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CONTENTS

The Specificity of Training: New Insights from Molecular Biology

Examination of Personality Correlates, Exercise Preferences, and Exercise Behavior

Measuring Perceived Competence and Global Self-Worth in Children: Implications for Australian Boys and Girls in the Physical Domain

The Balance of Crew Rowing Boats

Brand Awareness, Brand Preference, and Brand Loyalty of Sport Apparel Amongst Select Ethnic Groups

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Contents

Editorial comments for the inaugural issue of *Malaysia Journal of Sport Science and Recreation (MJSSR)* i

The Specificity of Training: New Insights from Molecular Biology 1
Vernon G. Coffey, John A. Hawley

Examination of Personality Correlates, Exercise Preferences, and Exercise Behavior 17
Amy L. Hagan, Baldwin, Heather A. Hausenblas

Measuring Perceived Competence and Global Self-Worth in Children: Implications for Australian Boys and Girls in the Physical Domain 35
Elizabeth Rose, Dawne Larkin

The Balance of Crew Rowing Boats 51
Dr. Volker NOLTE, Siobhan McLAUGHLIN

Brand Awareness, Brand Preference, and Brand Loyalty of Sport Apparel Amongst Select Ethnic Groups 65
Karen E. Danylchuk, David C. Sit

Call For Manuscripts 91

Brand Awareness, Brand Preference, and Brand Loyalty of Sport Apparel Amongst Select Ethnic Groups

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Abstract

Sport consumers are overwhelmed by choice and marketers have addressed this problem by differentiating their products or services through branding. However, understanding consumers is difficult for marketers because of the increasing variety of consumers' ethnic origins. This study investigated whether there are branding differences amongst select ethnic groups in Canada. A study of 338 consumers of Chinese, East Indian, and Anglo-European ethnicity was conducted using the shopping mall intercept approach. Participants were asked to rate 14 brand awareness factors, 14 brand preference factors, and 11 brand loyalty factors in relation to sport apparel brands. A supplementary study was conducted to investigate whether three predominant sport apparel companies employ different marketing strategies for specific ethnic groups in Canada. Multivariate and univariate analyses of variance determined that there were significant differences for only six of the 39 branding factors amongst the three ethnic groups. These differences occurred more frequently between the East Indians and Anglo-Europeans. Analyzing for differences with the demographic variables (sex, age, years lived in Canada, occupational status, generational status, level of education, and income) independently showed branding differences for all factors except income. When both the ethnicity and sub-group analyses were considered, most differences were found with brand awareness and preference for sport apparel brands. Results also indicated that the three predominant sport apparel brands do not participate in ethnic marketing in Canada; their two major focuses are marketing to the masses and segmenting by age groups.

Globalization has had a profound impact on many aspects of life. Products, for example, have become "world" products and are accessible around the globe, and many people, such as youth, are at the forefront in their desire to consume these products. The consumer market in practically every industry has also become saturated by choice (Trout & Rivkin, 2000) and the sports products industry is no exception. One only has to examine the athletic footwear segment to realize the wealth of options. A consumer has not only choice of type, colour, style, and technology of the shoe, but also the brand name. With the overwhelming amount of choice, companies are constantly competing for the consumer's awareness, preference, and loyalty for their brand. These companies are attempting not only to attract new customers, but also to retain existing ones (McAlexander, Schouten & Koenig, 2002). As the market becomes increasingly competitive, organizations will turn to branding strategies as a means to differentiate.

Branding is a marketing term that is often simply associated with only a company's name and logo. People often overlook the fact that branding is much more complex. It is more about the relationship between consumers and a product, service, company, or person (Fournier, 1998). This relationship is bound by what the brand means to the particular consumer and this meaning can be either positive or negative. One of the primary marketing objectives among organizations is to build lasting relationships with the consumer with the intention that the consumer will choose their particular brand over others. The desired relationship follows a branding continuum that ideally progresses through the stages of brand awareness, brand preference, and eventually brand loyalty (Alreck & Settle, 1999).[1] Ultimately, the goal is to secure consumer brand loyalty. This typically requires marketers to build long-term relationships by understanding as much as possible about their consumers. However, this task may be daunting as marketers discover that understanding today's consumers is becoming more difficult because consumers are from a variety of ethnic and cultural backgrounds.

Ethnicity especially affects countries that allow high levels of immigration, such as Canada. Marketers in countries with highly ethnic diverse populations cannot rely on generic marketing strategies if they wish to have people of various cultures identifying with their brand (Yoo & Donthu, 2002). For example, the face of Canada has changed dramatically over the last two decades forcing marketers to

[1] *Brand awareness is "the process of making consumers in the desired target market recognize and remember the brand name" (Shank, 2002, p. 268). It can also be described as "the familiarity of consumers with a particular team or sport product" (Shank, 2002, p. 269). The goal is to achieve consumer or brand preference of one's brand over others. This is accomplished by building relationships between the brand and the consumer. Only after brand preference is established can brand loyalty, "the ability to attract and retain consumers" (Shank, 2002, p. 269), be achieved.*

change the way they look at their consumers. Recent statistics reveal that almost one fifth of Canadians are born elsewhere, the highest ratio since 1931 (Statistics Canada, 2001). In fact, more immigrants have arrived in Canada during the 1990s than in any other decade within the past 100 years. Furthermore, 13.4% of Canadians are visible minorities (Statistics Canada, 2001). Between the 1980s and 1990s, the increase of visible minorities in Canada was threefold. As the face of Canada changes, it is inevitable that the makeup of the Canadian consumer will follow the same trend. It is up to marketers to determine how this trend affects their brand.

Because ethnic diversity is increasing, it is important for businesses and their marketers to be sensitive to diversity. As the ratio of foreign-born residents and proportion of visible minorities continues to rise, marketers must avoid the mistake of ignoring the effect such groups may have in influencing the marketplace currently and in the future. It is critical that marketers realize the impact of this untapped market. Immigrants are arriving in Canada with different values, beliefs, and ideologies (Khairullah, 1995; Khairullah & Khairullah, 1999a; Khairullah & Khairullah, 1999b; Khairullah, Tucker & Tankersley, 1996; Ownbey & Horridge, 1997; Tirone & Shaw, 1997). In fact, as the birth rate continues to decline in Canada, immigration will continue to be used as a method to forestall a major population decrease (Statistics Canada, 2001). This trend will inevitably have a significant impact on the consumer market in this country. Therefore, marketers are faced with the challenge of understanding this impact so that they can effectively communicate accordingly, and ultimately identify with such a diverse market (Khairullah et al., 1996).

In Canada, the growing market appears to be the Asian population, with the top three immigrant groups being the Chinese, East Indians, and Filipinos (Statistics Canada, 2001). With this knowledge, it could be argued that it would be a mistake for marketers in Canada to ignore this trend when developing marketing strategies. While mainstream marketing agencies in Canada are beginning to acknowledge the importance of reaching out to ethnic communities (particularly the Chinese market), few have specifically dedicated ethnic marketing teams and some argue that much progress is needed in this area (Lejtenyi, 2001). Lejtenyi (2001) attributes economics and limited resources as the major source of this problem. Nevertheless, numerous "niche advertising" and marketing agencies have sprouted up to fuel the growth. The mainstream has reached out to "niche agencies" because the mainstream advertising message was not reaching ethnic habits (Leitenyi, 2001). Ethnic media costs a fraction of mainstream media (Lejtenyi, 2001), thereby making this strategy even more appealing.

The Asian Consumer Market in North America

Asian Market Profile. Defining the Asian market can be a difficult task by itself (Lejtenyi, 2001). There has been a general misunderstanding that Asians are just one community (Higgins, 2002). For example Lejtenyi (2001) stated that, "while some mainstream marketers do target various ethnic groups, in Canada 'ethnic marketing' most often means Chinese marketing" (p. 19). The reality is that Asians are, in fact, a very diverse group because they are of different races, originate from different countries, speak different languages and have different cultures (Ahmed, 2003; Ownbey & Horridge, 1997). It is critical to understand that each of these ethnic groups form their very own viable "niche markets" that require specific marketing strategies at the local level (Ahmed, 2003). One should not assume that successful marketing techniques are transferable between groups because market segments exist even within specific ethnic groups (Khairullah, Tucker, & Tankersley, 1996).

The marketing world is taking notice of the Asian community in North America. According to Higgins (2002), various agents are getting involved with Asian communities through a variety of means, such as advertising in local newspapers in their respective language, increasing visibility in their communities by setting up booths at local events that celebrate their festivals and holidays, handing out bilingual material that gives them choice of local or English language, teaming up with ethnic associations, making charitable donations, and generally doing good for the community.

For the reasons of a small population size and their fragmented nature, Asians were not considered worthy of marketing dollars not long ago (Fattah, 2002). Because of their high level of education, high income, and increased population, this oversight has changed as Asians are climbing up the list in terms of their market share of consumer spending (Ahmed, 2003; Fattah, 2002; Lejtenyi, 2001). According to Fattah (2002), "many big businesses are waking up to the strength of the Asian market, exploring the best way to tap these consumers" (p. 40).

The Chinese Consumer Market. In recent years, banks, car manufacturers, realtors and airlines have finally stopped ignoring what demographics have been telling them for a long time, that the highly affluent Chinese population represents a huge market opportunity (Chu, 1998). According to recent data, there were approximately one million Chinese living in Canada (Khan, 2003). Although this number might be considered small relative to the overall population of approximately 30 million, this ethnic group has grown rapidly over the past five to seven years due to immigration (Chu, 1998). In fact, this population is still growing with more than 50,000 Chinese immigrating to Canada each year, making the Chinese the country's largest and fastest-growing ethnic group (Chu, 1998). This growing population is concentrated in three areas–Toronto, Vancouver, and Montreal–which simplifies the task of running ad campaigns (Chu, 1998; Lee & Tse, 1994). In addition, the Chinese community has the best communications infrastructure concentrated on the three urban areas (Fong, 2002; Lejtenyi, 2001).

In terms of purchasing power, the Chinese have on average, fairly high disposable incomes, making them a particularly important market (Lejtenyi, 2001). Chinese immigrants are a highly educated population (Ownbey & Horridge, 1997) who value signs and symbols of wealth (Chu, 1998). They tend to be very mobile, some returning to their country of origin for several months each year (Chu, 1998). Maintaining the family unit is very important to them, as is education and providing for the future (Chu, 1998). Because they are so interested in education and future prosperity, Chinese-Canadians are considered adept savers (Chu, 1998). It is estimated that the average Chinese individual has a savings account that is twice the size of the average Canadian's account (Chu, 1998). As well, the Chinese are considered the most frequent shoppers and most brand conscious of all ethnic groups, and they enjoy keeping up appearances (Anonymous, 2003; Lee & Tse, 1994).

Some other generalizations about the Chinese show that they prefer to receive information on the Internet, which is not surprising given their high usage and access to the Internet (Ahmed, 2003). Chinese customers are typically early adopters of technology (Khan, 2003), and are also more likely to buy things over the Internet (Anonymous, 2003). Those who have been in the country for many years tend to have a large influence on recent immigrants. Therefore, word-of-mouth and referrals are considered important ways for marketers to deliver information to these groups (Ahmed, 2003).

Though companies are beginning to pay attention to the Chinese market, the key is not to assume that what works for the mainstream Canadian market can be translated to the Chinese market (Khan, 2003). Advertisers who make the effort to demonstrate genuine respect for the Chinese will gain their business and loyalty (Khan, 2003). It is also important to work with agencies that understand this specific market to ensure marketing campaigns lead to maximum brand exposure using key target customers and distribution outlets (Lu, 2002). Lu (2001) emphasized four important trends that will affect the future of Canadian Chinese advertising. First, the Chinese "country of origin" has shifted. Immigrants are now predominantly from Mainland China rather than from Hong Kong and Taiwan. If this continues, the dominant language of Chinese immigrants will be Mandarin and not Cantonese. Second, demographics have shifted and created different levels at which the Chinese have assimilated into the Canadian culture. Advertisers must decide which Chinese demographic they want to target and the specific needs they must meet. Finally, the Chinese mass media perspective is changing. Billboards, commercials, and print ads will have to include more than just the Cantonese dialect.

The East Indian Consumer Market. Immigration has played a key role in the population growth of East Indians in North America (Khairullah et al., 1996). In 1967 the federal government in Canada legislated a point system for immigrants that favored those with professional qualifications and consequently there was a growth in the number of East Indian immigrants (Tirone & Shaw, 1997). In 1993, 20,298 immigrants from India arrived in Canada, representing the second largest group of immigrants to Canada from a single country next to those from China (Naidu, 1990; Tirone & Shaw, 1997).

Recent Asian immigrants coming from India are generally very affluent (Khairullah & Khairullah, 1999a) and well educated. Consequently, they assume positions of power and tend to be higher than average income earners (Mogelonsky, 1995; Tirone & Shaw, 1997). Immigrated East Indians often work as professionals, entrepreneurs, and in specialty occupations (Breslau, 2000; Khairullah & Khairullah, 1999b; Mogelonsky, 1995). Interestingly, more East Indians attained doctoral degree status than any other single nationality from 1961-1990 (Pryce-Jones, 2001).

East Indians speak English, making them a high priority for marketers (Khairullah, 1995; Khairullah et al., 1996; Mogelonsky, 1995). Some may even call this group a marketer's dream (Mogelonsky, 1995). Conversely, others consider the East Indian market too small for segmenting purposes; however, this market, according to research, is growing very rapidly and has favourable socio-economic characteristics (Khairullah & Khairullah, 1999b).

There are a number of similarities between the Chinese and East Indians. As with the Chinese, East Indian immigrants in North America tend to live in and around major metropolitan areas (Khairullah & Khairullah, 1999b; Mogelonsky, 1995) and the family is central to their lives (Tirone & Shaw, 1997). Saving money is a major part of Indian culture, and target saving for education or retirement is especially emphasized (Khairullah & Khairullah, 1999b; Mogelonsky, 1995). East Indians expect value for their money and buy things with an eye to quality and durability. As well, they are not afraid to shop around in order to maximize the value of purchases (Mogelonsky, 1995).

In order for marketers to reach East Indian consumers, they have to participate in their communities and use a variety of media (Mogelonsky, 1995). Similar to the Chinese, East Indians have high Internet use (Mogelonsky, 1995). They keep informed about news at home through a host of Indian newspapers, magazines, and televisions stations that operate in North America (Mogelonsky, 1995). Tapping into their media habits would be a good way for companies to communicate their messages. However, even more powerful than media advertising is the power of word of mouth (Mogelonsky, 1995).

Purpose of the Study

Previous research suggests that marketers must be sensitive to cultural groups and create strategies accordingly (e.g., Ahmed, 2003; Higgins, 2002). Canada has experienced a significant increase in ethnic diversity in recent years. Therefore, it was of interest to examine whether there were differences in consumer tastes, as identified through the brand continuum model (i.e., Alreck & Settle, 1999) of brand awareness, brand preference, and brand loyalty, amongst the fastest growing immigrant groups in Canada (i.e., Chinese and East Indians) and the majority group (i.e., Anglo-Europeans). Accounting for the researchers' specific interest in sport, this study focused on the sport apparel industry.

The literature in acculturation of immigrants suggests that newcomers to a country face numerous adjustments including the need to learn new consumption habits (Khairullah & Khairullah, 1999; Lee & Tse, 1994; Tirone & Shaw, 1997), and that recent immigrants to North America are less willing to assimilate and alternatively are holding on to the values and behaviors common to their country of origin (Higgins, 2002). However, research has also indicated that there are differences in acculturation. That is, males, younger immigrants, those more highly educated, higher income earners, and those with high occupational status (Khairullah & Khairullah, 1999b) acculturated faster than their counterparts. Therefore, it was of further interest to examine these variables in the context of the branding topic, specifically whether there were differences within the groups themselves based on sex, age, years lived in Canada, level of education, occupational status, generational status, level of education, and level of income.

Although research suggests that marketers should be cognizant of different cultural groups and develop strategies accordingly, no specific research was found that indicated whether sport apparel manufacturing companies actually utilize specific strategies for any specific ethnic groups. Therefore, a supplementary study was conducted to investigate whether the "big three" sport apparel manufacturing companies (i.e., Nike, adidas, and Reebok) actually employ different marketing strategies for specific ethnic groups in Canada.

Based on the evidence suggested in previous research, three hypotheses were formulated. First, the researchers hypothesized that there would be differences in brand awareness, brand preference, and brand loyalty amongst the three ethnic groups. Second, they predicted that there would also be differences according to the demographic factors. Finally, the researchers hypothesized that the sport apparel manufacturing companies would have specific ethnic marketing strategies in place.

METHOD

Research Instrument

A paper and pencil survey consisting of three parts was constructed to determine whether there were differences in responses to questions amongst three ethnic groups in Canada with respect to the brand continuum model (Alreck & Settle, 1999) that progresses from brand awareness to brand preference to brand loyalty. The focus was on sport clothing/apparel brands. The brand related questions were developed from the review of literature focused on brand theory.

Part one involved three brand related questions that investigated the brand awareness, brand preference, and brand loyalty of participants. The brand awareness question asked participants to rate the importance of fourteen factors that contribute to the recognition of sport apparel brands. These factors included locations where one might be exposed to brands, such as television (Lee & Tse, 1994), newspapers (Lee & Tse, 1994), magazines (Lee & Tse, 1994), the Internet (Ahmed, 2003; Anonymous, 2003; Mogelonsky, 1995), on athletes' clothing (Lyons & Jackson, 2001), at sporting events (Lyons & Jackson, 2001), in retail stores (D'Astous & Chnaoui, 2002), and through word of mouth (Ahmed, 2003; Mogelonsky, 1995). Additional factors focused on specifics such as appearance of brand logos and colours associated with brands (Lyons & Jackson, 2001).

The brand preference question asked participants to rate the level of importance of fourteen factors related to developing preferences for sports clothing brands. The question involved more subjective factors such as style (Lyons & Jackson, 2001), fit (Lyons & Jackson, 2001), trendiness (Marsh, 2001), and image (Ahmad & Goode, 2001). In addition, some factors were repeated from the awareness question such as logo, colour, athlete endorsement, and familial influence (Mogelonsky, 1995). Some specifics were also included related to price (Mogelonsky, 1995), ethnic influence (Mogelonsky, 1995), product quality (Mogelonsky, 1995), and durability (Mogelonsky, 1995).

Finally, participants were asked to rate the level of importance regarding eleven factors that could contribute to establishing loyalty to sport clothing brands. The factors were similar to those in the awareness and preference section such as price, quality/durability, sponsorship (Lyons & Jackson, 2001), ethnic influence, and familial influence. The only new factor was trust in the brand and company. Participants were asked to respond using a five-point Likert scale ranging from one ("definitely not important to me") to five ("definitely important to me").

The second part of the survey consisted of five questions that enquired about the purchase patterns (i.e., where one is most likely to purchase sport clothing brands), personal opinion (i.e., favourite apparel and shoe brands and cultural preferences), and apparel usage by participants (i.e., for casual or sport participation purposes). Part three of the survey asked eight demographic questions that served the purpose of obtaining a participant profile according to sex, age, ethnic background, years lived in Canada, generational status,[2] occupation, level of income, and level of education.

A pilot study was conducted (n = 12) at a shopping mall near the Toronto area for the purpose of testing the clarity of the survey and determining an estimated survey completion time. Modifications were made to the survey based on feedback from respondents.

[2] Operational definitions for generational status were derived from the *1996 Census Dictionary*. *First generation Canadians* refers to people who consider themselves the first in their family to be born in Canada. *Second generation Canadians* refers to those whose parents were the first to be born in Canada, whereas *third generation Canadians* refers to those whose grandparents were the first to be born in Canada. *Fourth generation Canadians* refers to those whose great grandparents were the first to be born in Canada and so forth. In situations where paternal and maternal lineage differed, participants were asked to use paternal lineage to determine generational status in order to ensure consistency of responses.

Two separate questions were created to address the question posed for the supplementary study that attempted to investigate whether the "big three" sport apparel manufacturing companies (Nike, adidas, and Reebok) utilize different marketing strategies for any specific ethnic groups in Canada. The first question asked marketing personnel whether they target any ethnic groups in their marketing strategies. If any managers answered "yes", they were asked when and how they target these groups.

Participants

Following a review of the Statistics Canada Census 2001 data, it was determined that the Chinese and East Indians were the two fastest growing immigrant groups since the 1990s. The Anglo-Europeans accounted for the vast majority of the immigrants in Canada prior to the 1970s and are currently still the majority group. Therefore, it was deemed appropriate to compare the Chinese, East Indians, and Anglo-Europeans. Upon further investigation, it was determined that almost all (94%) of the immigrants who arrived in Canada during the 1990s chose to live in Canada's census metropolitan areas (Statistics Canada, 2001). Nearly three-quarters of those immigrants lived in three census metropolitan areas–Toronto, Vancouver and Montreal–with Toronto leading the way (Statistics Canada, 2001). Toronto was chosen as the target region of this study due to the researchers' proximity to this area. The projected sample size for collecting data was 450 adults aged 18 years or older—150 Chinese, 150 East Indians, and 150 Anglo-Europeans.

Procedure

The shopping mall intercept approach (Sudman, 1980) was used at five greater Toronto Area sporting goods retail stores managed by one of the largest sporting goods retail chains in Canada. The locations were selected on the basis that a significant consumer base would be Chinese, East Indian, and Anglo-European. Shoppers who were entering these stores were requested to voluntarily complete the paper and pencil survey. An identical intercept script was used. Data were collected during business hours for five-hour shifts on five separate days over a two-week period during both weekdays and weekends.

Data collection for the supplementary study was conducted using a brief telephone interview of the individuals responsible for marketing at the "big three" sport apparel companies.

Data Analysis

The data for the branding questions were analyzed using the statistical program Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS). The surveys were divided into three groups for analysis: Chinese, East Indian, and Anglo-European. The mean scores of the three groups were compared using the multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA) to determine between group differences. Each of the three groups were divided further into subgroups to analyze whether there were any within group differences according to responses by age, sex, years lived in Canada, occupational status, generational status, level of education, and level of income. The multivariate test procedure Wilk's Lambda was used to determine any significant findings. A minimum alpha level of .05 was set for all statistical tests (Portney & Watkins, 1993), and a Bonferoni correction was used to control for Type 1 error rate. Frequencies and percentages were used to report the findings from parts two and three of the survey involving demographic profile, consumer habits, and apparel brand market share. The data collected for the supplementary study was used to complement the results of the main study.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

A total of 433 participants completed the survey. Only participants of the three groups targeted for this study were included in the data analysis (N = 338). From this group, 50% were Anglo-European (n = 170), 26% were Chinese (n = 88), and 24% were East Indian (n = 80).

Demographic Profile

The distribution of the 338 participants by sex, age, years lived in Canada, occupational status, generational status, level of education, and estimated household income are shown in Table 1. The fact that there was a higher rate of female participants compared to male participants (56% compared to 44%) may not be all that surprising because the data was collected in shopping malls, which females are known to frequent more often than males. It is clear that a majority of those who participated were relatively young with almost 70% falling in the age group of 18-25 years of age. A sample consisting of such a skewed number of young participants will ultimately have an effect on the results. Given that the five locations for data collection involved a chain of sporting goods retail stores that typically

Table 1
Demographic Profile of Ethnic Groups by Frequencies and Percentages

Variable	Anglo-European n	%	Chinese n	%	East Indian n	%	Groups Combined n	%
Sex								
Male	68	40%	37	42%	41	51%	146	44%
Female	101	59%	50	57%	39	49%	190	56%
Age								
18-25	111	65%	62	70%	59	74%	232	69%
26-35	27	16%	14	16%	12	15%	53	16%
36-45	15	9%	4	5%	3	4%	22	7%
46-55	10	6%	3	2%	5	6%	18	5%
56-65	2	1%	4	5%	0	0%	6	2%
66 or older	1	1%	1	1%	0	0%	2	1%
Years Lived in Canada								
0-5	6	4%	4	5%	10	13%	20	6%
6-10	9	5%	5	6%	3	4%	17	5%
11-20	57	34%	31	35%	26	33%	115	34%
21-40	59	35%	33	38%	30	34%	122	36%
40+	15	9%	5	6%	1	1%	21	6%
Occupational Status								
Student	88	52%	52	59%	49	61%	189	56%
Employed	53	31%	21	24%	21	26%	95	28%
Unemployed	4	2%	5	6%	1	1%	10	3%
Retired	3	2%	1	1%	0	0%	4	1%
Generational Status								
First	43	25%	56	64%	47	59%	146	43%
Second	37	22%	1	1%	4	5%	42	12%
Third	30	18%	1	1%	0	0%	31	9%
Fourth	22	13%	0	0%	1	1%	23	7%
All ancestors Canadian	18	11%	0	0%	0	0%	18	5%
Not born in Canada	20	12%	29	33%	22	27%	71	21%
Level of Education								
High school diploma	98	58%	43	49%	35	44%	176	52%
College diploma	28	17%	5	6%	10	13%	43	13%
University degree	30	18%	32	36%	27	34%	89	26%
Master's degree	6	4%	4	5%	3	4%	13	4%
Doctoral degree	2	1%	1	1%	2	3%	5	2%
Household Income								
Less than $20,000	21	12%	17	19%	11	14%	49	15%
$20,000-$40,000	13	8%	10	11%	9	11%	32	10%
$40,000-$60,000	24	14%	11	13%	12	15%	47	14%
$60,000-$80,000	20	12%	9	10%	11	14%	40	12%
$80,000-$100,000	10	6%	7	8%	9	11%	26	8%
$100,000 or higher	45	27%	1	15%	15	19%	73	22%

hire a young staff and attract a younger market, such outcomes could have been anticipated. As well, the high percentage of students participating in the study (56%) and the high percentage of the sample achieving a high school diploma as their highest level of education obtained (52%) is consistent with expectations related to the young sample size.

Consumer Profile

Table 2 highlights the participants' consumer habits (i.e., where they purchase their sport apparel and how they wear them) and brand perceptions (i.e., favorite athletic shoe and sport clothing brand, and whether they thought people of their ethnic background wear particular brands). These findings were consistent with the literature on the sport apparel industry and their typical consumers. Considering the dollars spent on marketing by the "big three" brands (i.e., Nike, adidas, and Reebok) as cited by Marsh (2001), it comes as no surprise that Nike and adidas were the two favourite apparel and footwear brands of the participants. The only exception was that Reebok did not prove to be as popular with this particular sample group. In terms of where the participants purchased their sport apparel, it may be expected that sporting goods retail stores would be the most likely response. As predicted, the majority (68%) reported a preference for purchasing their sport apparel at the chain stores. However, it would be expected that if the study was conducted at a department store or online, the preference would lean toward whichever medium would be chosen. With respect to usage of sport apparel, a small percentage of participants (19%) said that they only wore sport apparel solely for the purpose of sport. Consistent with D'Astous and Chnaoui (2002) who stated that consumers usually do not use sport apparel products for what they were designed, 26% claimed they wore sport apparel primarily as casual clothing and the remaining 53% used their sport apparel for both sport and as casual clothing. Participants were asked whether they believed people of their ethnic background were more likely to wear a particular sport apparel brand. Though there is nothing documented in the literature regarding this topic, some believe that certain brands are worn regularly by particular ethnic groups. For example, some may associate the brands *Sean John* and *Fubu* with particular ethnic groups. The results indicated that one fifth (20%) of the participants agreed that people of their ethnic background were more likely to wear a particular sport apparel brand. Results might have been different if the question asked whether participants thought certain ethnic groups (other than their own) wore particular brands.

Table 2
Frequencies and Percentages of Consumer Habits and Apparel Brand Market Share by Ethnicity

	Anglo-European		Chinese		East Indian		Groups Combined	
Variable	**n**	**%**	**n**	**%**	**n**	**%**	**n**	**%**
Where Sport Apparel is Purchased								
Sporting goods chain store	116	68%	63	74%	5	63%	231	68%
Sport specialty store	18	11%	11	13%	8	10%	37	11%
Department stores	31	18%	8	9%	19	24%	58	17%
Over the Internet	2	2%	2	2%	2	3%	6	2%
How Sport Apparel is Used								
For sport	33	19%	19	22%	12	15%	64	19%
As casual clothing	49	29%	15	17%	24	26%	85	26%
Both casually and for sport	84	49%	53	60%	43	4%	180	53%
Are people of your ethnic background more likely to wear a particular brand?								
Yes	30	17%	17	19%	20	25%	67	20%
No	137	81%	70	80%	59	74%	266	79%
Don't know	3	2%	1	1%	1	1%	5	1%
Favourite Sport Clothing Brand (Top two)								
Nike	57	34%	41	47%	24	30%	122	36%
adidas	33	19%	15	17%	14	18%	62	18%
Don't have favourite	12	7%	5	6%	12	15%	29	9%
Favourite Athletic Shoe Brand (Top three)								
Nike	60	35%	43	49%	33	41%	136	44%
adidas	18	11%	12	14%	12	15%	42	12%
New Balance	15	9%	14	16%	3	4%	32	10%
Don't have favourite	6	4%	3	3%	4	5%	13	4%

Ethnicity and Branding

The means and standard deviations for the branding factors based on ethnicity are provided in Table 3. Significant multivariate main effects were found for ethnicity and all three branding levels: awareness, preference, and loyalty. Univariate analyses were conducted to determine which individual factors differ on the basis of ethnicity.

Ethnicity and brand awareness. In terms of recognizing and becoming familiar with a sports clothing brand, the three ethnic groups were very similar in their ratings. The Anglo-Europeans rated *word of mouth* as the most important factor, followed by *logo* and *chain stores*, whereas the Chinese and East Indians both rated *logo* as the most important factor, followed by *word of mouth* and *chain stores*. The Anglo-Europeans rated *Internet ads* as the least important factor, followed by *newspaper ads* and *radio ads*. The Chinese also rated *Internet ads* as least important, but they rated *radio ads* and *newspaper ads* next in order of least importance. The East Indians rated *radio ads* as least important, followed by *Internet ads* and *newspaper ads*.

The only factors that differed significantly were *newspaper ads*, $F(2, 316) = 5.73$, $p < .01$ and *Internet ads*, $F(2, 316) = 5.66, p < .01$. The three ethnic groups were analyzed using a post-hoc Bonferoni test and showed that East Indians ($M = 2.61$) were found to rate the factor *newspaper ads* as more important than Anglo-Europeans ($M = 2.10$) in getting them to recognize and become familiar with a sports clothing brand ($p < .01$). Also, East Indians ($M = 2.53$) were found to rate the factor *Internet ads* as more important than Anglo-Europeans ($M = 1.99$).

Because Asians like to receive their information via the Internet and also are known for high Internet use (Ahmed, 2003; Khan, 2003), it is surprising that the Chinese and East Indians did not rate *Internet ads* higher. On the other hand, the importance of *word of mouth* is consistent with previous findings (e.g., Ahmed, 2003; Mogelonsky, 1995). Based on the knowledge that the Asian community has the best communications infrastructure (Fong, 2002; Lejtenyi, 2001), the authors were expecting to find that the Chinese and East Indian groups would have rated *television ads*, *radio ads*, and *newspaper ads* as more important than the Anglo-European group. With the exception of the factor *newspaper ads* in the case of the East Indians, this did not occur. This finding is also inconsistent with that of Lee and Tse (1994) who found that Asian consumers spent the highest proportion of their media time on television, and less on radio and newspapers.

Table 3
Means and Standard Deviations of Ethnic Groups by Branding Factors

Variable	Anglo-European			Chinese			East Indian		
	n	M	SD	n	M	SD	n	M	SD
Awareness									
Logo	156	3.72	1.13	88	3.93	1.09	75	3.91	1.02
Colours	156	3.21	1.19	88	3.30	1.23	75	3.61	1.17
TV ads	156	3.01	1.32	88	3.24	1.21	75	3.25	1.28
Radio ads	156	2.26	1.05	88	2.35	1.10	75	2.49	1.26
Newspaper ads	156	2.10	1.09	88	2.44	1.16	75	2.61**	1.18
Magazine ads	156	2.97	1.18	88	3.18	1.15	75	3.21	1.22
Internet ads	156	1.99	1.11	88	2.28	1.20	75	2.53**	1.27
Chain stores	156	3.62	1.05	88	3.61	1.13	75	3.65	1.03
Specialty stores	156	3.26	1.15	88	3.49	1.21	75	3.31	1.18
Endorsement	156	3.12	1.23	88	3.44	1.25	75	3.44	1.20
Sponsorship	156	3.26	1.26	88	3.39	1.18	75	3.21	1.20
Pro & Amateur	156	3.42	1.27	88	3.36	1.23	75	3.15	1.29
Word of mouth	156	3.78	1.11	88	3.63	1.18	75	3.67	1.17
Friends & Family	156	3.17	1.26	88	3.28	1.16	75	3.39	1.30
Preference									
Price	160	4.31	0.83	84	4.17	0.99	74	4.05	1.18
Logo	160	3.31	1.21	84	3.65	1.00	74	3.47	1.23
Style/Colour	160	4.31	0.77	84	4.29	0.87	74	4.16	1.07
Trendy	160	3.29	1.16	84	3.64	1.10	74	3.69*	1.24
Quality/durability	160	4.45	0.77	84	4.38	0.81	74	4.34	1.00
Fit	160	4.63	0.71	84	4.54	0.63	74	4.42	0.97
Choice & selection	160	4.10	0.98	84	4.19	0.86	74	4.00	1.17
Where made	160	2.87	1.41	84	2.94	1.31	74	2.95	1.39
Where purchase	160	3.51	1.17	84	3.35	1.15	74	3.32	1.16
Endorsement	160	2.68	1.22	84	2.85	1.18	74	2.86	1.22
Sponsorship	160	2.83	1.26	84	3.02	1.15	74	2.64	1.08
Friends & Family	160	2.88	1.25	84	3.02	1.11	74	3.11	1.27
Ethnic influence	160	1.97	1.15	84	2.35	1.26	74	2.51**	1.39
Image	160	3.15	1.29	84	3.23	1.25	74	3.01	1.31
Loyalty									
Price	161	4.36	0.88	86	4.35	0.93	74	4.23	1.08
Quality/durability	161	4.57	0.76	86	4.63	0.69	74	4.47	0.88
Style consistent	161	3.58	1.03	86	3.65	1.00	74	3.66	1.17
Trendy	161	3.39	1.19	86	3.55	1.10	74	3.72	1.13
Logo consistent	161	3.23	1.20	86	3.55	1.07	74	3.31	1.03
Availability	161	3.91**	1.01	86	3.88**	0.96	74	3.49	1.08
Where made	161	2.76	1.39	86	2.93	1.32	74	2.70	1.38
Sponsorship	161	2.76	1.28	86	2.85	1.25	74	2.72	1.20
Trust	161	3.62	1.18	86	4.03*	1.01	74	3.62	1.29
Friends & Family	161	2.73	1.17	86	2.79	1.21	74	2.93	1.21
Ethnic Influence	161	1.98	1.17	86	2.26	1.22	74	2.39	1.32

* $p < .05$
** $p < .01$

Ethnicity and brand preference. In regard to people's preference for sports clothing brands, the three groups were once again similar in their ratings. All three groups rated *fit* as most important followed by *quality/durability*. East Indians rated *style/colour* as the third most important factor, as did the Anglo-Europeans, except *price* had an equal rating with *style/colour* for the Anglo-European group. The Chinese rated *choice/selection* as third most important. Anglo-Europeans rated *ethnic influence* as the least important factor followed by *endorsement* and *sponsorship*. The Chinese also rated *ethnic influence* and *endorsement* as the least important factors, but they rated the factor *where the clothing is made* next in order of least importance. East Indians rated *ethnic influence* least important followed by *sponsorship* and *endorsement*.

The only factors that significantly differed were *the brand is trendy*, $F(2, 315) = 4.07, p < .05$ and *people of my ethnic background wear the brand*, $F(2, 315) = 5.77, p < .01$. The three ethnic groups were analyzed using a post-hoc Bonferoni test, and showed that East Indians ($M = 3.69$) were found to rate the factor *the brand is trendy* as more important than Anglo-Europeans ($M = 3.29$) in making them prefer a sports clothing brand ($p < .05$). Also, East Indians ($M = 2.51$) were found to rate the factor *people of my ethnic background wear the brand* as more important than Anglo-Europeans ($M = 1.97$) in making them prefer a sports clothing brand ($p < .01$). These findings might suggest that East Indians place a higher value on trends and cultural influence than Anglo-Europeans.

Ethnicity and brand loyalty. With respect to continuing to buy the same sports apparel brand, the three groups rated *quality/durability* as most important followed by *price*. Anglo-Europeans rated *availability* third most important. The Chinese rated *trust*, and the East Indians rated *trendy* as the third most important factor. Anglo-Europeans rated *ethnic influence* as least important followed by *friends and family*. *Where the clothing is made* and *sponsorship* tied for third most important according to Anglo-Europeans. The Chinese also rated *ethnic influence* and *friends and family* and *sponsorship* as least important. East Indians rated *ethnic influence* as least important as well, but they rated *where the clothing is made* and *sponsorship* next in order of least importance.

The only factors that differed significantly were *availability of the brand* $F(2, 318) = 4.95, p < .01$ and *trust in the brand and company* $F(2, 318) = 3.98, p < .05$. A post-hoc Bonferoni test showed that Anglo-Europeans ($M = 3.91$) and the Chinese ($M = 3.88$) were found to rate the factor *availability* of the brand more important than East Indians ($M = 3.49$) in making them continue to buy the same sports clothing brand ($p < .05$). The Chinese ($M = 4.03$) were found to rate the factor *trust in the brand and company* more important than Anglo-Europeans ($M = 3.62$) in making them continue to buy the same sports clothing brand ($p < .01$).

Based on the literature, it was surprising to find that only six of the 39 branding factors in total exhibited significant differences between the three ethnic groups. Numerous authors (Ahmed, 2003; Khan, 2003; Fattah, 2002; Higgins, 2002; Johnson, 2003) claimed that ethnic groups have different consumer needs and habits that require special marketing and communications attention. If this is true, then it would be expected that more differences would be found between the Anglo-European sample in comparison with the Chinese and East Indian samples given their different needs. There are several explanations that may have contributed to the lack of differences found between the three groups. As previously mentioned, the participant sample for this study was relatively young. This has strong implications especially due to the knowledge that athletic footwear and apparel companies tend to focus on marketing to youth (e.g., Armstrong, 1999; Lyons & Jackson, 2001; Wilson & Sparks, 1996). Because youth tend to be influenced by mainstream and popular culture, it would be less likely that they would retain their ethnic roots to the same degree as an older sample. Furthermore, Khairullah and Khairullah (1999b) found that younger immigrants acculturated much faster than older immigrants. In addition, it is likely that younger participants have a greater chance of spending the majority (if not all) of their lifetime in Canada, thus making them even less likely to be influenced by their ethnic roots.

Worthy of note is the high rate of first-generation Canadians in the Chinese and East Indian group. Sixty-four percent of the Chinese and 59% of the Indians were first-generation Canadians. In contrast, only 25% of the Anglo-European group reported that they were first-generation Canadians. What this implies is that the sample involved in this study is very similar in terms of the amount of time they have spent in Canada even though they are of three distinct ethnic groups. This can be confirmed by looking at the demographic variable years lived in Canada, where the distribution of the three groups was almost identical at the 11-20 years grouping (e.g., Anglo-Europeans 34%, Chinese 35%, and East Indian 33%).

Another possible factor contributing to the lack of significant results between the three ethnic groups may have to do with the location where the data was collected. The decision to collect the data using the chain of sporting goods retail stores was based on practicality. As previously mentioned, this sporting goods retail chain had stores located in each of the five-targeted areas in the greater Toronto area. Locations were chosen based on the large populations of the three-targeted ethnic groups living in the area. Also, these stores carried the widest selection of sport apparel brands in Canada, and it is very common for consumers to shop at these stores when looking for sport apparel. After the demographic information was gathered, it immediately became apparent that the chosen sporting goods retail store attracted a mainstream and younger market. Even though some of the retail stores had high proportions of Chinese and East Indian consumers, most of these consumers were young and were born and raised in Canada. As a result, there was little difference between the Chinese and East Indian groups, and the Anglo-European group. If the data were collected in alternative locations having a more balanced demographic, it would be anticipated that the results might be much different.

Branding and Demographic Variables

Three separate multivariate analyses of variance were conducted to examine the variation in brand awareness, brand preference, and brand loyalty by ethnicity, sex, age, years lived in Canada, occupational status, generational status, education, and income. There were significant main effects for all factors except income as depicted in Table 4. Interaction effects of the three branding levels (i.e., awareness, preference, and loyalty) between ethnicity and the demographic variables were also examined. No significant interactions were found; therefore, it was meaningful to test the differences between main effect means.

Focusing on the specific branding factors, there appeared to be a tendency for the younger participants to rate the factors such as *logo*, *magazine ads*, *trendiness*, and *seeing the brand in chain stores* as more important than the older participants who had a tendency to be more concerned with factors such as *product quality/durability*, *where the clothing was made*, and *availability*. The specific differences between male and female responses were very one-sided. From the 39 possible branding factors, 13 were significant. The female group rated 10 of those 13 factors more important than the male group. For brand preference, females rated *price*, *style/colour*, *the brand is trendy*, *fit*, *choice/selection*, and where the clothing is made as more important. These results make sense if one supports the argument that females tend to care more about the *style*, *colour*, *fit*, *selection*, and *trendiness* of clothing. For brand loyalty, females rated *price*, *product/quality*, *keeps style consistent*, and the *brand remains trendy* as more important. Males rated *Internet*

Table 4
Results of Multivariate Analysis of Variance of Branding Factors by Demographic Variables

Factor	Wilk's λ	df	F
Brand Awareness			
Ethnicity	.857	28	1.73*
Sex	.854	14	3.64**
Age	.837	14	4.10**
Years live in Canada	.913	14	1.77*
Occupational Status	.863	14	2.99**
Generational Status	.850	28	1.67*
Education	.851	14	3.64**
Income	.955	14	0.78
Brand Preference			
Ethnicity	.865	28	1.63*
Sex	.841	14	4.03**
Age	.879	14	2.90**
Years live in Canada	.932	14	1.34
Occupational Status	.890	14	2.32**
Generational Status	.841	28	1.79**
Education	.950	14	1.10
Income	.913	14	1.60
Brand Loyalty			
Ethnicity	.871	22	2.00*
Sex	.878	11	3.83**
Age	.910	11	2.71**
Years live in Canada	.937	11	1.62
Occupational Status	.939	11	1.59
Generational Status	.926	22	1.00
Education	.950	11	1.42
Income	.969	11	0.69

* $p < .05$
** $p < .01$

ads more important for awareness, and also rated the factor *people of my ethnic background wear the brand* as more important in both brand preference and brand loyalty.

The discovery that there were no significant findings when combining the demographic variables with ethnicity for the within groups analysis was quite puzzling. The fact that there were significant results when looking at ethnicity alone gave the authors reason to believe that there would be some significant results when the demographic variables were factored in as well. These findings further support the probability that there are minimal differences in brand awareness, preference, and loyalty of the ethnic groups for this particular study. However, the lower Chinese and East Indian sample size compared to the Anglo-European sample could have been the reason for such results as well. Analyzing the ethnic groups by demographic variables further decreased the sample size thus possibly affecting the results. Perhaps having a Chinese and East Indian sample closer to the amount of Anglo-Europeans recruited would have yielded different results.

The "Big Three" and Ethnic Marketing

Marketing personnel in the Canadian head offices of the "big three" sport apparel companies (Nike, adidas, and Reebok) were asked if and how they use ethnic marketing. The consistent answer with all three companies was that they do not take part in targeting any particular ethnic groups in their marketing strategy. However, each of the representatives of the "big three" brands clearly noted that they do not exclude any ethnic groups in their marketing communications. Their approach is focused on the mass market, which is consistent with what was reported by Marsh (2001) and Sullivan (2003). On the other hand, all three companies stated that they do segment their market by age group rather than ethnicity.

One could argue that the "big three" do not need to use ethnic marketing because they have such strong brand equity. As well, it is practical for them to communicate to the masses rather than spending money marketing specifically to the Chinese or East Indians because those markets are already captured through mass marketing campaigns. In contrast, others might contend that these companies have the resources to devote to ethnic marketing and would benefit further by communicating to the larger ethnic groups.

CONCLUSIONS

Based on the interpretation of the results, a number of conclusions appear warranted. In the context of sport apparel, there were minimal differences in brand awareness, brand preference, and brand loyalty amongst the Anglo-Europeans, Chinese, and East Indians. The three groups were similar in their ratings of the most important factors and only six of the 39 branding factors proved to be statistically significant (*newspaper ads* and *Internet ads* for brand awareness, *the brand is trendy* and *people of my ethnic background wear the brand* for brand preference, and *availability of the brand* and *trust in the brand and company* for brand loyalty). For four of these six factors, the differences occurred between the East Indians and Anglo-Europeans. Based on these findings, the first hypothesis predicting that there would be differences in branding amongst the ethnic groups was not strongly supported. Several reasons for the minimal differences were previously suggested, such as the young sample that tended to be quite homogeneous. Perhaps youth desire to be similar to each other, regardless of their ethnicity or geographical location. Furthermore, sport apparel companies tend to market their products to the youth segment of the population.

Factoring in the demographic variables (sex, age, years lived in Canada, occupational status, generational status, level of education, and income) along with ethnicity for the analyses did not produce significant findings. However, analyzing for differences with the demographic variables independently showed branding differences for all factors except income. Considering both the ethnicity and sub-group analyses, overall, most differences were found with brand awareness and preference for sport apparel brands. Therefore, the second hypothesis suggesting that there would be differences according to the demographic variables was supported and is consistent with the acculturation literature.

In regard to consumer habits, the majority use sport apparel for both casual purposes and everyday sport. They also prefer to purchase their sport apparel at sporting goods retail chain stores. The top two sport apparel and footwear brands of those who participated in the study were Nike and adidas.

Finally, the "big three" sport apparel brands—Nike, adidas, and Reebok—do not participate in ethnic marketing in Canada, which refutes the third hypothesis. Their two major focuses are marketing to the masses and segmenting by age groups.

IMPLICATIONS

Although minimal differences were found in brand awareness, preference, and loyalty amongst the Chinese, East Indians, and Anglo-Europeans, this knowledge can be useful for sport marketers, especially in the sport apparel industry. The current study suggests that segmenting the sport apparel consumer market by ethnicity may not be useful at the present time. Perhaps it can confirm that the common approach of segmenting by age groups may be a more lucrative marketing strategy. In addition, this study can assist sport marketers to gain insight into the two "untapped markets" that were investigated (i.e., Chinese and East Indians).

Because participants were asked to rate the level of importance for various branding factors, sport marketers may find this information useful when developing their brand communication strategies for the particular groups included in the study.

RECOMMENDATIONS FOR FUTURE RESEARCH

Three recommendations were formulated on the basis of the study conducted. First, consideration of a different data collection location is recommended, such as near sporting goods stores owned and operated by Chinese and East Indians in their communities. As well, it may be beneficial to survey spectators at sporting events specific to the two groups (e.g., a dragon boat race or a cricket match) and compare the results to the current study. Choosing these alternative data collection locations may alleviate the problem of the imbalanced number of participants and age ranges between the three ethnic groups prevalent in the current study, thereby providing a more diverse sample.

Second, the current study was conducted using a questionnaire that was available in an English version only. Having versions available in the various Chinese and East Indian dialects would be invaluable. Although the cost of conducting this kind of study would be increased exponentially, the results would likely be more meaningful.

Finally, the current study confirmed that the "big three" brands did not participate in ethnic marketing. Because mid-market athletic footwear and apparel brands are trying to find other ways to compete with the "big three", it would be interesting to investigate whether ethnic marketing has been within their consideration as a strategy to differentiate them.

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A copy of the manuscript should be submitted as an e-mail attachment to the Editor-in-Chief, ***Malaysian Journal of Sport Science and Recreation***, Faculty of Sport Science and Recreation, Universiti Teknologi MARA, 40450, Shah Alam, SELANGOR, MALAYSIA, at chief_editor2003@yahoo.com or malaysianjssr@yahoo.com. The manuscript can either be in English or Bahasa Melayu (the official language of Malaysia). However, the Bahasa Melayu paper should have abstract in both Bahasa Melayu and English.

Length of manuscripts

Manuscripts sent to the journal should be a clear presentation of the subject matter of the contents of the manuscript. Manuscripts should be typed with double-spacing on an A4 paper with at least 2.5 cm (1 inch) margins and all pages should be numbered. The manuscript should not be more than 5,000 words including tables, illustrations and references. The Editor-in-Chief retains the discretion to publish manuscripts beyond this length, if he or she considers it necessary to ensure clarity of the paper.

The first page should include the title of the manuscript, first name, middle name(s) and last name of the author(s) as well as the name of their institutions and professional affiliations. The full name and address of the author identified as the correspondent (including fax number or e-mail address) should also be at the bottom of the page.

The second page should repeat the title with the abstract without the author(s) names listed. The *abstract* should be between 150 to 250 words and should provide a concise summary of the objectives, results and conclusions of the article.

Citations and References

The manuscript should be referenced according to the American Psychological Association (APA) 5th edition format. Authors are advised to make minor modifications to the APA referencing format in order to accommodate Malaysian names, allowing for (Abdul M.) to be written in full as (Abdul Malik) to include both the first and surname.

Illustrations, Tables and Figures

The manuscript should also follow the APA 5th edition format for illustrations, tables and figures. Tables should be typed in double spacing, each on a separate piece of paper with a self-explanatory title. Tables should be comprehensible without reference to the text. They should be placed at the end of the manuscript with their approximate locations indicated in the text. Figures should be produced direct from authors' originals and should be presented as good black or white images preferably on high contrast glossy paper, carefully labelled with capital/ lower case lettering. Unnecessary background patterns, lines and shading that could create confusion should be avoided.

Acceptance

The Editor-in-Chief will send an e-mail message of acceptance after reviewing the evaluation of the manuscript from two independent and anonymous referees. He or she has the right to make any additional changes to the manuscript that has already been reviewed by two independent and anonymous reviewers. The final copy including modifications based on the referees' comments should be sent by an e-mail attachment to the Editor-in-Chief, at chief_editor2003@yahoo.com or malaysianjssr@yahoo.com.

Proofs

Proofs are sent to authors for correction of print but not for rewriting or the introduction of new material. Proofs will be sent by e-mail to the first or nominated author, for the author to check and correct typographical errors, but not for general revision or alteration of the manuscript. Proofs should be returned to the Editor-in-Chief by e-mail within two weeks of receipt.

Two complementary copies of the journal will be sent to the first or nominated author of an article accepted for publication.

Checklist of requirements

Author(s) may use the following checklist before the submission of manuscripts.

- A submission letter
- Correspondent's title/name/address
- A cover page with title/author(s)/affiliation
- Double spacing with wide margins
- Tables/figures at the end
- Complete reference list in APA format
- An e-mail attachment of the manuscript to the Editor-in-Chief, chief_editor2003@yahoo.com or malaysianjssr@yahoo.com.