statistics**

<i>Item</i>	$\lambda$	<i>t-value</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>
<b>Community Solidarity</b>				
Help to increase family bonding	0.60	11.85	5.18	1.30
Generate a feeling of belonging in my community	0.65	13.07	5.34	1.22
Reinforce good sentiment toward the community	0.65	13.02	5.13	1.15
Create positive impact on the cultural identity	0.76	16.20	5.12	1.23
Bring community harmony	0.71	14.69	4.79	1.29
<b>Citizenship Behavior</b>				
Reinforce positive citizenship	0.60	11.70	4.53	1.35
Encourage following rules and regulations	0.63	12.42	5.03	1.38
Provide positive role models	0.70	14.12	4.92	1.48
Influence individuals to play by the rules	0.76	16.00	4.91	1.34
Encourage positive sportsmanship	0.73	15.16	5.01	1.39
<b>Social Equity</b>				
Improve ethnic/racial equality	0.63	12.13	4.66	1.41
Promote human justice	0.78	15.77	3.95	1.32
Increase class equality in the society	0.80	16.33	4.00	1.50
<b>Pastime Ecstasy</b>				
Provide opportunity for getaways	0.62	11.33	5.34	1.26
Bring excitement to the community	0.68	12.84	6.01	.99
Provide socializing opportunities	0.68	12.72	5.83	1.27
<b>Health Awareness</b>				
Encourage physical exercises	0.74	15.53	5.49	1.41
Demonstrate the importance of physical wellness	0.84	17.44	5.25	1.30
Provide an incentive for individual's health and fitness	0.83	17.11	5.23	1.39
Enhance interest in recreation and leisure activities	0.65	14.68	5.49	1.20
<b>Individual Quality</b>				
Promote one's character building	0.77	16.83	4.96	1.33
Enlighten the importance of self-fulfillment	0.84	18.97	4.98	1.36
Enrich personal wellbeing	0.83	18.56	4.98	1.36
Encourage voluntary action	0.65	13.33	4.64	1.35
<b>Excellence Pursuit</b>				
Encourage one to achieve success	0.68	14.06	5.36	1.26
Encourage taking challenges	0.79	17.11	5.23	1.32
Encourage one to perform hard work	0.78	16.80	5.17	1.32
Provide an incentive for pursuing excellence	0.80	17.59	5.31	1.32
<b>Business Opportunity</b>				
Benefit other businesses in the community	0.68	13.60	5.62	1.24
Increase community commercial activities	0.71	14.48	5.37	1.13
Attract more commercial investment to the community	0.67	13.41	5.74	1.08
Enhance the image of the hosting community	0.70	14.04	5.33	1.22

Next, discriminant validity of the scale was examined following the criteria discussed in the method section. First, the evidence of discriminant validity exists when the confidence interval of the paired correlations between two constructs does not encompass 1.0 (Anderson and Gerbing, 1998). Although the correlations between some of the constructs were high, no relationship failed the test, with the exception of the coefficient between Excellence Pursuit and Individual Quality. The results overall support the discriminant validity of the scale. Second, an examination of inter-factor correlations showed that three values were above .85 (i.e., correlations between Health Awareness and Excellence Pursuit, Individual Quality and Excellence Pursuit, and Community Solidarity and Business Opportunity; Kline, 2005). Third, a further discriminant validity check using AVE values and squared correlations revealed a lack of discriminant validity between Community Solidarity and each of the following factors: Pastime Ecstasy, Health Awareness, Citizenship Behavior, and Business Opportunity. Another lack of validity was found between Citizenship Behavior and the following factors: Health Awareness, Individual Quality, and Excellence Pursuit.

The phi coefficients ( $\Phi$ ), representing inter-factor correlations among the latent variables, ranged from .39 (between Social Equity and Pastime Ecstasy) to .97 (between Excellence Pursuit and Individual Quality) (Table 3). Because of the high inter-factor correlation between Individual Quality and Excellence Pursuit, a seven-factor nested model with these two latent variables combined together was hypothesized and examined. Also, because all of CIS factors were deemed to measure the value of professional sports in the community, a second-order model with all eight latent variables under a common factor, CIS, was also hypothesized. When the seven-factor and second-order models were analyzed, the model fit dropped slightly. Both of the seven-factor and two second-order models were inferior to the first order eight-factor model ( $p < .01$ ) when examining the change in chi-square and in degrees of freedom. A comparison of the changes in the goodness-of-fit indexes and model-fit statistics between the eight-factor and the seven-factor model as well as the second-order model are depicted in Table 4.

**Table 3**  
**Factor Reliabilities ( $\alpha$ ), Average Variance Extracted (AVE), Composite Reliability (CR),**  
**Correlation Between Factors, and Squared Interfactor Correlation**

Factor	$\alpha$	CR	AVE	F1	F2	F3	F4	F5	F6	F7	F8
Community Solidarity	0.804	0.807	0.457	1.00	0.59	0.52	0.52	0.62	0.59	0.52	0.76
Citizenship Behavior	0.814	0.816	0.472	0.77	1.00	0.52	0.27	0.67	0.66	0.64	0.29
Social Equity	0.767	0.781	0.546	0.72	0.72	1.00	0.15	0.41	0.53	0.42	0.22
Pastime Ecstasy	0.689	0.697	0.437	0.72	0.52	0.39	1.00	0.41	0.23	0.29	0.71
Health Awareness	0.843	0.845	0.585	0.79	0.82	0.64	0.64	1.00	0.72	0.77	0.44
Individual Quality	0.856	0.858	0.602	0.77	0.81	0.73	0.48	0.85	1.00	0.94	0.23
Excellence Pursuit	0.846	0.847	0.582	0.72	0.80	0.65	0.54	0.88	0.97	1.00	0.31
Business Opportunity	0.783	0.785	0.477	0.87	0.54	0.47	0.84	0.66	0.48	0.56	1.00

Note: Interafactor correlations are below the diagonal; Squared interfactor correlations are above the diagonal

**Table 4**  
**Comparison of Fit Indices among the Eight-Factor, Seven-Factor, and Second-Order Nested Models**

Model	<i>RMSEA</i>	<i>SRMR</i>	<i>CFI</i>	$\chi^2$	<i>df</i>	$\Delta\chi^2$	$\Delta df$
8-factor	0.060	0.053	0.91	989.01	436		
7-factor	0.061	0.054	0.90	1019.92	443	121.91 *	7.00
Second-order	0.075	0.071	0.86	1377.43	456	479.42 *	13.00

*Note:* RMSEA = root mean square error of approximation; SRMR = standardized root means square residual; CFI = Comparative Fit Index  
 \* $p < .01$ .

The internal consistency of the scale was evaluated by using Cronbach's alpha ( $\alpha$ ) reliability, construct reliability (CR), and AVE. Alpha reliability coefficients and CR coefficients of the factors were well above the .70 criterion (Nunnally and Bernstein, 1994), with one exception of Pastime Ecstasy (CR = .697 and  $\alpha = .689$ ). Cronbach's  $\alpha$  values ranged from .689 (Pastime Ecstasy) to .856 (Individual Quality), and the CR values ranged from .697 (Pastime Ecstasy) to .858 (Individual Quality). The AVE values ranged from .437 (Pastime Ecstasy) to .60 (Individual Quality). Based on the results of reliability tests, strong evidence existed to support internal consistency of the scale. The CR coefficients,  $\alpha$  values, and AVE, as well as correlations between factors, are presented in Table 3.

## DISCUSSION

In recent years, there has been an increased interest in studying the value of professional sport by researchers and practitioners. Much focus has been paid to the direct or indirect influence that professional sport teams and facilities have on a regional economy. A number of studies evaluated the economic impact resulting from public subsidies of sport venues and found no significant relationship between sport facility construction and economic contribution to the local community (Noll and Zimbalist, 1997; Rosentraub, 2002). However, the intangible value that people derive from their local professional sport teams, which is beyond the economic impact, is also an important factor for community citizens and policy makers to consider. Various researchers have speculated that intangible benefits that teams bring into the community, such as increased community visibility, enhanced community image, psychic income, community integration, and improved quality of life, justify for the financial investment of public resources on the teams and facilities (Crompton, 2004; Shropshire, 1995; Sparvero and Chalip, 2007; Swindell and Rosentraub, 1998).

This study was conducted to re-validate the CIS through a CFA. Consequently, a total of 32 items were retained under eight factors: Community Solidarity, Citizenship Behavior, Pastime Ecstasy, Excellence Pursuit, Social Equity, Health Awareness, Individual Quality, and Business Opportunity. The resolved construct of the CIS was essentially consistent with the dimensions in the original scale and also with those social and economical value dimensions suggested by previous researchers (e.g., Kahle, 1996; Swindell and Rosentraub, 1998). Furthermore, the CIS supported the primary assumptions of critical theory by reflecting both positive and negative value aspect of professional sport. The CIS also can be used to define sport in social, political and economic context and understand the relationship of sport to the community. Unlike the study by Zhang et al. (1996) that adopted an exploratory approach, this study conducted a CFA, which was a more theory-driven analytical procedure. Comparatively speaking, when value dimensions could be conceptualized, a CFA was a more advanced data analytical procedure. Utilizing the CFA, this study revalidated the

psychometric properties of the CIS and examined the robustness of the scale. It is believed that through the rigorous procedures carried out in this study, research findings would have greater applicability and generalizability to the defined population.

Overall, the modified eight-factor model of CIS showed goodness of fit indices. The findings of current study have provided further evidence of the usability of the CIS when attempting to understand the perceived value of professional sports in the community. In their original study, Zhang et al. (1996) only included spectators of NBA games; conversely, research participants in the current study included professional sport consumers of various sports and product segments, such as live event consumers and media event consumers. Thus, the findings of this study have provided a broader and more extensive understanding about the value of professional sports. The resolved inventory would take a participant no more than 10 minutes to complete; therefore, it has practical application value. Researchers and practitioners may utilize the inventory to conduct in-arena or mail-out surveys.

Although the current 8-factor model displayed good measurement characteristics, other alternative models may exist and thus need to be considered in future studies (MacCallum, 1995). The fit indices of the model was acceptable; however, a number of interfactor correlations were high (e.g., Individual Quality and Excellence Pursuit, and Business Opportunity and Pastime Ecstasy). In this study, a combined factor for Individual Quality and Excellence Pursuit was hypothesized and examined, which was found to be inferior to the 8-factor model even if the seven-factor model also indicated close fit (RMSEA = .061; CFI=.90). As these two factors may represent same construct as found in several previous studies (e.g., Keng and Yang, 1993; Veroff et al., 1981), future examination and revision of the factors and their items are recommended. The Pastime Ecstasy factor represents entertainment value and is theoretically distinct construct from Business Opportunity, indicating possible rewording of items to ensure their separateness. Problems associated with the low discriminant validity might be able to be improved through future scale purification.

Research participants in this study were residents of the metropolitan areas located in the southeastern region of the U.S. A majority of the professional sport franchises in this area have a shorter team history when compared to teams in other regions. For example, Tampa Bay Rays (MLB) and Jacksonville Jaguars (NFL) both entered their respective leagues in 1995. Due to their short period of involvement with the community, residents of these areas may not perceive the value of professional sports as the residents of cities that have a longer history of hosting professional teams. Residents of other cities such as Boston, where professional sport franchises have long been an important part of cultural lives of the community, may perceive professional sports differently. The recent successes of professional teams in the New England area may enhance the perception of the professional sport franchises. All major professional teams in this region, such as the New England Patriots (NFL), the Boston Celtics (NBA), the Boston Red Sox (MLB), and the Boston Bruins (NHL), have recently made the play-offs, and some even appeared in the championship finals. Naturally, highly competitive and successful teams increase the opportunity of media coverage, possibly leading to elevated image of the metropolitan area as perceived by its residents. In addition, in order to have a more in-depth understanding of the value of professional sports, future studies should take into consideration the market competition factor, as well as the availability of substitute forms of entertainment (Zhang et al., 1997). Residents may or may not put less value on professional sports when other entertainment and recreation options exist, which may include theme parks (e.g., Disney World and Bush Gardens), college sports (e.g., University of Florida Gators, University of Miami Hurricanes, and Florida State University Seminoles), beach activities, and other sport and tourism activities. Thus, future studies need to cover diverse geographical locations.

Future studies are also needed to test the nomological validity of the CIS by relating its factors to other linked constructs. Nomological validity is to examine the extent to which a measured construct operates within a set of theoretical constructs and their respective measures (Nunnally and

Bernstein, 1994). If the constructs of a measure behaves as the way in relation to other constructs as researchers expect, the confidence in the new measures enhances (Goodhue, 1998). In this regard, an investigation of the antecedent causes and consequential effects, and predictability through SEM is recommended to provide the evidence of nomological validity of the scale (Netemeyer et al., 1990). For example, it would be beneficial to examine the relationships between the perceived value of professional sport and residents' willingness to support the team at the cost of paying additional taxes for constructing new sport facilities. In future studies, it may also be interesting to incorporate CIS with such factors as sports consumption, team loyalty, identification with the team, and voting behavior that supports franchise expansion. In North America, it has been a recurring phenomenon that a professional sport team moves from one location to another. The effect of franchise relocation on value perceptions of professional sport teams by fans left-behind and fans in the new host city deserves to be investigated. Oftentimes, fans' reactions after losing a team demonstrate the emotional value of a franchise to a community (Lewis, 2001, Mitrano, 1999; Nauright and White, 1996).

The current scale provides a framework for studying social value as well as the economic value of a professional sport team(s). Given the challenges that professional sport teams and host communities face, it is critical for team administrations, community leaders, and city officials to gain a thorough understanding on how a professional team is perceived by community members and how a professional sport organization can contribute to the community. In fact, debates are contemporarily prevailing in many American communities on such issues as the escalation of player's salaries, increased costs of sport facility constructions, use of public resources to subsidize new venues, social and economic impacts of teams, and social responsibility of professional sports. Therefore, professional sport team administrators, legislatures, city officials, community groups, and researchers may adopt the CIS scale that assesses the value of professional sport in the community for the purpose of making informed decisions.

## **IMPLICATIONS FOR MARKETING PRACTITIONERS**

Practical implications of this study are listed below:

1. It is critical for team administrations, community leaders, and city officials to gain a thorough understanding on how a professional team is perceived by community members and how a professional sport organization can contribute to the community.
2. In addition to economic impact, social impact is also an important factor for citizens and policy makers to consider when assessing the value of a professional team(s) in a community.
3. The modified eight-factor model of CIS provides a framework for team administrations, community leaders, and city officials to study the social value of a professional sport team(s). Professional sport team administrators, legislatures, city officials, community groups, and researchers may adopt the scale to assess the value of professional sport in the community for the purpose of making informed decisions.
4. All eight factors in the modified CIS (i.e., Community Solidarity, Citizenship Behavior, Social Equity, Pastime Ecstasy, Health Awareness, Individual Quality, Excellence Pursuit, and Business Opportunity) can be used to highlight and promote the value of a professional sport team(s) in marketing and campaigning schemes. Each factor can be adopted individually or together with other factors.
5. The modified CIS may be applied to examine the relationships between the perceived value of professional sport and residents' willingness to support the team at the cost of paying additional taxes for constructing new sport facilities. It may also be used study the relationships

between the perceived value of professional sport and such variable as sports consumption, team loyalty, identification with the team, emotional attachment to the team, and voting behavior that supports franchise expansion.

6. Researchers and practitioners may utilize the inventory to conduct in-arena, mail-out, telephone, and/or on-line surveys.

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