

What to Study? That Is a Question: A Conscious Thought Analysis

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This lecture was intended to continue the discussions on why and how to establish a distinctive sport management discipline that was initiated by previous Earle F. Zeigler Lecture Award recipients. Through applying the dual process theory (Dijksterhuis & Nordgren, 2006), it was intended to explore the differences between tangible and intangible variables, how they have been studied as distinct perspectives, and how they can be integrated through two application examples, one on service quality of sport event operations and the other on market demand for sport events. Hopefully, this lecture would help reenergize the discussions and inquiries on this important matter. These illustrations are certainly debatable and subject to further empirical examinations.

Foreword

I am extremely honored to receive the 2014 Earle F. Zeigler Lecture Award. I would like to pay my utmost tribute to Dr. Earle F. Zeigler, whose extraordinary wisdom, teaching, scholarship, leadership, professionalism, and overall contribution to the establishment and advancement of sport management as a discipline of study are the highest standard of excellence in our profession. Since its inception in 1989, 25 scholars have received the prestigious Earle F. Zeigler Lecture Award. I am humbled to join this group of outstanding scholars, who are my role models that I have immensely admired and learned from. This is a rare and distinguished honor, and I want to express my heartfelt gratitude to the NASSM Award Committee and the NASSM Executive Council for selecting me for this award.

I would like to dedicate this great honor to Professor Yu Ma, the founding father of the academic discipline of sport management in China. Without his guidance, support, and love, I would never have had an opportunity to come to study in North America. A number of professors have been instrumental to my education, learning, and development, including but not limited to Drs. Barbara E. Jensen, Betty L. Mann, and Kenneth A. Wall of Springfield College, and Drs. Andrew S. Jackson, Dale G. Pease, and Dennis W. Smith at the University of Houston. I have been very fortunate to work and collaborate with many wonderful colleagues and students

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at the University of Houston, the University of Florida, the University of Georgia, and other institutions; I want to express my earnest gratitude to them. Over 27 years ago, I came from China to study in the United States; since then, over the span of almost three decades, there has not been a day that I would forget, as an Asian, my obligations to contribute to the development of sport management studies in Asia as I was told to do by Professor Ma 30 years ago. My sincere appreciation goes to Shanghai University of Sport for recently naming me as an Honorary Dean of its College of Sport Economics and Management, which would be a symbolic platform for me to provide services to China and other parts of Asia. Finally, I want to thank my family (my wife, Julia; son, James; and daughter, Stephanie) for their unconditional support, and my parents (Hongmao Zhang and Rongju Liu) for unselfishly sending their eldest son far away from China. I often wish I was more available to care for them.

In this lecture, I will first discuss the necessity and merits of forming a distinctive sport management discipline. Then, through applying the dual process theory (DPT; Dijksterhuis & Nordgren, 2006) that explains a social phenomenon from divergent paradigms of conscious and unconscious reasoning, I would like to expand the discussion on how to integrate the two perspectives, apply them in various sport industry settings, and produce knowledge that is sport industry specific. The discussion is concluded by recommending the adoption of the DPT to progressively advance sport management as a distinctive discipline of study.

Reviewing the previous Earle F. Zeigler Lectures, from 1989 to 2013, it is apparent that each addressed a critical issue(s) at the time the particular lecture was delivered. These lectures focused on research, teaching, programming, and/or strategizing in regards to the

advancement of sport management as an academic field of study. Undoubtedly, the wisdom and insights shared in these lectures have significantly contributed to the rapid growth and transformation of the sport management discipline as evidenced in the rising number of academic programs in North America; growing number of well-trained scholars with specialized knowledge, skills, and competence; increasing student enrollments, perceived relevance and significance of this academic field to the sport industry and society at large; and the global influences on the academic development of sport management studies. I vividly remember presenting at the 1995 NASSM conference held in Athens, Georgia. There was a rather small number of research presentations on sport marketing and sport consumer behavior. I have noticed that in more recent conferences, typically over 60% of about 300 presentations are focused on sport marketing and/or sport consumer behavior studies. This highlights an increased attention on the business nature of the sport industry and also a continuing trend of refining the empirical inquiry process from macro-investigations to microanalyses.

The concerted research efforts in sport management have advanced scholarly inquiries in terms of both quality and quantity. Many theories that originated in mainstream business administration or other areas of social sciences are introduced to and tested in sport management settings, verifying a viable process of knowledge production for sport management (Chelladurai, 1992; Doherty, 2012; Slack, 1996). Taking into consideration the unique characteristics of the sport industry (Mullin, Hardy, & Sutton, 2014; Pitts & Stotlar, 2012) and endeavoring for establishing a distinctive sport management discipline (Chalip, 2006), theories, assertions, and/or best practices that are specific to the sport management discipline are proposed, tested, and even formed. The numbers of research outlets in terms of scholarly journals and conferences are substantially greater today than in 1989, when Dr. Earle F. Zeigler delivered the inaugural lecture that is named after him (Zeigler, 1992). For instance, the *Journal of Sport Management* has recently grown from four issues per year, with 64 pages in each issue, to six annual issues with 128 pages in each. In today's published studies, it is most common to see investigators adopt theories and research findings derived from mainstream business administration and sociopsychological studies as research frameworks and test their viability in a specified or nonspecified area of the sport industry. With the availability of computer software, studies are becoming increasingly advanced and complicated in statistical analyses. Overall, this is a wonderful phenomenon. Nevertheless, although the pace of scholarly progress in sport management has been impressive, the extent to which many of our research efforts are aiding sport management toward becoming a distinct academic discipline is somewhat questionable. Chalip (2006) emphasized that "if sport management is to be anything more than the mere application of general management principles to the sport context, then there must be something about sport that renders distinctive

concerns, foci, or procedures when sport is managed" (p. 3). Presumably, many academicians would agree that scholarly inquiry is essential for discovering and developing new knowledge that is unique to sport management; yet it is of great debate among scholars on what to study and how to study, which in my opinion, would be key questions to address to accomplish the objective of developing discipline-specific knowledge. Complexity in research designs and statistical analyses is overall a good thing; yet directly adopting the measures derived in general business administration or other social sciences with no or minimal modification or revision may not adequately capture the unique features of a sport management setting. Relating a set of sociopsychological variables directly to behavioral variables may not lead to actionable interpretations. Having a set of sociopsychological variables as exogenous variables and relating them to one or more sets of sociopsychological variables as mediating variables before relating them to behavior variables may appear fancy and overwhelming, but the derived research findings may lack practical usefulness. Without question, these types of studies indeed add more understanding of human psychological processes. What are missing would be those variables that represent the unique functions and processes of one or more sport industry settings, and those variables that are tangible, actionable, modifiable, and directly interpretable to the sport industry or a sport industry setting.

A number of previous Earle F. Zeigler Lecture Award recipients have discussed various challenges that may hamper the survival and improvement of sport management as a respected discipline of study, although each of them addressed different critical issues at the time of the lecture (e.g., Chelladurai, 1992; Cuneen, 2004; Frisby, 2005; Mahony, 2008; Pitts, 2001; Zeigler, 1992). I share and concur with many of their insights. I have been apprehensive about the long-term viability of sport management academic programs in leading Comprehensive Doctoral Institutions (i.e., referred as Research I institutions in the past; Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching, 2014). Higher education institutions of different classifications play different roles in teaching, learning, discovery, and community service. In order for sport management to be a highly respected academic area of study, instead of being a lower priority or near the bottom in the pecking order (Chalip, 2006; Mahony, 2008), sport management programs need to live and flourish in all types of higher education institutions, including those research-intensive institutions, similar to traditional areas of study such as business administration, liberal arts, law, education, engineering, and health science. A particular issue for research universities is that they have high expectations for external funding through contracts and grants, which is rather challenging for most sport management scholars. When compared with some other academic disciplines, sport management faculty members in research universities oftentimes find themselves in a much more tenuous position (Bruening, Fuller, & Evanovich, 2010). Given the relative youth,

and the applied nature, of sport management as an academic discipline, there is little external funding available in this area of study (Mahony, 2008). Some programs have thrived on their funding success, some have been hurt by the demands within institutions, and even others can be immune to the pressure (Zhang, 2012). How can individual sport management faculty members play a role in acquiring grant dollars to strengthen their research programs and support students hired through funded projects (Bruening et al., 2010)? Sport management programs are quite popular with students and show no signs of letting up; however, the pressing reality is that research universities need more than tuition dollars to survive and thrive. Without prospects for external funding, sport management programs and their faculty members will likely face tenacious challenges in receiving institutional support and respect, striving for greater achievement, advancing individual faculty careers, and ultimately thriving in the university community (Mahony, 2008). With a naïve attempt to help sustain a sport management program(s), over the years I have made great efforts to obtain and retain contracts and grants from both governmental agencies and private organizations. I have had both successful and failing experiences, and have learned many lessons; of them, what to study and how to study are very pertinent to the success of grant proposals and renewals. Certainly, there are other critical factors, such as understanding the role of sports as a societal institution and its potential functions to various sectors of the society, which are not directly related to the theme of this lecture although I would be delighted to share with any individual who may be interested. Generally speaking, when an individual or a group of individuals understands the job nature, work environment, and specific features of an agency or organization, is insightful of specific challenging issues in a professional setting, speaks 'their' language, studies and operates on those variables that are tangible, actionable, and modifiable, and maintains a good balance between complexity and simplicity, the individual or group is more likely to be granted an opportunity. This illustration also points to the significance of being relevant, tangible, and sport-industry specific in an effort to meet the demands of sport businesses and also university administration.

In the following sections, I would like to explore the differences between tangible and intangible variables, how they have been studied as distinct perspectives, and how they can be integrated (so that they can be theoretical, complicated, fancy, and also practical) through two application examples, one on service quality of sport event operations and the other on market demand for sport events. These illustrations are merely my insights; certainly, they are debatable and subject to further empirical examinations.

A Conscious Thought Approach

Dijksterhuis and Nordgren (2006) developed the DPT, which explains how a phenomenon can occur in two different ways, or as a result of two different processes.

Often, the two processes consist of an implicit (automatic), intangible, and unconscious process and an explicit (controlled), tangible, and conscious process. The implicit process usually takes a long time to change with the forming of new habits or ways of doing things; conversely, explicit processes and actions may change with persuasion or functional improvement. Based on the DPT model of decision making, there are two modes of thought: conscious and unconscious. Unconscious thought is defined as object- or task-relevant thought processes that take place while the person's attention is focused on something else. Conscious thought requires attention and is defined as object- or task-relevant thought processes that occur when the person is focused on that task or object.

Measuring a Concept

My first example is on the measurement of service quality of sport operations. Shilbury (2012) remarked that competition is the heart and soul of sports. According to Gray (1996), Mullin et al. (2014), and Murray and Howat (2002), sport competitions are the core product function of a sport team. During a game event, the coaching staff, players, and referees are primarily responsible for producing this core product, whereas a team's management usually has little to no involvement in this process. Instead, the team's administrative group actually works on activities related to game operations, such as ticket service, physical and functional quality of the arena/stadium, and intermission amenity activities. The quality of these support programs often affects the overall operational effectiveness of a sport event, entertainment value, and spectator's experience of the game event, and even future attendance of spectators. In many ways, the support programs of a sport game are a form of customer service in a business activity. Edvardsson, Gustavsson, and Riddle (1989) and Grönroos (1984) postulated two components of customer service quality: technical quality and functional quality. Technical quality is concerned with what the customer is actually receiving from the service, such as employee knowledge, facility, equipment, and program. Functional quality is concerned with the way in which the service is delivered and thus involves the interaction between the customer and the service delivery, such as courtesy and friendliness of the employee, and efficiency of service. These two dimensions together influence the corporate image of an organization.

According to Zhang et al. (2004, 2007), the impetus for research on sport service quality stemmed from trying to understand general consumer displeasure with sport services. Another reason for the interest in service quality was the mounting evidence showing that providing superior service produces a competitive advantage. Sport managers thus became increasingly more interested in improving the quality of services provided to their customers. This trend has resulted in a great number of studies related to service quality and satisfaction. As a matter of fact, a majority of studies

on sport service quality have adopted Oliver's (1980) *expectancy disconfirmation theory*, which suggests that feelings of satisfaction result when consumers compare their perceptions of a product's performance to their expectations. If the perceived performance is greater than the initial expectations, initial expectations should be satisfied. On the contrary, if the perceived performance is less than expected, dissatisfaction will likely occur. Following this concept, Parasuraman, Zeithaml, and Berry's (1988) Service Quality Scale (SERVQUAL) has been frequently adopted, either directly or with modification, claiming it as a generic scale for various industries. The SERVQUAL consists of 22 very general measurement questions in five dimensions, including Tangibles, Reliability, Responsiveness, Assurance, and Empathy. Although the tangibles factor is supposed to assess the physical properties (technical) and the other factors refer to the intangible service aspects (functional), the actual items for the tangibles factor are rather general and nonspecific. When analyzed by the DPT (Dijksterhuis & Nordgren, 2006), these factors and their contents would be labeled as being implicit, intangible, general, and to a great extent, superficial. Many scholars in sport management are familiar with this scale and would agree with this description.

While discussions on the validity of adopting the expectation and perception scheme are beyond the intended scope of this presentation, SERVEQUAL is a very general assessment tool and information derived from administering the scale does not provide any direction for specific service areas within a sport organization. For instance, if a sport event is perceived with low reliability by consumers, the score does not inform what area needs improvement and how such improvements can be made. Even Parasuraman et al. (1988) indicated that the SERVEQUAL requires modification and adaptation when applied to various organizational contexts, given that it was developed to be generic across a broad spectrum of services. Murray and Howat (2002) and Zhang et al. (2007) advocated for sport industry-specific, event-specific, and function-specific dimensions of service quality due to the differences among various service environments of the sport industry. After all, the ultimate goals of studying service quality are to identify its relevance and improve its production and delivery.

Zhang et al. (2004) developed the Spectator Satisfaction Scale (SSS) via a combination of qualitative and quantitative approaches. The initial scale was formulated by identifying 27 organizational activities through observations, interviews, and a comprehensive review of literature. Five experts participated in the test of content validity. A random sample of NBA spectators was surveyed. An exploratory factor analysis (EFA), multiple regression analyses, and alpha coefficients indicated good measurement characteristics for the SSS in terms of construct and predictive validity, and internal consistency reliability. The final version of the scale included 18 items under four factors: Satisfaction with Ticket Service, Satisfaction with Amenities of Game, Satisfaction with Audio

Visuals, and Satisfaction with Accessibility Condition. The factors were found to be positively predictive of game attendance and ticket consumption level. A confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) study, conducted by Zhang, Lam, Connaughton, Bennett, and Smith (2005), on professional hockey spectators has provided supporting evidence to its construct validity.

To evaluate customer satisfaction toward service quality of health-fitness clubs, Lam, Zhang, and Jensen (2005) developed the Service Quality Assessment Scale (SQAS) by carrying out both inductive and deductive reasoning processes. The scale development was carried out in four stages: (a) formulation of the preliminary scale via a qualitative study, (b) a pilot study, (c) initial test administration and EFA, and (d) a follow-up test administration and CFA. Through a review of literature, field observations, interviews, and the use of the Delphi technique, a preliminary scale with 46 items was formulated. In the pilot study, the preliminary scale was administered to a sample of health-fitness club members ($N = 234$). Conducting an EFA with alpha extraction and promax rotation, the revised scale contained six factors and 42 items (Staff, Program, Locker Room, Physical Facility, Workout Facility, and Child Care). The revised scale was administered to members of 10 health-fitness clubs ($N = 1,202$). The data set was split into halves: one for EFA and the other for CFA. The same six factors emerged in the EFA. The fit indexes from the CFA indicated that the model was permissible. All the factors had acceptable alpha and composite reliability coefficients. The model was then tested for invariance across gender; nine items were eliminated due to a lack of invariance for factor loadings or tau coefficients. The 31-item scale under 6 factors displayed sound psychometric properties and invariance for factor loadings and tau coefficients, and can be used to evaluate service quality issues in various health-fitness club settings.

The moral of these illustrations includes the following: (a) to establish a distinct sport management discipline, knowledge needs to be developed in this discipline, at least some part of it; (b) inductive reasoning and qualitative studies are necessary and a key part of the inquiry process to establish knowledge foundations within the sport management discipline; (c) building and rebuilding measurement models with context-specific elements are tantamount to define or redefine a concept with ingredients that are specific and tangible to a sport industry setting; (d) due to various settings in the sport industry, it would be best to first work on a specific area(s) within the sport industry to capture its unique characteristics and some generalizability across the discipline can be formed after substantial ground work is done; (e) theories from mainstream business or social sciences continue to be very useful if the uniqueness of a sport setting is taken into consideration; and (f) application of advanced statistics are very good when used appropriately to help define a concept that is based on strong conceptual and content analysis. After all, conducting marketing analyses, including service quality studies, are for managerial

decisions and actions. In fact, after the actual measurement is established with context-specific components, many existing theories in business administration or other social sciences, such as Oliver's (1980) model, may be applied to examine the interconcept relations or effects.

Assessing Interconcept Relations

My second example focuses on studying the influence of consumer needs and wants on their consumption behavior. Marketing can be explained as understanding, monitoring, and satisfying the changing needs and wants of consumers by forming and reforming the marketing mix (i.e., 4 P's plus), whereas the study of consumer behavior is a microperspective of marketing research to identify those reasons that cause, channel, and sustain consumption behavior (Kotler & Armstrong, 2013). Yianakakis (1989) remarked that one of the critical concerns in sport marketing is to "... monitor consumer satisfaction/dissatisfaction, needs, wants, expectations, and changes in preference over time" (p. 104) in an effort to efficiently identify contingent variables that may relate to the development of strategic marketing plans.

Needs may be of human nature or formed through social facilitations (Maslow, 1954). Needs are often-times innate, unconscious, latent, nonspecific, and of uncertainty of satisfier; frequently, they contribute to the formation of fundamental motivations for human behavior. Based on the DPT model (Dijksterhuis & Nordgren, 2006), human needs would generally be characteristic of the unconscious mode. Braunstein, Zhang, Trail, and Gibson (2005) and Byon, Zhang, and Baker (2013) suggested that the sport spectator would make an important contribution to the success of sporting events primarily through motivational and financial support. According to Sloan (1989) and Wann, Melnick, Russell, and Pease (2001), spectators are self-pushed and socially motivated to attend sport events as social outings to fulfill their personal and social needs.

According to Sloan (1989) and Zillmann and Paulus (1993), there are five theoretical categories that can be used to explain the social motivations of sport fans: (a) salubrious effect theories (recreation theory and diversion theory), (b) stress and stimulation seeking theories, (c) catharsis and aggression theories (catharsis theory, frustration-aggression theory, and social learning theory), (d) entertainment theories, and (e) achievement seeking theories. Salubrious effect theories suggest that spectators are attracted to a game for its pleasure and benefits of physical and mental well-being. By attending sport events, spectators can relieve their fatigue and boredom and become recharged. Sport attendance can also be used as an escape from work and other tediums of life. Based on stress and stimulation seeking theories, sport games are seen as stressors. Spectators are attracted to a game for the stressful, risky, arousing, and stimulating experiences in socially acceptable ways. Positive stress and arousal allows for the expenditure of excess energy by being involved with the crowd. Catharsis and

aggression theories propose that spectators are attracted to a game for its violence and aggressive actions. Some believe that the aggression levels of spectators will be reduced by watching the acts of aggression of others (i.e., athletes), while others believe aggression levels are increased. According to entertainment theories, spectators are attracted to a game to seek pleasure, sensation, satisfaction, and happiness. The aesthetic application of skills in movement makes sport an art form for spectators. Achievement seeking theories emphasize that spectators are attracted to a team to identify with the achievement of others, share success, gain knowledge, and satisfy their own needs. Of the five social motivation theories of spectatorship, achievement-seeking theories have been predominantly studied in relationship to spectator attendance (Wann et al., 2001).

Using Sloan's (1989) theoretical framework, Pease and Zhang (2001) developed the Spectator Motivation Scale (SMS) with 35 items under four factors: Fan Identification, Team Image, Salubrious Attraction, and Entertainment Value. Similarly, a number of other scales have been developed in recent years to measure social motivations of spectators, such as the Motivation Scale for Sport Consumption (Trail & James, 2001), Sport Fan Motivation Scale (Wann, 1995), and Sport Interest Inventory (Funk, Mahony, Nakazawa, & Hirakawa, 2001). These scales were usually developed for use with spectators of intercollegiate athletic competitions. To a great extent, the resolved factors in these scales were found to be predictive of consumer behaviors. James et al. (2005) and James, Trail, Wann, Funk, and Zhang (2006) recognized that these scales included similar factors and items in some situations, yet dissimilar factors and items in other situations. In an effort to enhance the consistency when studying and communicating about spectator motivations, it is necessary to formulate a scale that includes a core set of factors with consistency in the labeling of factors and wording of items. Through a comprehensive investigation that involved a test of content validity and confirmatory factor analyses, these researchers collectively identified the Big-5 factors: Self-esteem, Aesthetics, Drama, Escape, and Social Interaction. These factors were consistent with Sloan's (1989) theoretical framework.

Due to the nature of studying social needs of spectators, none of the sociomotivational factors can be specifically related to the tangible aspects of a sport organization's management, functions, marketing, or operations. The gap between applying theories originated from the social sciences to the actual functions of a sport organization demands researchers to look further into more tangible variables, such as consumer wants, of which sport consumers, particularly those of valuable repeat consumers, are more conscious as prescribed by the DPT model (Dijksterhuis & Nordgren, 2006). Unlike human needs, consumer wants are comparatively more specific, conscious, mindful, purposeful, articulate, tangible, and manifest. Wants can often be learned and nurtured from past experiences, educational programs, and exposure to

promotional schemes. Consumer wants are contingent on specific situations and product categories. Usually, consumers are more certain of satisfiers for their wants; anecdotally, it is based on their wants that repetitive consumers put demands on products and services.

Sport game events are the core product function of a sport organization and even the sport industry (Mullin et al., 2014). Market demand relates to consumer expectations toward the attributes of the core product (Zhang, Lam, & Connaughton, 2003). Essentially, market demand is a cluster of pull factors associated with the game that an organization can offer to its new and returning spectators. It is comprised of a multitude of cognitive-oriented variables that may predict sport consumption behavior (Braunstein et al., 2005; Byon et al., 2013; Hansen & Gauthier, 1989; Schofield, 1983). These pull factors are comparatively more tangible, more directly associated with the core product operations, and more interpretable for management implications when compared with aforementioned push factors; after all, marketing can only be achieved through tangible management and operational activities. According to Brown, Rascher, Nagel, and McEvoy (2010) and Fort (2011), market demand is an economic concept and, traditionally, it deals with such critical questions as “how many are there?” “how much to charge?” “who are they?” “where are they?” and “where are they from?” Braunstein et al. (2005) and Byon et al. (2013) explained that more recent inquires have focused on such questions as “why are they here?” “what do they want?” and “what are they looking for?”

Zhang, Pease, Hui, and Michaud (1995) developed the Spectator Decision Making Inventory (SDMI) to measure the variables that work to affect attendance at men’s professional basketball games. Over 800 spectators from six NBA regular-season games responded to a preliminary scale that was developed through a review of literature, test of content validity, and a pilot study. Conducting an EFA, multiple regression analysis, and alpha reliability, a simple factor structure was reached (Thurstone, 1947). Four factors with 14 items were resolved (Game Promotion, Home Team, Opposing Team, and Schedule Convenience). Zhang, Lam, Bennett, and Connaughton (2003) later conducted a CFA study by administering the SDMI to a sample of NBA spectators. Through maximum likelihood estimation, the four-factor structure provided a good fit to the data. The SDMI factors were found to be predictive of sport event consumption variables, indicating when a sport consumer holds a strong perception about the attributes of a game’s core product, the formed beliefs and attitude may lead to subsequent consumption behavior. Because the market environment of Major League Baseball’s (MLB) Spring Training (ST) has a number of unique characteristics—including the laid-back atmosphere at the games, weather, greater accessibility to athletes, and more affordability when compared with regular season games—the game event is a unique setting that is somewhat different from the regular season games. To effectively study and market spring training games, Braunstein et al. (2005) developed

the Spectator Decision Making Inventory–Spring Training (SDMI–ST) with 29 items under eight factors: Home Team, Opposing Team, Game Promotion, Economic Consideration, Schedule Convenience, Vacation Activity, Nostalgic Sentiment, and Love Baseball. Although the scale needs further development, the findings provide a framework for ST game consumption. MLB teams, practitioners, and academicians may adopt the scale to conduct research that assesses the effect of market demand factors on spring training consumers.

Following the concept of the Yale Attitude Change Model (Hovland, Janis, & Kelley, 1953; Zimbardo, Ebbesen, & Maslach, 1977), which explains that human attitudes (the affective component) are usually influenced or changed by altering the opinions or beliefs of people (the cognitive or knowledge component) and, in turn, can be a powerful driving force that impacts consumer behavior (Fazio, Powell, & Williams, 1989), Kim, Zhang, Jackson, Connaughton, and Kim (2013) modified and revised the Scale of Market Demand for Taekwondo Schools (SMD-TKD; Kim, Zhang, & Ko, 2009). A questionnaire was developed that consisted of the revised SMD-TKD scale with seven factors (Personal Improvement Activities, Physical Environment Quality, Instruction Staff Quality, Program Activities and Offerings, Cultural Learning, Locker Room Provision, and Economic Condition Consideration), member satisfaction and member commitment variables, and demographic variables. Research participants were Taekwondo school participants who resided in the U.S. and voluntarily participated in the survey study. Conducting confirmatory factor and structural equation model analyses, the revised SMD-TKD with seven factors and 31 items was found to have good validity and reliability characteristics. After confirming that the general measurement model was adequate, the second step was to assess the structural model examining the relationships of the market demand factors to the member satisfaction and the member commitment factors. Testing the proposed structural model revealed good fit of the model to the data. Regarding the significance of the path coefficients, an amalgamation of the market demand factors had positive effects on member satisfaction and member commitment. In addition, member satisfaction had a positive influence on member commitment. The market demand factors directly and indirectly affected member commitment and all direct and indirect paths were statistically ($p < .05$) significant. The indirect effect was substantially larger than the magnitude of the direct effect. These indicated that adding one mediating construct (i.e., member satisfaction) to the direct effect enhanced the predictive power of the market demand factors on member commitment. Overall, a total of 67% of the variance in member commitment was explained by the market demand and member satisfaction factors.

Byon et al. (2013) examined the structural relationship of market demand factors and game support programs to the consumption of professional team sport games while considering the mediating influence of

perceived value. This study simultaneously incorporated market demand (core service) and game support (peripheral service) factors into one study and examined their direct and indirect relationships with game consumption behaviors. Participants responded to a survey at various metropolitan areas. Adopting a two-step structural equation modeling (SEM) approach, the proposed measurement model and the structural model were found to have good psychometric properties in terms of validity and reliability. In the structural relationship analyses, Home Team, Opposing Team, Game Promotion, Game Amenities, Venue Quality, and Perceived Value were found to be predictive of behavioral intentions. Venue Quality was the only factor that had an indirect relationship with behavioral intentions through perceived value.

If the DPT represents two sides of a phenomenon, namely, both the unconscious and conscious processes (Dijksterhuis & Nordgren, 2006), the two sides are likely to be mutually influential, particularly from unconsciousness to consciousness. Based on this assumption, Min (2014a) examined the interrelationship between what is needed to satisfy consumers' internal needs and what women's professional sports can offer to satisfy those needs. The significance of considering the interaction between the push and pull factors has been stressed by studies published in mainstream marketing and tourism (e.g., Baloglu & Uysal, 1996; Kirkwood, 2009) although related information is lacking in the field of sports marketing. Min's study was aimed to fill this void by empirically assessing the interactions between push and pull factors. Spectators attending the Women's National Basketball Association (WNBA) games responded to a survey that measured push and pull factors (i.e., sociomotivation and market demand constructs) by adopting the scales and subscales developed by Byon et al. (2013), Funk et al. (2001), and James et al. (2005, 2006). Canonical correlation analyses revealed that the push factors were significantly related to the pull factors, with approximately 25% variance explained. In a subsequent study, Min (2014b) found the presence of structural relationships among sociomotivation, market demand, consumer satisfaction, and consumption of WNBA game events, indicating that consumer social needs (as evidenced by sociomotivation) can be an antecedent(s) to one's expectations toward the core product features of sport game events and their impact on consumer satisfaction and consumption behavior.

In a larger conceptual scheme, Keller (1993) developed a customer-based brand equity theory. Customer-based brand equity occurs when the customer has a high level of awareness and familiarity with the brand and holds some strong, favorable, and unique brand associations in memory. Erdem and Swait (2004) considered that brand loyalty is a consequence of consistent and repeated perceptions of brand quality. Keller (1993) further defined brand benefits with three dimensions: (a) functional benefit, (b) symbolic benefit, and (c) experiential benefit. By adapting Keller's conceptualization of brand association, Gladden and Funk (2001, 2002) developed the Team

Association Model (TAM) to measure brand association of sport teams. A total of 13 brand association dimensions were identified: (a) product-related attributes (i.e., success, star player, head coach, team management), (b) non-product-related attributes (i.e., logo, stadium, tradition, and product delivery), (c) symbolic benefit (i.e., fan identification and peer group acceptance), and (d) experiential benefit (i.e., escape, nostalgia, and pride in place). In fact, both of the unconscious and conscious process, as illustrated in the previously mentioned push and pull factors, fall into the general concept of brand association of sport teams, further supporting the relevance and distinctiveness of studying the two perspectives.

The moral of these illustrations include the following: (a) whether it is an independent, exogenous, mediating, or moderating variable/construct or a set of variables/constructs, one or more of them need(s) to be tangible in the context of sport operations or functions; (b) as conscious thought is object- or task-relevant thought processes (Dijksterhuis & Nordgren, 2006), studying variables tangible to a sport industry setting can be specific to the object or task in that setting, which would require repetitive investigations in various situations to generalize the findings into theories; (c) traditional sociopsychological theories, such as the Yale Attitude Change Model (Hovland et al., 1953; Zimbardo et al., 1977), can be adopted in conjunction with studying the tangible variables to investigate the mixture of conscious and unconscious decision-making processes of consumers; (d) although many market demand constructs that are tangible to a sport event setting have been found to be predictive of consumer behaviors, incorporating logical mediating constructs, such as consumer satisfaction and perceived value, would enhance the total variance explained and the overall depiction of consumer transitions from perceptions and beliefs to feelings and, in turn, to behavior; (e) where possible, both core product features and the quality of event operations should be studied from both technical and functional perspectives although a combined study should be based on in-depth understanding of each specific concept and aspect; (f) even though the transitional process from unconsciousness to consciousness is rather complicated, one's consciousness does partially explain his or her unconsciousness, as evidenced in studying the relationship between sociomotivation and market demand, demonstrating both the congruence and discrepancy between the two approaches and the necessity of examining both perspectives; and (g) unconsciousness is an antecedent to the conscious decision-making process, and its fulfillment can be accomplished through consciously operating on tangible managerial functions and activities that are doable, actionable, and controlled by sport managers and staff members.

Conclusion

According to the DPT (Dijksterhuis & Nordgren, 2006), there are six principles that relate to unconscious and conscious thought, including the unconscious thought principle, the capacity principle, the bottom-up-versus-top-down principle, the weighting principle, the rule principle, and the convergence-versus-divergence principle. The unconsciousness thought process can be characterized as being of divergent and indirect thought, a greater capacity, a more bottom-up process, likelihood to assign appropriate weights to decisions criteria, and lacking capacity to follow one certain rule; conversely, the consciousness thought process can be described as having a smaller capacity and a top-down focus, placing inappropriate weights on decision criteria, being able to follow one specific rule, and being more focused and convergent. Although being of a smaller capacity, adopting the conscious thought approach may actually have the following advantages: (a) generation of research findings that are tangible, interpretable, and actionable; (b) generation of a body of knowledge that is embedded in and representative of the sport industry; (c) provision of solutions for concrete issues and relating research findings to managerial engagements, and (d) establishment of a convincing request when attempting to obtain funded projects from sport and nonsport organizations to address their issues and challenges.

For many years, sport management scholars and professionals have adopted theories originated in business administration studies or other social sciences to address issues in the sport industry. While some would use the theories from general perspectives as they would treat issues the same as in any other discipline or industry, others would take an additional step by incorporating more sport industry-specific elements into their measures formulated and models tested. While these practices have certainly helped advance the inquiries and understanding of the sport industry, adoption of the DPT in sport management studies can further the exploration process by systematically examining the transitional process from those unconscious, intangible, and generic concepts and elements to those conscious, tangible, and specific concepts and elements. Encompassing the dual perspectives would help ensure that components specifically pertinent to one or more sport settings are a part of the designed studies. Optimistically, new theories explaining phenomena and their connections that are unique to various settings of the sport industry will ultimately evolve from frequent applications of the DPT principles and progressive increments of having tangible and sport industry-specific elements in research investigations conducted by sport management scholars.

In closing, this lecture was intended to continue the discussions on why and how to establish a distinct sport management discipline that were initiated by previous Earle F. Zeigler Lecture Award recipients (e.g., Chalip, 2006). Hopefully, this lecture would help reenergize the

debates and inquiries on this important matter. Although the lecture was purported as a philosophical discussion, the adopted examples were limited to research topic areas that I had investigated; their relevance to other topic areas are subject to further examination. Certainly, all of these ideas are subject to debate, criticism, and disagreement, and I am open to such and would appreciate hearing from you.

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