I

# Antecedents of Attachment to a Sports Team and the Rugby World Cup 2015: The Case of the All Blacks

A thesis submitted in partial fulfilment of the requirements for the Degree

of

Master of Commerce in Marketing

Department of Management, Marketing and Entrepreneurship

Hamish Mills

University of Canterbury

2016

**Acknowledgements**

Huge thank you to Dr. Girish Prayag for his guidance and support throughout this process. There's no chance in hell this would have gotten done without your help! I can't express in words the size of my gratitude. So thank you.

Thank you to all the awesome people in the MCOM group that shared this experience. It has been a pleasure getting to know you and moral support you've given me over the year has significantly contributed to the maintenance of my sanity.

I would of course like to thank my family for supporting me through the past twelve months. Your understanding and encouragement has been just what I needed (though I don't like admitting it). I don't know how I would have survived without you (likely would have starved to death).

Charlotte, your support has also been amazing. You've helped me get my mind off things in the stressful times. Would have gone mad without ya.

A final mention to Hayden for roping me in to all this.

Thank you.

Contents

Abstract ..... VII
1.1 Introduction ..... 1
1.2 Research background ..... 2
1.3 Research objectives ..... 5
1.4 Research methodology ..... 5
1.5 Research contributions ..... 5
1.6 Theoretical contributions ..... 6
1.7 Practical contributions ..... 7
1.8 Thesis outline ..... 7
2. Literature Introduction ..... 8
2.1 The Nature of Attachment ..... 8
2.2 Attachment ..... 11
2.3 Social identity theory ..... 15
2.4 Identification and Team Identification ..... 16
2.4.1 Team Identification-behaviour link ..... 16
2.4.2 Identification – affect link ..... 17
2.5 Difference between attachment and identification ..... 18
2.6 Emotions overview ..... 18
2.6.1 Emotions in sport ..... 19
2.6.2 Discrete vs categorical emotions ..... 20
2.6.3 Pride ..... 21
2.6.4 Love ..... 22
2.6.5 Happy ..... 23
2.6.6 Sadness ..... 23
2.6.7 Anger ..... 24
2.7 Satisfaction ..... 25
2.7.1 Transaction specific vs overall satisfaction ..... 26
2.7.2 Satisfaction in the sporting context ..... 27
2.7.3 Attachment satisfaction link ..... 27
2.8 Event attachment ..... 28
2.9 Literature gap ..... 30
2.10 Proposed conceptual model and hypotheses ..... 32

2.11 Research hypothesis ..... 32
2.12 Chapter summary ..... 36
3.1 Methodology Introduction ..... 38
3.2 Research context ..... 38
3.3 Research design ..... 39
3.4 Questionnaire development ..... 39
3.4.1 Survey format ..... 39
3.4.2 Screening questions ..... 40
3.4.3 Identification measures ..... 40
3.4.4 Emotions ..... 42
3.4.5 Satisfaction ..... 43
3.4.6 Attachment to team ..... 44
3.4.7 Attachment to event ..... 45
3.4.8 Demographics and fan behaviour ..... 46
3.4 Pre-test method ..... 46
3.4.1 Pre-test results ..... 47
3.4.2 Pre-test outcomes ..... 47
3.5 Ethical considerations ..... 49
3.6 Survey population ..... 49
3.7 Survey distribution ..... 49
3.8 Sample size ..... 50
3.9 Data Analysis ..... 50
3.10 Limitations ..... 51
3.11 Chapter summary ..... 51
4.1 Results Introduction ..... 52
4.2 Sample composition ..... 52
4.3 Fandom Behaviour ..... 54
4.4 Descriptives ..... 55
4.5 Confirmatory Factor Analysis ..... 57
4.5.1 Convergent validity ..... 59
4.5.2 Discriminant Validity ..... 61
4.6 Structural equation modelling ..... 62
4.6.1 Structural model results ..... 62
4.7 Chapter summary ..... 65

5.1 Discussion Introduction ..... 66
5.2 Results summary ..... 66
5.3 Identification and happiness, love and pride ..... 67
5.3.1 Identification and sadness and anger ..... 67
5.4 Happiness and satisfaction ..... 68
5.4.1 Pride and satisfaction ..... 68
5.4.2 Love and satisfaction ..... 69
5.4.3 Anger and satisfaction ..... 70
5.4.4 Sadness and satisfaction ..... 70
5.4.5 Discrete emotions and satisfaction ..... 71
5.5 Satisfaction and team and event attachment ..... 72
5.6 Identification to team and team attachment ..... 73
5.7 Attachment to team and event attachment ..... 74
5.8 Theoretical implications ..... 74
5.9 Managerial implications ..... 76
5.10 Limitations ..... 77
5.11 Future research ..... 78
Reference List ..... 81

**List of Tables**

**Table 1**: Modified Sport Spectator Identification Scale Survey Items Page 42

**Table 2:** Table of Emotion Survey Items 43

**Table 3:** Satisfaction Survey Items 44

**Table 4:** Adapted Psychological Continuum Model Survey Items 45

**Table 5:** Event Attachment Survey Items 46

**Table 6:** Pre-test Cronbach Alpha Scores 47

**Table 7:** Sample Demographics 53

**Table 8:** Fandom Behaviour Responses 55

**Table 9:** Normality and Reliability Statistics 57

**Table 10:** Table of Standardised Loadings 61

**Table 11:** Table of Discriminant Validity 61

**Table 12:** Table of Effects with Hypothesis Results 65

**List of Figures**

**Figure 1:** The Revised PCM Model 13

**Figure 2:** Proposed Conceptual Model 32

**Figure 3:** Final SEM Results 63

## Abstract

This thesis investigates the relationships between team identification, five discrete emotions (anger, sadness, love, happiness and pride), satisfaction, team attachment and event attachment in the context of the All Blacks and the Rugby World Cup. A conceptual model is developed to test these relationships where team identification, emotion and satisfaction are antecedent to concepts of team and event attachment. To empirically test the model, an online survey was created to sample the responses of All Blacks fans during the 2015 Rugby World Cup towards the constructs previously mentioned. A total of 343 responses were gathered after being recruited through social media and direct emailing methods. The hypotheses were then tested by using two step structural equation modelling to analyse the data. This analysis revealed that team identification was predictive of feelings of love, happiness and pride towards a team but showed no significant relationship to anger and sadness. The relationships between the discrete emotions and satisfaction were mixed, with love and pride showing no significant relationship, anger having a negative relationship and happiness having a positive relationship. Surprisingly, feelings of sadness towards the All Blacks also had a positive relationship with satisfaction. The satisfaction construct itself was not a significant predictor of team or event attachment. Team identification was found to have a strong direct link with team attachment, which was a predictor of event attachment. The implications of these findings and the limitations of the research are then discussed.

# Introduction

## 1.1 Introduction

This research will aim to test a model of the antecedents of sport fan attachment when the team they support competes at a global mega-event. Sport around the world continues to be a major social, cultural and economic force, with the industry generating an estimated 200 billion dollars for the American economy alone (Milano & Chelladurai, 2011). Large scale international sporting events continue to increase in viewership, with an estimated one billion people tuning in to watch the 2014 FIFA World Cup final between Germany and Argentina (FIFA, 2014). As a result sport marketing has become increasingly important, both marketing the sporting product itself, but also as a way to market products through a sporting vehicle such as sponsorship or advertisement during televised sporting events (Fullerton & Merz, 2008). The steady growth in the sport market can partly be attributed to the almost tribal like fashion in which dedicated sport fans behave and show their support towards their favourite team (Dionisio, Leal & Moutinho, 2008). While these dedicated fans prove to be less receptive to sports marketers attempts at selling *through* sports, they represent the end goal for sport marketers looking to sell the sport itself through event tickets, team related merchandise and other sport related goods (Mason, 1999). Dedicated fans are crucial to the survival of any sporting franchise due to their fervent loyalty to the product, even when their favourite team or player is performing badly (Sutton & Parrett, 1992). Thus, moving casual and 'fair-weather' fans through the process of becoming a 'die-hard' fan becomes important for the success of the franchise.

While the literature has identified the importance of fan relationships with sporting teams, the literature investigating these relationships is unfocussed. Much of the research conceptualises the relationship through a variety of different concepts, making it difficult to generalise and apply the findings to further theoretical and practical situations. In particular the exact nature of the emotional aspect of the sport fan experience is not adequately modelled in the current literature, despite the inherent affective, hedonic nature of both sport consumption and consumer attachment. Instead there is an emphasis on cognitive predictors of sport consumption behaviour such as team identification and sport motives (e.g. Wann & Branscombe, 1990; Wann, Ensor, Bilyeu, 2001; Fink, Trail & Anderson, 2002; Trail, Robinson, Dick & Gillentine, 2003).

Within New Zealand the most well supported sporting franchise is the national rugby team, the All Blacks. This team makes up a large part of the national history, identity and culture (Jackson & Hokowhitu, 2002), and has created a reverence among New Zealand fans that is unparalleled throughout the country. An All Blacks victory is a national accomplishment and a source of pride. Success in the quadrennial Rugby World Cup holds particular importance to New Zealanders, with anything less than a victory in the tournament creating nationwide trauma and grief (Hope, 2002). By studying this large domestic fan base as they support the All Blacks during the most important rugby event of the last four years, the 2015 Rugby World Cup, this research will attempt to shed light on the antecedents to a team and to the mega-event they compete in. Specifically, the research will identify the role and influence of sport identification, emotion and satisfaction to explain fans attachment to the All Blacks during the Rugby World Cup 2015. In this way, the thesis illustrates the highly emotional and nationalistic aspects of the fandom illustrated by Hope (2002) and attempts to use concepts of team identification, emotion and satisfaction to explain the deep connection All Blacks fans have with their team.

## 1.2 Research background

The sporting literature has used a variety of concepts to illustrate the relationship sport spectators and fans have with their favourite team. While sport marketing literature has investigated the links between fans and a variety of sport objects such as players and coaches as well as to the franchise or clubs brand, this research will focus on the concept of attachment towards a sports team. The attachment to a large scale sport event will also be measured in relationship to team attachment and other antecedent constructs. This will be conceptualised as ‘event attachment’. The model will also include constructs that are proposed as being antecedent to team and event attachment, team identification, satisfaction and the discrete emotions of happiness, love, pride, anger and sadness. The relationships between these constructs will be examined quantitatively and linked together using structural equation modelling.

The concept of attachment represents an important concept in explaining human behaviour. Ever since Bowlby (1980) used the concept of attachment to explore and explain the behavioural interactions between a mother and her baby it has been a topic of interest in the literature. The behavioural outcomes of attachment are well documented in psychology and form the basis for the deep affection that is characteristic of common family dynamics like

mother-baby or wife-husband (Hazan & Shaver, 1987). This behaviour focusses on maintaining proximity with the object of attachment as a way to make the individual feel more secure. The relationship between the attached individuals requires trust and a strong emotional bond. This relationship increases both parties' ability to face threats and defend themselves. In the particular case of the mother-child relationship that Bowlby (1980) described, attachment is vital to the survival of the baby. In normal cases, the relationship happens instinctually, indicating that humans are naturally pre-disposed to forming attachments to things that give them pleasure and make them feel secure (Schultz, Kleine, & Kernan, 1989).

As is common throughout the marketing literature, this psychological concept found applications in the marketing sphere. The first attempt to quantify and measure the construct of consumer attachment was done by Schultz et al. (1989). It was defined as a multidimensional construct that describes a 'linkage' between the consumer and an object. The level of attachment may be weak or strong, with stronger attachments eliciting stronger emotions and becoming more a part of the self-identity. This attachment, like other forms of attachment, is prone to changes in strength over time as the relationship develops. The marketing discipline has since continued to explore this area of research, studying consumer attachment to objects (Ball & Tasaki, 1992), places (Rubinstein & Parmelee, 1992) and brands (Thomson, MacInnis & Park, 2005).

The concept of attachment soon has also found its way into the sporting literature. However much of the sporting attachment literature has been self-contained, focussing on fleshing out the conceptualisation of sport attachment (Funk & James, 2001; Funk & James, 2006; Robinson & Trail, 2005). The rest has mostly focussed on behavioural link to attachment such as attendance loyalty and satisfaction (Filo, Funk & O'Brien, 2010). Despite mega-events such as the Olympics and various world cups/championships making up a large part of world sport consumption, research on the consumer attachment felt towards these events is also lacking. The concept of event attachment has only been looked at in papers investigating sport *participation* rather than spectatorship (Filo, et al., 2010; Filo, et al. 2014). Event support has also been discussed in the sport tourism context as a measure of local citizen support for a mega-event happening in their area (Kaplanidou et al., 2013; Zhou & Ap, 2009; Prayag, Hosany, Nunkoo & Alders, 2013). However the causes for event attachment among consumers are sparsely researched except for studies on attachment to festivals (Lee, Kyle & Scott, 2012; Lee, Lee & Arcodia, 2014). One significant omission in this literature on festival

attachment is that most studies focus on participants attending the event. However, being a sport or team fan does not necessarily imply attendance at every game, though this is a common behaviour, fandom can also be expressed by watching matches on television and/or online. Indeed the entire concept that sport fans may feel some level of attachment to large sporting international mega-events like the Rugby World Cup without physically attending the event has not been explored. The effect a fans attachment to a team has on event attachment is also not researched.

The fact that attachment literature incorporates both cognitive and affective elements potentially offers a better concept to understand the full relationship (cognitive and affective) that the sport fan has with their team. The concept of attachment represents a better conceptual background and can be described on a continuum ranging from low to high, whereby high attachment fans would have different behaviours from those that feel low attachment or no attachment (Funk & James, 2006). Team identification is another concept popular in the sporting literature (Branscombe & Wann, 1991; Wann & Branscombe, 1993; Fink, et al. 2002; Wann, 2006) that will be used in combination with team attachment. As will be discussed in the literature review, team identification is grounded in Tajfel's (1978) social identity theory (Dimmock, Grove & Eklund, 2005). Recent research on the two constructs shows they are empirically distinct and, when used in tandem can create a more complete picture of the relationship a consumer has with a brand (Sen, Johnson & Bhattacharya, 2015). The similarity and differences of the two constructs will be described further in the literature review.

Discrete emotions (happiness, love, pride, anger and sadness) will also be included in the conceptual model. While the exact definition of emotion is disputed (Mulligan & Scherer, 2012), it is commonly referred to in the marketing literature as "a mental state of readiness that arises from cognitive appraisals of events or thoughts" (Bagozzi, Gopinath & Nyer, 1999, p. 184). The marketing literature has on occasion combined emotion and attachment into the construct of emotional attachment (Thomson, MacInnis & Park, 2005; Thomson, 2006: Vlachos, Theotokis, Pramatari & Vrechopoulos, 2010). These research papers consider attachment as containing affective elements, ignoring the possibility that emotions are a distinct construct and may be antecedent to attachment. This research has also tended to use a categorical emotion approach, favouring measures of emotional valence and arousal.

Satisfaction will also be measured in this research. Satisfaction is referred to as a consumers post-purchase confirmation or disconfirmation of pre-purchase expectations (Oliver, 1980). Like the attachment construct, satisfaction has both cognitive and emotional factors (Giese & Cote, 2000). Previous marketing research has measured satisfaction in conjunction with attachment and it has been shown to be empirically distinct (Vlachos et al. 2010). Where attachment requires a relationship with a long term history (Belk, 1988), satisfaction may be felt in the short term and may not always lead to repatronage (Jones & Sasser, 1995). Satisfaction therefore will be viewed in this research as a possible antecedent to team attachment. With the above discussion in mind, this research has the following objectives.

## 1.3 Research objectives

- To identify the role and influence of sport identification, emotions and satisfaction on attachment to the All Blacks Team and the Rugby World Cup 2015.
- To examine the influence of discrete emotions such as happiness, love, pride, anger and sadness on attachment to the All Blacks team and the Rugby World Cup 2015.

## 1.4 Research methodology

To achieve the objectives set above, a conceptual model was developed based on the literature outlining hypotheses relating to the five main constructs in this study (team identification, emotions, satisfaction, team attachment and event attachment). To test the model an online questionnaire was administered to All Blacks fans during the 2015 Rugby World Cup. The data collected from this was used to test the relationships between the constructs using Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA) to establish confidence in the measurement and Structural Equations Modelling (SEM) to identify relationships.

## 1.5 Research contributions

This research contributes both to theory in the fields of sports marketing, event marketing and the broader sports management literature. Research contributions in the areas of sport team and event attachment are expected, as well as in the emotion research space in the context of sport fans. Theoretical contributions to the team identification and satisfaction literature are also anticipated, again with special significance to the sport marketing context. Additionally it is hoped that the research can contribute to the marketing decisions made by sport marketing professionals by providing a framework that can illustrate the important cognitive

and affective stages the sport fan experiences. This can help guide their marketing plans on the specific ways their product needs to make the consumer think and feel if they want to create a highly attached, loyal fan base.

## 1.6 Theoretical contributions

This research is unique in that it builds on the idea that identification does not directly lead to behavioural outcomes, but is a part of a process that leads to attachment. Research in the area of team identification has focused on identification creating behavioural outcomes such as purchase behaviour towards sponsors (Gwinner & Swanson, 2003), game event attendance (Wann, 2006) and merchandise sales (Kwon & Armstrong, 2002). This research will instead investigate the affective outcomes of identification by studying specific discrete emotions. This combined with the satisfaction construct will investigate a new set of antecedents to the team attachment construct.

The event attachment construct will also be measured among sport fans (rather than participants) for the first time. There is currently a lack of literature discussing the relationship between sport fans and sporting mega-events such as the Rugby World Cup, despite the large scale of these events. Investigations on mega-events have in the past focussed on the impacts the event has on factors of the local economy (Lee & Taylor, 2005), environment (Collins, Jones & Munday, 2009), social factors (Schimmel, 2006) or all of the above (Prayag, et al., 2013). To fill this gap, this research will investigate how attachment to a team affects attachment towards a mega-event.

This research will also extend the work done in the tourism (Hernandez, Hidalgo, Salazar-Laplace & Hess, 2007) and brand literature (Sen, et al., 2015) on the differences between concepts of consumer attachment and identification in the sport marketing context. Previous work on concepts of team attachment and identification has either ignored (Funk & James, 2001, 2006) or considered the concepts as conceptually the same (Gray & Wert-Gray, 2012). Sen, et al. (2015) rightly point out that the theoretical backgrounds of the two constructs; attachment theory and social identity theory, do not support this claim. This research will show that the two concepts are distinct and relevant to the sport marketing literature.

## 1.7 Practical contributions

This research makes it clearer for sport marketers exactly what kinds of emotions are important in creating attachments to a team. While on field performance is likely the main cause for these emotions, marketers can place an emphasis on these emotions when creating promotion material. Additionally, sports marketers can still elicit emotion using other areas of their marketing mix. For marketing practitioners the exact nature of the desired emotional responses their promotion material should create in fans will be made clear. The importance of identification in the creation of attached fans is also of significance as marketers attempt to create fans that absorb the sport brand into their self-identity and share their fandom with others. This paper will make clear the importance of a marketing plan that guides newer fans through the process of identification to attachment, while also maintaining the satisfaction of already attached fans. Finally, this research will illustrate the importance the teams competing in a sporting mega-event has on creating attachment. These event organisers should target the fan bases who have the largest and most satisfied fan bases, and not necessarily just those teams that are capable of the best on-field performances.

## 1.8 Thesis outline

This thesis consists of six chapters. The current chapter has introduced the research by providing a justification for the chosen subject area, introducing the concepts to be studied, the aims of the research and explained the research gap. In Chapter Two, *Literature Review*, a deeper discussion on the five concepts discussed in the research background will be had (identification, emotion, satisfaction, attachment to team and attachment to event) and the literature gap will be further discussed. Interaction of these concepts will also be discussed and rationalised. Finally in this chapter the proposed conceptual model and hypotheses, will be presented and justified.

Chapter Three, *Methodology*, outlines the methods adopted for the research. Results from pre-study questionnaires are presented. Development of the online survey, sampling procedures and questionnaire are also discussed. Chapter Four, *Results*, offers the findings of the research including a sample overview and hypothesis testing. Finally Chapter Five, *Discussion*, presents a discussion of key research findings, research limitations and implications. Suggestions for future research are also provided.

# Literature review

## 2. Literature Introduction

Firstly, it is important to note that this paper will be dealing with the concept of sport 'fans'. This is an important distinction from the term of 'spectators'. The literature has often used these words interchangeably but they are two distinct concepts and should be treated as such (Trail, Robinson, Dick & Gillentine, 2003). Pooley (1978) describes the difference as

*"A spectator of sport will observe a spectacle and forget it quickly, the fan continues his interest until the intensity of feeling toward the team becomes so great that parts of every day are devoted to either his team or in some instances, to the broad realm of sport itself (p. 14)".*

The term 'sports object' often crops up in the sport marketing literature. This word is used to generalise all aspects of a sporting organisation. Athletes, teams, coaches and even an entire sporting discipline can be described as a sports object (Doyle, Kunkel & Funk, 2013).

### 2.1 The Nature of Attachment

In general, the sport literature has not found a unified concept to describe the connection spectators and fans feel towards teams and other sport objects. Funk and James (2001) illustrated this point when reviewing the literature on the subject. The following is a list of words they found that had been used to describe some form of spectator/fan relationship with a sporting object: identification, attraction, association, attachment, involvement, importance and commitment. Below, each of these competing constructs is described and compared to illustrate the current confusion in the literature on defining and discussing the nature of team-fan relationships.

Hansen & Gauthier (1989) used attraction to teams and players as one concept that affects attendance of professional sports games. The research mainly focused on team performance factors such as win/loss record, as well as attraction to particular star athletes. Funk & James (2001) also studied attraction, emphasising the social aspect of the construct, noting attraction is less intense than attachment and is dependent on social relationships and hedonic motives such as the need for entertainment. These factors can create attraction, but as soon as the

needs stop being met or another product is found that meets them better, the attracted individual will lose interest.

Gladden, Milne & Sutton (1998) used the idea of brand association and loyalty in much the same way other sport marketing research has used ideas of attachment. They created a model where the success of the team and star players, as well as the reputation, location and local support of the team lead to brand association and loyalty. This leads to outcomes commonly associated with concepts of loyalty in the consumer and sporting literature such as repatronage intentions and higher merchandise sales).

Involvement is another construct that has been used in attempts to explain fan relationships in the sport literature (Kerstetter & Kovich, 1997; Funk, Ridinger & Moorman, 2004). This research borrowed from the consumer literature its definition of involvement, which states "Involvement is an unobservable state of motivation, arousal, or interest. It is evoked by a particular stimulus or situation" (Laurent & Kapferer, 1985. p.49). This mix of concepts under the banner of involvement (motivation, arousal and interest) makes it a generalised concept that includes both cognitive and affective factors. In the sport literature it was found that involvement was valid in the sport fan context and was a two dimensional construct (sign and pleasure/importance). These dimensions match those used in measures of attachment by Doyle, et al. (2013). This construct was also linked to behavioural outcomes such as likelihood to attend live matches for that team. However, this research did not matchup with some of the other research on involvement in general marketing literature (Dimanche, Havitz & Howard, 1991; Dimanche, Havitz & Howard, 1993), due to the poor fit the measurement instruments had to the sporting context. Note that the type of involvement being discussed here is product involvement, where consumers have an interest in product usage. This is distinct from purchase involvement (Mittal & Lee, 1989). Also note that in the consumer literature the concept of risk; consumer perceptions of the chance of making a poor purchase decision and the severity of the consequences of a poor decision, are incorporated into involvement (Laurent & Kapferer, 1985). In studies of involvement in the sports sphere, it has been found that perceptions of risk do not correlate with feelings of involvement in the sport context (Kersteter & Kovich, 1997), perhaps hinting at its unsuitability to the context.

Mahony, Madrigal & Howard's (2000) research on the 'commitment' term focused around their Psychological Commitment to Team scale (PCT). Commitment was used as an extension to Olson and Jacoby's (1971) definition of loyalty that describes loyalty as having a

behavioural aspect and an attitudinal aspect. The concept of psychological commitment focuses on the attitudinal side of loyalty. For a consumer to be truly loyal to a brand, they must have commitment (Jacoby & Chestnut, 1978), where commitment is a strong resistance to change “in response to conflicting information or experience” (Crosby & Taylor, 1983). In contrast to these conceptualisations of commitment, it is argued that its measurement mainly focusses on the behavioural aspect as the consumer slowly escalates their attachment (Funk & James, 2001). It has also been empirically shown that the commitment construct is almost identical to the identification construct in its ability to capture fan attitudes and behaviours towards a sport object (Wann, & Pierce, 2003).

According to Funk and James (2001) “Attachment refers to the degree to which physical and psychological features (i.e., attributes and benefits associated with a team such as success, star player, stadium, identification, and community pride) take on internal psychological meaning". They also state that attachment is more intrinsic in nature. The object of their attachment has internal meaning and this increases the importance of the object in their evaluations of the self. This is in contrast to other constructs such as attraction to a team which is predicated on the fans extrinsic motivations such as the social desire to fit in with others that support the team and use their support as a status symbol to others.

Identification to a sports team has been defined as “the spectator’s perceived connectedness to a team and the experience of the team’s failings and achievements as one’s own” (Gwinner & Swanson, 2003). It is largely a cognitive construct, with Bhattacharya and Sen (2003) describing it as a form of self-categorisation. This concept of the self is important due to the idea of identification. When a person identifies as part of a group this is done in a self-evaluative manner and this group identity becomes a part of the individual’s sense of self (Mael & Ashforth, 1992). In the sport literature the concept of identification has been used to explain spectator motives (Fink, Trail & Anderson, 2002), sponsorship outcomes (Gwinner & Swanson, 2003), behavioural outcomes (Matsuoka, Chelladurai & Harada, 2003) and emotional outcomes (Wann & Branscombe, 1992).

From this review of the sport marketing terminology it is easy to see that there is some confusion around definitions and conceptualisations of fan relationships with sport objects. Many of these concepts have simply transferred measures from consumer research or psychology and applied the concepts to the sport marketing literature. Some of these concepts describe relationships that are lower in strength, such as association and attraction. These

focus more on shallow measures of team attachment such as the performance of the team. Terms like attachment, commitment and involvement are higher order ideas that encapsulate the deeper connection that many dedicated fans feel towards various sport objects. Ultimately these concepts operate on a continuum that can range from low to high, which can make the distinction between terms like attraction and involvement murky when attraction can simply be described as 'low involvement'. This research will use the attachment term as defined by Funk and James (2001) and the identification term defined by Wann & Branscombe (1991). These constructs describe contrasting aspects of the team-fan relationship; with identification concerned with the cognitive, self-identity aspect of the fan connection to team as expressed in an outward manner. In contrast the attachment construct is more affective in nature with the inward personal significance of the relationship emphasised.

## 2.2 Attachment

Theories on attachment arise from the field of psychology, where the attachment exhibited between infants and parents (Bowlby, 1980) as well as adult lovers is of particular interest (Hazan & Shaver, 1987). From this, consumer attachment has become a popular field of study in the marketing literature. While the definition of attachment varies according to the context, Funk & James (2006) give a generalised definition of attachment that has been used in sport attachment literature as "the point at which the individual has formed a meaningful psychological connection that is supported by various attitude properties" (p. 191). This psychological connection may be felt toward a loved one, a brand or a sports team, to name a few possibilities.

The main area of focus for consumer attachment theories has been on brand attachment; the link between self-identity and a brand (Park, MacInnis, Priester, Eisingerich & Iacobucci, 2010). Brand attachment is made up of cognitive and emotional factors (Park, MacInnis & Priester, 2006). This emotional factor is part of what differentiates brand attachment from other concepts that may seem similar, such as brand attitude and loyalty (Japutra, Ekinci & Simkin, 2014). Attachment is generally built up over time as a consumer interacts with a brand whereas brand attitudes and loyalty can arise from hasty cognitive judgements of product quality purchase (Park, et al., 2010). This combination of emotional and cognitive factors makes measures of attachment a more reliable predictor of consumer intentions to recommend and purchase (Japutra, et al., 2014). Consumers are more likely to grow their attachment toward a brand if the brand values are perceived to be compatible with their

notions of actual self (Kim, Lee & Ulgado, 2005; Malar, Krohmer, Hoyer & Nyffenegger, 2011). Switching behaviour between brands is less likely among older consumers than it is among younger consumers who share the same level of attachment (Lambert-Pandraud & Laurent, 2010).

Positive emotional factors that drive this attachment have been split into three categories: affection, passion and connection (Thomson et al., 2005). Research into intense feelings of brand love has found similar emotions in consumers (Batra, Ahuvia & Bagozzi, 2012). This implies that there is a link between emotional intensity and level of attachment towards brands as well as theories of brand attachment and love. Loureiro, Ruediger & Demetris (2012) consider these theories separate, noting that attachment is a pre-requisite to the development of brand love. This study also considers the idea of brand trust in the context of attachment, noting that love causes the level of trust in a brand to rise (Loureiro, et al., 2012). Brand trust is also an important precursor to the development of brand attachment and love (Vlachos, et al., 2010). This can cause consumers to take a more sympathetic view towards any unethical behaviour the company might be caught doing (Schmalz & Orth, 2012).

Despite the heavy emphasis on the link between emotions and attachment in general marketing literature, the sport attachment literature has failed to adequately investigate this link. Investigation into consumer attachment to sporting objects (such as teams and athletes) has tended to take a more cognitive view of the attachment construct, focussing on attachment as an outcome of the consumers underlying motivations. This is no more apparent than in the literature on ‘point of attachment’. This literature focusses on segmenting consumers based on the target of their attachment to a particular sporting object. In Robinson & Trail’s (2005) seminal work on the point of attachment index (PAI), seven points of attachment (team, player, coach, community, sport, university and level of sport) were investigated and used to predict the motivations collegiate sport fans had for consuming sporting entertainment of their favourite team. They found that those who felt higher attachment towards a team, player or coach were more likely to be motivated by vicarious achievement, whereas fans of the sport are more interested in the aesthetic and dramatic qualities of the sporting product (Robinson & Trail, 2005). The PAI has been used to study golf spectators (Robinson, Trail & Kwon, 2004), Turkish football fans (Gencer, Kiremitci & Boyacioglu, 2011) and basketball fans (Gencer 2015) as well as wheelchair rugby spectators (Cottingham II, Chatfield, Gearity, Allen & Hall, 2012). Across this broad sporting spectrum the scale has been modified to suit the context of the study (e.g. attachment to university is

not relevant for any of the research mentioned above and was not used) but has overall proven to be valid way of predicting the attitudes and motivations of sport consumers (Cottingham II et al., 2012).

The limitation of this style of measuring attachment is that it doesn't consider the extent of the bond between consumer and sporting object. Earlier research has looked at segmenting fans by their level of commitment to a team (Hunt, Bristol & Bashaw, 1999) and their level of identification (Giulianotti, 2002). To address this gap in the sport attachment literature the Psychological Continuum Model (PCM) was created to measure changes in behaviour and attitudes as the psychological bond between consumer and sporting object. The PCM takes consumers through four stages of attachment; awareness, attraction, attachment and allegiance (Funk & James, 2001). This model was later revised (Funk & James, 2006) to include the process consumers go through as they move through each stage of the PCM as shown in Figure 1.

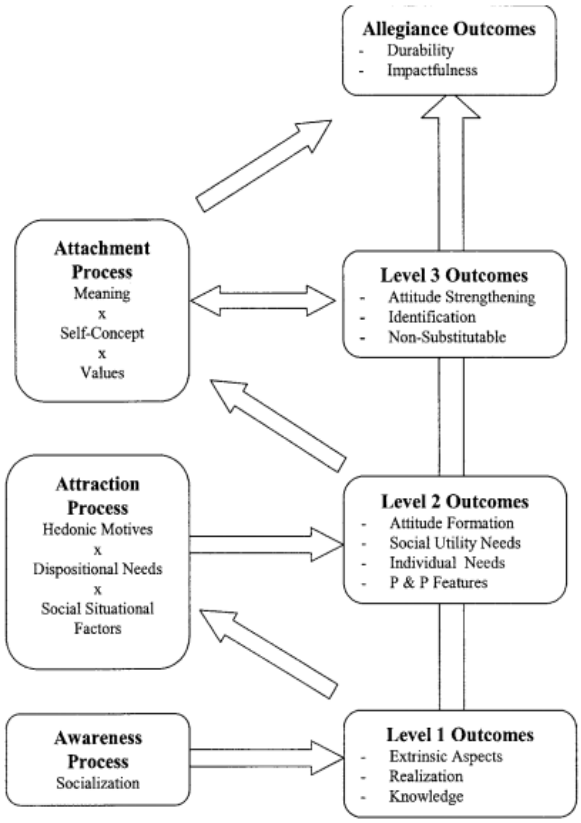


**Figure 1** – The revised PCM model

*Note*. From "Consumer loyalty: The meaning of attachment in the development of sport team allegiance" by Funk, D. C., & James, J. D, 2006, *Journal of Sport Management*, *20*(2), p. 193.

This model has been used to understand reasons for consumers developing attachment to sport teams (de Groot & Robinson, 2008) as well as lowering their attachment to sporting teams and organisations (Lock & Filo, 2012). The research carried out by Lock & Filo (2012) is one of the only studies in the sport attachment literature that focusses on the loss of attachment. It adds a 'disidentification' outcome to the PCM model, after a qualitative study on the non-attendance behaviour of a community toward their local football team. The study found the consumer could be driven to disidentification through three different factors. The first is if they believe the values and characteristics of the sporting object have changed in a negative way. This can be caused by unfair treatment of fans or negative behaviour of the team. The second factor is the perception that the sporting object is taking away from and/or taking advantage of the community, rather than giving back. This is linked to the third factor where fans perceive the sport club to have an 'elite focus'. This focus on the upper echelons of the sport alienates those who wish to participate and interact with the club at a lower level as they do believe they are receiving a fair amount of support for their investment. These factors, should a fan perceive them to be occurring, causes the sporting object to become incongruent to the consumers' self-identity and disidentification to occur. Note that this study was exploratory in nature and there may be more reasons for sport fans to disidentify (Lock & Filo, 2012).

The PCM model lacks any explicit emotional aspect that can be used to predict changes in attachment. The emotional side of attachment is only implicit within the model. For example 'hedonic motives' in the attraction process includes the entertainment value of the sporting event (Funk & James, 2006). Sport entertainment is inherently emotional (Gantz, Wang, Paul & Potter, 2006), which would suggest there are emotional factors effecting the PCM model that are not accounted for. Funk & James (2006) suggest themselves that at the allegiance stage, the fan relationship to the team would have taken on an emotional meaning, though the specifics of this meaning is not investigated further. This lack of engagement with issues of emotion may be due to the fact that the model has more general applications than just attachment. It has been used to examine team identification (Lock, Taylor, Funk & Darcy, 2012) and motives for sporting participation (Filo et al., 2010) and has shown to be a valid segmentation tool in both of these studies (Doyle et al., 2013). These concepts are less emotionally driven than attachment (Japutra et al., 2014), which would mean that adding emotional predictors to the model could make the model less useful for these areas. The

advantage of this model is that it describes the consumer processes before the consumer actually reaches attachment. However, the literature has primarily focussed on these early stages (awareness and attraction) of the PCM model (Filo, Funk & Hornby, 2009; Lock & Filo, 2012; Doyle, et al., 2013) and not on the attachment and allegiance stages.

## 2.3 Social identity theory

The conceptual background of the identification literature is social identity theory. Tajfel (1978) originally defined the concept as "that part of an individual's self-concept which derives from his [or her] knowledge of his [or her] membership of a social group (or groups) together with the value and emotional significance attached to that membership'' (p. 63). This definition can be broken down into having three broad factors according to much of the subsequent literature (Ellemers, Kortekaas & Ouwerkerk, 1999; Cameron, 2004; Jackson, 2002). These categories are cognitive 'self-categorization' ("I belong to this group, I often think about being a member") emotional 'affective commitment' ("being a part of this group makes me feel x") and social 'group self-esteem' ("I have a relationship with other members of the group and I support the group").

Social identity theory, as its name suggests, is inherently social in nature (Jacobson, 2003). It is about how individuals categorise and evaluate themselves and others according to the groups they belong to. These group memberships form the basis for the outward social self that individuals present to the wider world. This social self is socially constructed and used by individuals to convey characteristics about themselves to others (Thoits & Virshup, 1997).

Those identifying with one particular group will exhibit a positive bias towards those who are also a part of the group. They will also discriminate against those outside of the group, even when the difference between the ingroup and outgroup is largely trivial and irrelevant (Tajfel, Billig & Bundy, 1971). This discrimination can take place even when there is no outward benefit for the group to do so. In fact research in the area has shown that group members discriminate against outgroups because it solidifies in group ties and makes group individuals feel better about their personal allegiances (Lemyre & Smith, 1985; Oakes & Turner, 1980; Tajfel & Turner, 1986). The level to which people discriminate against an outgroup is correlated with the level to which they are identified with the ingroup (Struch & Schwartz, 1989). This discrimination will rise further when the two groups come into opposition with each other (Brown, Maras, Mass, Vivian & Hewstone, 2001).

Those identifying with a group are more likely to have positive emotions (Tajfel, 1978; Tajfel & Turner, 1979) and feelings of satisfaction towards themselves and the group (Cameron, 1999). In the absence of satisfaction and emotion, the individual feels compelled to disassociate with the group, illustrating the importance these constructs have in maintaining team identification (Tajfel & Turner, 1986). This theory forms the basis for the conceptual model where highly identified individuals will display more intense emotional responses towards the object of their identification, leading to higher satisfaction. Attachment theory predicts that as this relationship grows and extends into the long term, attachment to the object is formed (Bowlby, 1977).

## 2.4 Identification and Team Identification

The literature on identification is based around the aforementioned social identity theory. In the sport marketing context, identification has been referred to as fan identification (Gwinner & Swanson, 2003), commitment (Allen & Meyer, 1990; Mahony, Madrigal & Howard, 2000) and team identification (e.g. Wann & Branscombe, 1992; Wann & Branscombe, 1993). For this paper we will refer to it as team identification (as we are specifically focussing on the All Blacks team and not the brand) and define it as "the extent to which a fan feels a psychological connection to a team and the team's performances are viewed as self-relevant" (Wann, 2006). Team identification has been used to examine the motives for sport consumption (Fink, Trail & Anderson, 2002), satisfaction (Matsuoka, Chelladurai & Harada, 2003) and attitudes towards sport sponsorship (Gwinner & Swanson, 2003).

### 2.4.1 Team Identification-behaviour link

The main source of interest for those exploring identification has been its link to behaviours. Those displaying higher identification to a team have been shown to attend more games (Wann & Branscombe, 1993; Matsuoka, et al., 2003), spend more on merchandise (Madrigal, 1995; Gray & Wert-Gray, 2012) and consumer more team related media (Gray & Wert-Gray, 2012) than those not as identified. Those who are highly identified are more likely to anonymously cheat if it meant an improved chance at a good result for their team (Wann, Hunter, Ryan & Wright, 2001). Highly identified fans will also display high levels of bias when it comes to evaluating a game's outcome and the reasons for that outcome. Losing fans will blame luck, the officiating and dirty play from the other team for a defeat while winning fans will think their team played a high quality, fair game (Mann, 1974). These fans also

display heightened aggression towards opposing fans (Branscombe & Wann, 1992), indicating a propensity among highly identified fans to react emotionally to outcomes.

### 2.4.2 Identification – affect link

Some research has been carried out on the relationship between levels of team identification and to the intensity of emotional responses toward game outcomes (Wann, Dolan, McGeorge & Allison, 1994; Wann, Royalty & Rochelle, 2002). In fact strongly identified fans emotionally react to a team victory or defeat as if it were their own personal victory/defeat (Hirt, Zillman, Erickson & Kennedy, 1992). In the case of a win, this is known as basking in reflected glory (BIRGing), where the fan will claim the team win as a personal victory and discuss the team using collective words such as 'we' and 'us'. However this changes when the team performs poorly. To protect their self-esteem, fans identified with a team will 'cut-off reflected failure' (CORF) and create distance between themselves and the team. Highly identified fans will be less likely to CORF and more likely to BIRG given a loss or a win respectively (Wann & Branscombe, 1990). This would imply that after any given result a highly identified fan will have a stronger emotional response than someone who is not as identified. Highly identified fans will even react with strong positive emotions when their team's rivals lose, irrespective of the performance of their team (Wann, 2006). These highly identified fans are also more likely to respond with positive emotions when asked about their view of their own life in general (Branscombe & Wann, 1991). From this literature we can surmise that the level of team identification directly effects the level of emotional response from a fan.

There have been attempts by researchers to investigate the specific emotions felt by sports fans rather than just the valence of their emotions. Madrigal (1995) found team identification caused fans to feel a greater level of happiness, delight and joy, the more they identified with the team. This corroborated research by Wann & Branscombe, (1992) who found that highly identified fans were more likely to feel happy, good and joyful toward a positive news article about their team. They also found that these same fans would respond with sadness if the article was not complementary, particularly if they were exposed to it after witnessing a team loss.

## 2.5 Difference between attachment and identification

Much of the literature in the sport identification literature equates identification to attachment (Gray & Wert-Gray, 2012). In fact one study on identification incorporated attachment into its definition, saying that identification "results in feelings or sentiments of close attachment" (Trail, Anderson & Fink, 2000, p. 166). This is despite literature on the subject in other areas such as place attachment and organisational attachment having them as unique constructs (Hernandez et al, 2007; O'Reilly III & Chatman, 1986). In their study of place attachment and environmental perception, Hernandez et al (2007) defines attachment as the affective element of a relationship, while identification is the conceptualisation of the cognitive element. This study and consequent studies have showed that the two constructs were empirically separate, though correlated (Hernandez et al, 2007; Rollero & Piccoli, 2010). The organisational literature also seems confused on its definition of attachment and identification, combining constructs of identification and commitment into an 'attachment' construct (Riketta & Van Dick, 2005). Recent research into consumer-brand relationships by Sen, Johnson, Bhattacharya & Wang (2015) has also discussed the differences between identification and attachment. This research noted the difference in conceptual background, with identification rooted in social identity theory (Tafjel, 1978) and attachment emerging from Bowlby's (1980) research on attachment theory. Identification is therefore a much more cognitive, socially motivated construct, in that identifying with a consumer product incorporates it into the self-identity, which is outwardly expressed to the world through use of the product. This link is more public, with the consumer potentially expressing themselves to others as 'an iPhone user' or 'a Manchester United fan' for example. In contrast, attachment is a more intimate, personal bond that is more affective in nature. It is based more on needs fulfilment than the identification construct. On top of this review of the conceptual literature an empirical investigation was carried out and it was found that there was an empirical difference between the constructs. 52% of consumers were both identified and attached to a brand showing the concepts are similar but distinct (Sen, Johnson, Bhattacharya & Wang, 2015).

## 2.6 Emotions overview

According to Altarriba, (2012) emotions have been examined in the context of psychology since 1895. This large body of literature has come up with three broad categories to understand emotional phenomenon. Affect is a broad term to describe "a general category for

mental feeling processes, rather than a particular psychological process" (Bagozzi et al., 1999 p.184). Those with negative affective states tend to have a lower view of self and experience emotions such as sadness and distress more often than those with a more positive affective state (Watson & Clark, 1984). The concept of mood bridges the gap between affect and emotion. Mood states tend to last longer than emotions but are shorter than affect. Moods aren't necessarily the direct result of particular stimuli and unlike emotions, have no particular target (Fisher, 2000). Emotions can be differentiated from affect and mood by their intensity and cause. Generally, emotion is a short term response to events or circumstances (Renaud & Zacchia, 2013). In the marketing sense, the main cause of consumer emotion is the consumers' appraisal of goods and services they consume or are considering consuming. They make judgements of the product, form attitudes and these attitudes cause emotions to be felt (Bagozzi, et al., 1999). Most early research in the marketing literature on emotions focussed on consumer response to advertisements (e.g. Holbrook & Batra, 1987; Olney, Holbrook & Batra, 1991) and consumer satisfaction (e.g. Westbrook, 1987; Oliver, 1993). These studies focussed on general emotional categories or affective states such as 'pleasure', 'arousal' and even more generally, 'positive' and 'negative' affect (Laros & Steenkamp, 2005). They found that advertisements generally elicit emotions of low intensity (Aaker, Stayman & Vezina, 1988) and that the relationship between emotion and satisfaction is complex, particularly in a service context where rapport between customer and service provider is most important. This rapport can be built up by the service employee displaying positive emotions, but this does not guarantee satisfaction (Hennig-Thurau, Groth, Paul & Gremler, 2006).

### 2.6.1 Emotions in sport

Sport is capable of eliciting extremely strong emotional reactions among consumers (Trail & James, 2001). These emotional reactions toward sport are largely caused by its unpredictable nature (Knobloch-Westerwick, David, Eastin, Tamborini & Greenwood, 2009). The effect emotion has on sport consumers have mainly been explored in the context of advertisement and live events. Kwak, Kim & Hirt (2011) found that emotions are a motivator of behaviour when they studied the effect emotions had on the persuasiveness of sport team-related marketing material. In the live spectatorship context, a range of specific emotional responses have been examined such as suspense (Knoblock-Westerick, et al., 2009), rage (Grove, Pickett, Jones & Dorsh, 2012), joy (Kuenzel & Yassim, 2007) and sadness (Bal, Quester & Plewa, 2011). The difference in emotion between losing and winning fans has also been

examined, finding that most differences were to be found post-game when the result was decided. Losing fans on average were more bored, sullen, angry, humiliated and resentful than those who supported the winning team. Pride was also measured, but was found to effect both winning and losing fans near equally (Kerr, Wilson, Nakamura & Sudo, 2005).

In their conceptual essay on the topic Uhrich & Koenigstorfer (2009) suggest Mehrabian & Russell's (1974) PAD scale should be used as it was originally created to examine the emotions of consumers in a live setting such as a retail shop. Recently there has been an effort to create a standardised measure of emotional attachment to a sport team that could be used to cover the whole experience of being a sport fan, and not just one specific context such as live events. The Emotional Attachment to Sport Team scale (EAST) is one such scale that views emotional attachment as inputs and outputs. Feelings of passion and attachment are the 'investment' a consumer puts into the team and the 'dividends' are paid in happiness and delight (Dwyer, Mudrick, Greenhalgh, LeCrom & Dryer, 2015). This is limited by the fact that is measures the emotions a fan feels toward a team they identify as their 'favourite' (emotions felt toward teams less favoured may be different as well as less intense) and it doesn't explore the effect negative feelings may have on attachment.

### 2.6.2 Discrete vs categorical emotions

Emotions literature has examined the construct through two conceptualisations, discrete and categorical. According to Lazarus (1991), studying emotions through the discrete paradigm involves identifying the relevant emotions being studied (e.g. happiness, guilt and pride) and then measuring the intensity to which the emotions are being felt. Only emotions that have unique action tendencies, antecedents and expression are considered discrete emotions (Nabi, 2010). This contrasts with the categorical paradigm which combines emotions with shared dimensions and groups them into larger factors. Categorical emotions research has used a variety of factors such as positive and negative affect (Watson and Tellegen, 1985) or arousal and pleasure (Lang, Greenwald, Bradley & Hamm, 1993). It is argued that this categorical view of emotion oversimplifies the construct and prevents researchers from exploring the subtleties of emotional experience (Lazarus, 1991). This research seeks to investigate the specific emotional responses of sports fans due to the wealth of literature already investigating categorical emotions. Therefore a discrete emotion approach will be used. The five discrete emotions being investigated are described below.

### 2.6.3 Pride

Pride is a non-interpersonal emotion that is positive in nature (Storm & Storm, 1987). It is felt when a person feels that a valued achievement is accomplished due to their own efforts (Williams & DeSteno, 2008). An important aspect of feeling pride is the fact the achievement must be valued by others and not just the individual themselves. Even when there is no direct praise from other individuals, there must be some kind of social norm in place that allows the individual to determine the achievement is in fact important and something they can be proud of (Tangney & Fisher, 1995) It was first established by Darwin (1872/1998) as being a basic emotion among humans and one that could be easily recognised in others through the non-verbal expressions that typify the emotion. These non-verbal cues (such as holding one's head high and standing tall) were later empirically tested and found to be easily recognised as being prideful by test subjects (Tracy & Robins, 2004).

Pride as a positive emotion serves a motivational purpose. People will persevere with a task if they feel it will give them pride upon completion, even if the task is not enjoyable. Pride is therefore inherently social in nature, even though it is only felt inwardly about the self (Soscia, 2013). Feeling pride indicates to an individual that they are doing something of value and should continue pursuing that activity (Williams & DeSteno, 2008). But how does this explain how people feel pride towards loved ones? Or how sport fans feel pride for their team's successes despite having no influence over the result? As this literature review has shown, pride is a way to reward the self for achievement. Lea & Webley (1997) explain how a person may reward themselves with the pride emotion if they have aligned themselves with a successful group. The success of the group is attributed to the self-identity. Loves ones, groups and even objects are among things people incorporate into their self-identity. The achievement of things is then able to be attributed to the self (Rosenblatt, 1988).

This phenomenon of pride as an incentive to continue an action or activity is of particular interest to marketers. Sack and Suster (2000) briefly touched on the role pride has in creating nationalist feelings towards the national football team in Croatia. It wasn't until Decrop and Derbaix (2010) investigated the role pride plays in sport consumption that the pride emotion was properly recognised in the literature. They found that fans were proud of a variety of three different sporting objects; the team, the player and the fan community. On top of this they also felt pride towards themselves as a fan. This pride was felt in regard to past achievements, as well as current achievements (Decrop & Derbaix, 2010). Pride in the wider community is also a motivation for supporting a team. As the team becomes a part of the

community identity it becomes a greater part of the self-identity of fans (Mahony, Nakazawa, Funk, James & Gladden, 2002).

### 2.6.4 Love

A person feels love towards another person due to their ability to fulfil needs and wants. Love is often enhanced by the knowledge that the subject of an individual's love feels this love in return. The person feeling love will feel more secure and self-confident when in the presence of their love object and will tend to be more optimistic in their evaluations. This separates it conceptually from joy, which is a more active emotion that does not deal with concepts of confidence and security (Shaver, Schwartz, Kirson & O'Connor, 1987). While love is an emotion that is usually discussed in interpersonal terms it has been of interest to researchers in the marketing sphere, and the literature has examined cases of consumers feeling love towards products and service experiences (Laros & Steenkamp, 2005). Richins (1987) included love in her base set of consumer emotions and separated it in terms of 'love' and 'romantic love'. The words used to describe love were less interpersonal (loving, sentimental and warm hearted) while words like sexy, romantic and passionate were used to describe romantic love in a consumption context. This was one of the first pieces of research to recognise the concept of love as important for marketers and it has since been found that love is one of the most common emotions consumers express towards objects (Schultz, Kleine & Kernan, 1989).

The concept of brand love has become a hot topic of research in the modern marketing literature. Brand love is defined as "the degree of passionate emotional attachment a satisfied consumer has for a particular trade name" (Carroll & Ahuvia, 2006 p.81). While this concept encompasses more than purely the 'love' emotion, research in this area has shed some light on consumer love and the differences it has with interpersonal love. Feelings of brand love are grounded in feelings of brand identification. Research has shown this is an important antecedent for brand love (Bergkvist & Bech-Larsen, 2010; Albert & Merunka, 2013). Brand love in turn leads to many of the same outcomes a phenomenon like positive satisfaction creates, loyalty and propensity to share positive WOM (Albert & Merunka, 2013; Ismail & Spinelli, 2012). In fact love has been empirically shown to be an antecedent to feelings of satisfaction (Prayag, Hosany & Odeh, 2013). Hedonic brands are much more likely to instil feelings of love in its consumers than other products (Carroll & Ahuvia, 2006). In interviews, consumers used concepts from interpersonal love to describe their love of a brand. The intensity of their love was usually much lower for brands and this love was more 'selfish' i.e.

consumers were not concerned with how they could help contribute and support the brand, which is a common feature of interpersonal love (Batra et al., 2012).

### 2.6.5 Happy

According to much of the emotion literature joy and happiness are basic emotions (Shaver et al., 1987; Storm & Storm, 1987). It is argued joy and happiness are conceptually similar, in that the both are caused by a positive event in a person's life (Jackson, 2000). This emotion can be triggered by a variety of events such as life goals being fulfilled or receiving social affection (Shaver et al., 1987). Happiness can manifest as two different types of emotion. It can be described as containing high arousal emotions like excitement, joy and enthusiasm or as a low arousal phenomenon where the emotions expressed are calmer (Mogilner, Aaker & Kamvar, 2012). Laros and Steenkamp (2005) argue that joy is a broad term that encapsulates three non-interpersonal emotions; contentment, happiness and pride. In this hierarchy of emotion, happiness describes a high arousal state that occurs reactively to an event. Contentment describes a passive, low arousal state that may occur independent of an event and pride describes a sense of accomplishment or superiority. This corroborates Storm and Storm's (1987) taxonomy of emotions which groups contentment, happiness and pride as the three major positive non-interpersonal emotions.

Storm and Storm (1987) also state that happiness can be a reaction to an event that has happened (in the past), is currently happening (in the present) or will happen (in the future). Lazarus (1991) argues that the term 'happiness' better describes the type of low intensity feeling of contentment that much of the literature calls 'contentment'. 'Joy' therefore should be used to describe intense, high involvement feelings akin to ecstasy or extreme gladness. However Lazarus (1991) also notes that the two terms are relatively synonymous. For the purposes of this research, it is clear that the reactive, high arousal emotion is more relevant as that is what is felt by sports fans when watching their team win. Much of the sporting literature uses both 'happy' and 'joy' terms to describe this emotion (Madrigal, 1995; Wann & Branscombe, 1992). This research will use the term happiness to describe this feeling, in accordance with Laros & Steenkamp's (2005) conceptualisation of happiness and joy.

### 2.6.6 Sadness

Sadness is a negative emotion and defined by Lazarus (1991) as being caused by an irreversible loss of a relationship or commitment that the person viewed as important. The cause of this loss is often unquantifiable. If the individual is able to blame an external cause

for the loss of a valued commitment, it would become anger. If they have themselves to blame then it is guilt and shame. In the case of sadness there is no direction for which blame can be meted out and so the individual is helpless and can only feel sad for what has been lost. Lazarus (1991) mentions that anger and sadness can go hand in hand as the individual shifts blame wildly in the short term aftermath of the incident. However in the long term the anger gives way to sadness as the individual comes to terms with what has happened and begins grieving for their loss. Sadness is primarily reactive in nature and can be dealt with in a couple of different ways. Problem-focused coping describes behaviour from an individual that attempts to alter the cause of their sadness. Emotional coping describes a response to sadness that is less about concrete behaviours and focusses on avoiding the problem by changing the way it is thought about. Denial, avoidance or framing the problem are ways in which a person may shift their thinking in an attempt to deal with the problem. This process can lead to a variety of emotions in combination with sadness (Bagozzi et al., 1999). It can be compared to fear in that sadness is often the result of a fear that has been realised (Shaver et al., 1987).

In consumption emotion literature, sadness is related to incongruence between what the product delivers and the goal that the consumer wishes to achieve (Soscia, 2007). Bagozzi et al. (1999) describe this as an outcome-desire conflict. When sadness is felt by the consumer they are more likely to spread negative word of mouth about their experience and are far less likely to repurchase the product (Soscia, 2007). In contrast to this, sadness can be advantageous to marketers. Those feeling sadness unrelated to factors of consumption are likely to increase their consumption behaviours as way to cope with their emotional state (Lerner, Small & Loewenstein, 2004; Garg, Wansink & Inman, 2007).

### 2.6.7 Anger

Anger is seen by most research as a basic emotion (Laros & Steenkamp, 2005). It occurs when something “interferes with the person's execution of plans or attainment of goals” (Shaver et al., 1987 p. 1077). It may also be caused by direct physical or psychological harm being inflicted on the individual by another person or object. Anger is almost always targeted at an external object rather than the individual itself (Storm & Storm, 1987). One of these factors combined with the idea of the individual perceiving the interference or harm that what is happening is unjustified creates the emotion of anger. This anger, spurred on by a feeling of injustice, often motivates the individual into drastic behaviours. While avoidance behaviour sometimes will occur (particularly in the face of physical pain) the more common

reaction is proactive. Violence towards the source of the anger or other responses designed to restore justice and rectify the situation at hand are usual behaviours when a person is angry (Shaver, Schwartz, Kirson & O'Connor, 1987).

The anger emotion has been one of interest in the consumer satisfaction literature. The consumer literature has defined anger in a way similar to the psychology literature, emphasising that unfair or harmful experiences create anger (Funches, 2011). In their study of anger as an antecedent to satisfaction, Bougie, Pieters & Zeelenberg (2003) split the responses to anger into five categories. These categories were: feelings, thoughts, action tendencies, actions and emotivational goals. It was found that while people would commonly have thoughts, feelings and action tendencies to do something violent, their actions would be more measured and they may instead choose to simply verbalise their anger. This may satisfy enough of their emotivational goal of getting back at someone without taking it a step further and causing harm to the object of their anger. It was posited by Menon and Dube (2004) that this comes down to how a consumer judges the negative experience (how egregious the fault is with the product and who caused it) and how the customer is able to cope with the event physically and emotionally (can they fix the fault themselves, how has this made them feel). The regularity at which the negative experiences create anger also influences the response. If the cause of the problem is seen to be 'stable' and well in control of the service provider then the anger will be at a higher level (Folkes, Koletsky & Graham, 1987). Overall anger has been shown to be conceptually distinct from the concept of satisfaction and is instead an antecedent of satisfaction (Gelbrich, 2010).

## 2.7 Satisfaction

In the marketing literature marketing is described as the "consumer's fulfillment response. It is a judgment that the product or service feature, or the product or service itself, provided (or is providing) a pleasurable level of consumption-related fulfillment, including levels under- or overfulfillment" (Oliver, 1997, p. 13). This concept is considered to have two dimensions, cognitive and affective (Oliver, 1993). The cognitive element of satisfaction is the consumer's utilitarian judgement on the quality aspects of the product and the experience of interacting with the product (Mano & Oliver, 1993). It's a judgement that is usually influenced by quality of service/need fulfilment on the part of the service provider in question (Oliver, 1993). The source of this perceived quality can come from multiple factors including emotional outcomes of the purchase (Jones & Suh, 2000). The level to which a consumer

feels satisfied/dissatisfied depends on how their experience with the product confirmed/disconfirmed their pre-purchase expectations (Oliver, 1980).

The cognitive judgement is combined with a hedonic judgement. This hedonic judgement deals with the emotional factors influencing satisfaction. While some research has argued that emotion is a response to the judgement of the product (Madrigal, 1995) much of the literature argues that these emotional factors are an antecedent to the consumers overall satisfaction judgement (Westbrook & Oliver, 1991; Mano & Oliver, 1993; Gelbrich, 2010). Negative emotions (such as anger and disgust) and positive emotions (joy) caused by consumption are related to level of satisfaction (Westbrook, 1987; Westbrook & Oliver, 1991; Soderlund & Rosengren, 2004). Oliver (1993) expanded on the affective aspect by finding there were three negative affect factors driving dissatisfaction. These factors of negative emotion were categorised as internal (shame and guilt), external (anger, disgust and contempt) and situational (sadness and fear). Feeling these emotions depended on what aspect of the product caused the dissatisfaction. If the provider of the product was the cause, then the external emotions would be felt. However if the user was unhappy with themselves after the purchase then they may feel the internal emotions. Happiness, delight and excitement are some of the positive emotions used to predict satisfaction (Westbrook & Oliver, 1991). Soscia (2007) also argues that concepts of satisfaction and emotion are one in the same, incorporating dissatisfaction and satisfaction into measures of sadness and happiness respectively. These emotions were caused by goal congruence/incongruence between the consumption experience and the goals the consumer wishes to accomplish. Soscia (2007) noted that this goal congruence/incongruence is similar to the confirmation/disconfirmation paradigm used to explain consumer satisfaction. Therefore it is clear from this literature that any research on satisfaction should consider a range of emotional responses and should not be restricted to measurement of a broad positive/negative affect phenomenon.

### 2.7.1 Transaction specific vs overall satisfaction

Satisfaction can be felt on a short term transaction-specific basis and on an overall, long term basis (Jones & Suh, 2000; Roest & Pieters, 1997). Consumers use transaction specific satisfaction to make an assessment on their overall satisfaction with the particular product, firm or organisation (Bitner & Hubbert, 1994). This overall satisfaction is updated as more transactions take place and influences the level a consumer feels transaction specific satisfaction in the future (Boulding et al, 1993). Neither transaction specific nor overall satisfaction completely predicts the other as transaction specific satisfaction is still dependent

on the experience of using the product in the short term (Parasuraman, Zeithaml, & Berry, 1994). For example a consumer may receive poor service at their favourite restaurant, resulting in low transactional satisfaction, but due to their previous high standard of service still maintain high overall satisfaction with the restaurant. In the context of this research, overall satisfaction is being measured because fans during the World Cup are being exposed to several transactions (matches). Measuring overall satisfaction and comparing it to constructs like attachment has been utilised in previous literature (Prayag & Ryan, 2012).

### 2.7.2 Satisfaction in the sporting context

There have been several attempts by sport marketing researchers to model antecedents and consequences of satisfaction. Madrigal (1995) was one of the first to investigate sport consumer satisfaction and found identification with team and emotional enjoyment led to satisfaction among sports fans. Affective phenomenon such as BIRGing contributed to this satisfaction. Level of excitement has also been shown to elicit greater satisfaction among fans (Wakefield & Blodgett, 1994). Kuenzel and Yassim (2007) found that joy was an antecedent to positive satisfaction judgements of a cricket match. This research particularly noted how important the measurement of emotional factors was in any research of satisfaction in the sport literature due to the hedonic nature of sport consumption.

According to Van Leeuwen, Quick and Daniel's (2002) Sport Spectator Satisfaction Model (SSSM) satisfaction is heavily reliant on the performance of the sports team i.e. whether they win or lose. When a team wins/loses it has a direct effect on the emotional reaction of a fan (Wann, Dolan, McGeorge & Allison, 1994), although the SSSM does not explicitly incorporate affective elements into its model. Other factors outside of the result also have an effect on satisfaction at live sport events such as quality of facilities (Theodorakis, Kambitsis, Laios & Koustelios, 2001). Trail, Anderson and Fink (2005) incorporated mood valence into their model as an antecedent of satisfaction. According to their model, mood changes were caused by a sport fans expectation for a sporting event being either confirmed or disconfirmed. This led to satisfaction and subsequently, loyalty. Loyalty as an outcome for satisfaction has been looked at mostly in terms of willingness to attend live sport events (Laverie & Arnett, 2000; Trail, Anderson & Fink, 2005).

### 2.7.3 Attachment satisfaction link

It is argued in the job attachment and satisfaction literature that when comparing the two constructs, satisfaction is a more temporary concept. While satisfaction is a good measure of

how someone likes a job, attachment may be better at predicting whether an employee is likely to switch to a different job if properly enticed (Koch & Steers, 1978). I.e. a consumer may be happy and satisfied with their experiences but if this satisfaction has not caused the person to become attached, they are more likely to exhibit switching behaviour. They lack the loyalty that universally comes with high levels of attachment (Lee, 2003).

The place attachment literature has been particularly interested in the relationship between the attachment and satisfaction concepts. Satisfaction has been found to lead to place attachment (Lee & Allen, 1999; Brocato, 2006). These papers deal mostly with holiday makers going to desirable locations, perhaps for the first time. In these instances it is often not possible for attachment to be felt before satisfaction because these consumers are interacting with a place for a brief period of time. The satisfaction these consumers are likely feeling is transaction-specific, so must be felt before becoming attached to the place. However portions of the place attachment literature have argued that place attachment is not an outcome of satisfaction, but an antecedent (Ramikissoon et al 2013; Hwang et al., 2005 & Yuksel et al, 2010). Ramkissoon & Mavondo (2015) present this debate and find in their empirical work that satisfaction is an antecedent to attachment.

Attachment has been shown to lead to satisfaction in other studies. One example of this is a study of community members and local government. It was found that attachment to the community led to satisfaction with the work being done by the local government (Scott & Vitardas, 2008). Similarly, it has been found that length of stay in a residential community led to attachment, which in turn led to satisfaction with the community (Fleury-Bahi, Felonneau & Marchand, 2008). A sample of recreational anglers on American lakes also found that attachment predicted satisfaction. Many of those sampled had previously been to the area (Wickham, 2001). This would suggest that those in a more long term relationship with a place will have developed an attachment. From this research we can say that when first introduced to a place, satisfaction builds and this causes attachment. This feeling of attachment then causes a consumer to be more satisfied with various aspects of the object of their attachment, creating a feedback loop.

## 2.8 Event attachment

Event attachment is a concept that has not been researched extensively. It has primarily been studied in the sport marketing literature in the context of sporting participants. Filo et al.

(2010) investigated the link between event attachment and motives for participation in a charity sport event. It was found that participants event attachment had three factors; functional, emotional and symbolic per Funk & James' (2006) conceptualisation of attachment. Filo et al. (2014) researched participants of a charity sport event. The link between motivation and attachment was established, with the main participation motives being grouped into three categories; camaraderie, cause and competency. Both of these studies used an adapted PCM framework and survey items to measure the event attachment concept. Filo et al. (2010) were the first to practically apply the PCM framework after it was conceptualised by Funk and James (2006). They created a nine item scale (three items each for the functional, emotional and symbolic aspect of event attachment) to measure the construct. Filo et al. (2014) modified this scale to contain only six items and incorporate literature on activity attachment (Alexandris, Funk & Pritchard, 2011) and involvement (Dimanche et al., 1991). Activity attachment and involvement are conceptually similar to event attachment. 'Activity' attachment refers to the act of participation, independent of the event surrounding it. There may not even be a formally organised event surrounding the sport activity as in the case of Alexandris et al. (2011) who studied skiers recreationally participating in the activity. Perhaps the most comprehensive model of event attachment came from the festival event context. It was found that satisfaction with the music festival was an important antecedent to attachment to the place of the festival. This in turn led to behavioural loyalty manifesting through word of mouth, intention to revisit and destination preference (Lee, et al., 2012).

Sporting events have also been investigated in terms of event attachment, but through a concept called 'event support'. Mega-events such as the FIFA World Cup and the Olympic games have been of particular interest to researchers (Kaplanidou et al., 2013; Zhou & Ap, 2009). Overall attitude among London residents before the 2012 Olympic Games was a significant predictor of resident support (Prayag, et al., 2013). This overall attitude towards the games included environmental and economic factors, but also potential entertainment factors brought about by the event. This would support the event attachment literature, which models a satisfaction/attitudinal aspect as an antecedent to event attachment. A study of the 2008 Olympic Games found that residents could be categorised into two groups according to their opinions of the event, those who were 'embracers' and those who were 'tolerators' (Zhou & Ap, 2009). Embracers were obviously more receptive and involved with the event, whereas tolerators were more likely to have a negative opinion. Actual attendance of the

event influences perception of the event, usually in a positive manner, but the effect is only small. Their perceptions of the event also time also changed, with peaks in event approval occurring at the beginning and six months after the event concluded. Immediately after the event was the lowest point for event support, though reasons for this phenomenon were not formally investigated (Li, Hsu & Lawton, 2015). Positive or negative publicity also has an effect on perceptions of the event and behaviour (Chien, Ritchie, Shipway & Henderson, 2011). Overall the resident support literature is focussed on those who are living in the area where the event is happening. This is less useful in the context of this research as the event does not have a particularly localised area where it is taking place (matches are being held throughout the UK) and this research is focussed on All Blacks fans, which are localised in New Zealand and not the UK. The above literature is useful for informing the research on how consumers think about events over time and the different ways in which they do so.

## 2.9 Literature gap

From this literature review we can observe some key gaps in the current research that this project will look to address. The concept of event attachment is one that has been under researched in the literature. In the sporting literature it has only been investigated in regards to sport participation and not among those watching. A deeper investigation into the antecedents of event attachment is also required. Specific participation motives have been found to be antecedents, as well as the concept of satisfaction as it pertains to a local music festival. However in this research the event was the product being directly consumed by the participant. In the sport consumption context, the event itself is secondary to what many sports consumers are truly interested in and that is the performance of their sports team. The performance of the team they support is independent of the event but could have an effect on their perceptions of the quality and importance of the event.

In the attachment literature, particularly in the sport context, there is a lack of research that explicitly investigates discrete emotions in an attempt to investigate the specific emotions that make up the construct. This is a glaring flaw in the sports marketing literature considering attachment in inherently affective in nature. Much of the research in the area has looked at one emotion specifically or used measures of emotional valence. Looking at discrete emotions of a negative and positive nature will shed some light on what kind of emotions consumers feel that can lead to attachment and therefore open up further research into what specific aspects of sport consumption that creates such emotion. The focus of the sport

literature has been on fans attending one-off sport matches or on the fans total life experience a consumer has with a team. Studies of attachment or emotion over the course of sporting mega-events such as the Olympics or the various sporting world cups have not been conducted.

While the literature review above has uncovered links between a variety of the constructs discussed, there has not been an attempt to connect these concepts into a cohesive model.

## 2.10 Proposed conceptual model and hypotheses

The conceptual model has been created using the literature laid out in the literature review. It is presents in figure 2 below

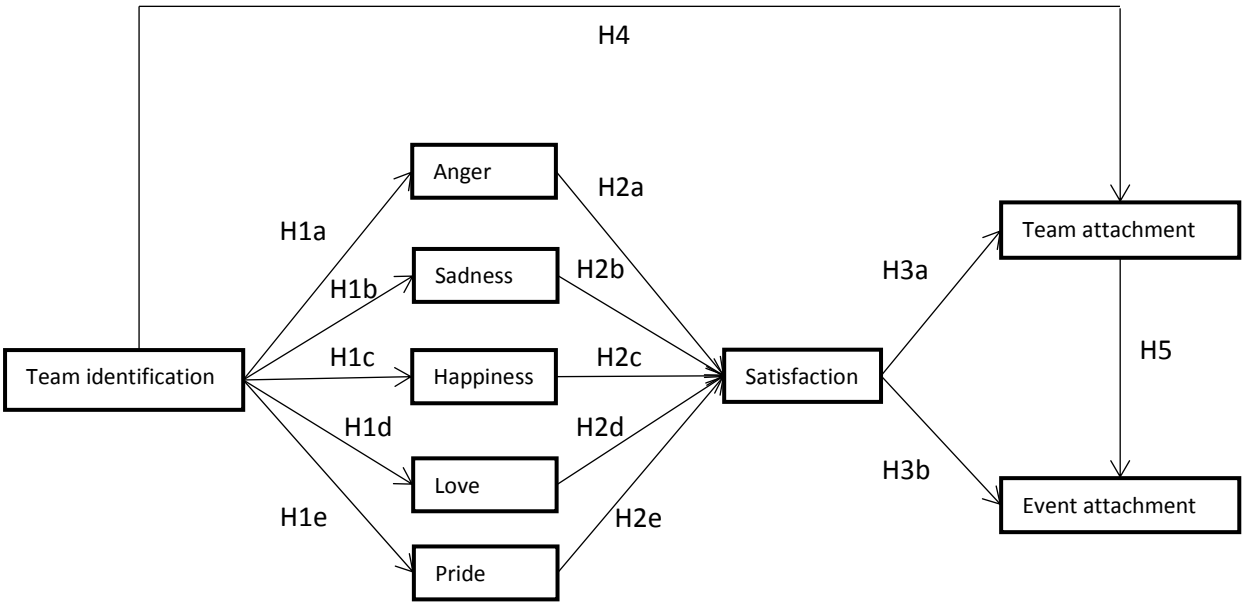


**Figure 2:** Proposed Conceptual Model

## 2.11 Research hypothesis

The hypothesised model shows team identification predicting five discrete emotions (anger, sadness, happiness, love and pride). Social identity theory incorporates factors of emotion and attachment (Tajfel, 1981). As the literature review showed, some research has been carried out in the sport fan context showing that levels of identification raises the level of emotional response towards stimuli related to the object of their identification (Hirt, Zillman, Erickson & Kennedy, 1992; Wann & Branscombe, 1992; Wann, Royalty & Rochelle, 2002; Wann, 2006). Much of this research focuses on emotional valence; however this research will look at five discrete emotions (anger, sadness, love, happiness and pride). This research predicts that highly identified fans will feel both the positive discrete emotions (happiness, love, pride) and the negative discrete emotions (anger and sadness) to a more intense level than those who are less identified. While the relationship between positive emotion and identification is obvious and is supported by literature (Wann et al. 2002; Wann, 2006), it seems negative emotions are also felt to a higher degree by fans strongly identified to a sports team (Wann et al. 1994). These highly identified fans are less likely to CORF in the face of a defeat for the team, instead feeling the negative emotions associated with a loss to a high level. Low or non-identified fans of the team will instead trivialise the loss, reducing the

effects it has on their emotions and self-esteem (Wann & Branscombe, 1990; Bizman & Yinon, 2002; Madrigal 2003). This is due to highly identified fans feeling that the success of their team is an important goal for their consumption experience to meet. If this goal is not met then fans will react with intense negative emotions. Those that do not feel such a strong identification to a team are likely consuming sports to achieve other goals such as social needs. These goals are not as dependent on the team (Madrigal, 2003). The five emotions have been chosen based on basic emotions commonly associated with general marketing consumption (Bagozzi et al.; Laros & Steenkamp, 2005; Richins, 1987) as well as the emotions recognised in literature as being outcomes of identification. Specifically these are, happiness (Wann, Royalty & Rochelle, 2002; Wann, 2006; Branscombe & Wann, 1991; Wann et al 1994), love (Carroll & Ahuvia, 2006), pride (Decrop & Derbaix, 2010; Mahony, et al., 2002), anger (Wann, 2006; Wann, Haynes, Mclean & Pullen, 2003) and sadness (Wann & Branscombe, 1992).

Hypothesis one: Team identification and emotion

H1a: Team identification with the All Blacks will be positively related to the level to which a fan feels angry
H1b: Team identification with the All Blacks will be positively related to the level to which a fan feels sad
H1c: Team identification with the All Blacks will be positively related to the level to which a fan feels happiness
H1d: Team identification with the All Blacks will be positively related to the level to which a fan feels love
H1e: Team identification with the All Blacks will be positively related to the level to which a fan feels pride

Hypothesis two: Emotion and satisfaction

The two concepts are linked closely in the literature, with the very definition of satisfaction incorporating emotional elements (Oliver, 1997). However, most measures of satisfaction focus on the cognitive, attitudinal sides of the construct. As a result emotions and satisfaction will be measured separately, with emotions leading to satisfaction according to the conceptualisation of satisfaction with emotions as antecedent to satisfaction as presented by

multiple examples in the literature (Mano & Oliver, 1993; Gelbrich, 2010; Westbrook & Oliver, 1991; Emmons & Diender, 1985).

*H2a: The level of anger felt towards the All Blacks will be negative related to the level of satisfaction felt towards the All Blacks and the 2015 Rugby World Cup*

Anger is closely linked with judgements of dissatisfaction with both of the two concepts often being felt by consumers when they are exposed to a bad consumption experience (Soscia, 2013). Empirical research has shown that the relationship between the two constructs is present (Bougie, et al., 2003; Gelbrich, 2010). As a result this research predicts that anger will predict dissastisfaction, creating a negative relationship between the two constructs in the proposed model.

*H2b: The level of sadness felt towards the All Blacks will be negatively related to the level of satisfaction felt towards the All Blacks and the 2015 Rugby World Cup*

Previous research has shown that sadness and satisfaction are negatively related (Westbrook & Oliver, 1991; Oliver, 1993). Sadness as an emotion has been measured previously in the sports literature and associated with sport spectatorship (Bal, Quester & Plewa, 2011). Sadness as an emotion is generally caused by the loss of something important to an individual. In the All Blacks fan context the primary cause of sadness would be an All Blacks defeat.

H2c: *The level of happiness felt towards the All Blacks will be positively related to the level of satisfaction felt towards the All Blacks and the 2015 Rugby World Cup*

Happiness has been shown in previous research to be linked to satisfaction (Kuenzel & Yassim, 2007; Soderlund & Rosengren, 2004; Westbrook & Oliver, 1991). In fact some literature has argued that satisfaction is a less intense version of happiness (Soscia, 2013). Prayag, Hosany & Odeh (2013) empirically showed that happiness (joy) is an antecedent to satisfaction in the tourist context. Based on this literature it is hypothesised in this study that happiness will predict satisfaction.

*H2d: The level of love felt towards the All Blacks will be positively related to level of satisfaction felt towards the All Blacks and the 2015 Rugby World Cup*

Research in areas of brand love and satisfaction has found that the love emotion and satisfaction are related (Prayag, Hosany & Odeh, 2013; Albert, Merunka & Valette-Florence,

2008). The concepts of brand love and satisfaction share similar behavioural outcomes (Albert & Merunka, 2013). The current study hypothesises that brand love will predict satisfaction.

*H2e: The level of pride felt towards the All Blacks will be positively related to the level of satisfaction felt towards the All Blacks and the 2015 Rugby World Cup*

Pride has been shown to be a predictor of satisfaction in marketing (Louro, Pieters & Zeelenberg, 2005) and management literature (Arnett, Laverie & Mclane, 2002). The current research predicts that pride will be an antecedent to satisfaction based on this literature and the various literature indicating that positive emotions such as pride (Laros & Steenkamp, 2005) predicts satisfaction (Mano & Oliver, 1993; Gelbrich, 2010; Westbrook & Oliver, 1991; Emmons & Diener, 1985).

Hypothesis three: Satisfaction and attachment

While the sport marketing literature has focused on investigating this relationship, research in the wider marketing area suggests there is a direct link between these two constructs. As noted in the literature review, the tourism literature tends to discuss satisfaction as an antecedent to place attachment (Lee & Allen, 1999; Brocato, 2006; Ramkissoon & Mavondo, 2015; Petrick, Backman & Bixler, 1999). Satisfaction within an individual tends to be felt over the short term whereas attachment describes a connection to an object over a longer time period. Thus it is hypothesised here that satisfaction among fans in the short term will lead to attachment creation to the team.

*H3a: Satisfaction with the team and event will be positively related to attachment to the All Blacks team*
*H3b: Satisfaction with the team and event will be positively related attachment to the 2015 Rugby World Cup event*

Hypothesis four: Team identification and team attachment

Previous research shows that these two concepts are related to each other (Hernandez et al, 2007; Rollero & Piccoli, 2010; Sen et al., 2015). In this research it is hypothesised that team identification will be a direct antecedent to team attachment. This hypothesis is based off of previous empirical work showing this direct link in the sport sponsorship (Chavanat, Martinet & Ferrand, 2009) and tourism (Lee et al., 2012) literature. Additionally, Funk & James's

(2006) revised PCM incorporates social factors and 'individuation' into the fan relationship processes prior to the development of attachment. While these factors are not explicitly expressed as the concept of identification these social identity motives are similar to marketing conceptualisations of identification by previous literature (e.g. Hernandez et al, 2007).

*H4: Identification to the All Blacks team will be positively related to attachment to the All Blacks team*

Hypothesis five: Attachment to team and to event

The final hypothesis predicts there will be a positive relationship between team attachment and event attachment. While literature on event attachment is thin on the ground it is hypothesised that team attachment will predict event attachment based off of sport even literature. For example those with high identification with a team are more likely to be motived to attend a match (Wann, Bayens & Driver, 2004). Consumer need for vicarious achievement through sport has also predicted event attendance behaviour, particularly among the most successful teams (Won & Kitamura, 2006). Team attachment itself has also been empirically shown to be a predictor of frequency of event attendance (Mahony et al, 2002). While consumers in this research will not be attending events live, they will still be interacting with the event through television, radio and the internet. This research will test to see if fans develop attachment to the event through supporting their favourite team at the event.

*H5: Attachment to the All Blacks team will be positively related to attachment to the 2015 Rugby World Cup event*

## 2.12 Chapter summary

This chapter introduced the research background and purpose, before discussing the theoretical background of the constructs being examined. Team identification was discussed through the paradigm of social-identity theory, the psychological background to marketing study on the subject. The discrete emotions of happiness, love, pride, anger and sadness were then defined and their common antecedents and outcomes were discussed. The satisfaction literature was discussed and related to the attachment literature which was also discussed in depth. Finally the concept of event attachment was discussed. Using this literature a

conceptual model was proposed and the hypotheses justified using evidence from previous research.

# Methodology

## 3.1 Methodology Introduction

This chapter describes the research methodology used to test the hypotheses discussed in the previous chapter. The development of the survey will be discussed and its elements justified. The results of a control survey carried out before the 2015 Rugby World Cup will also be discussed and how the reliability statistics gathered from this survey effected the construction of the final survey. Lastly, the method in which the survey was distributed to All Blacks fans will be discussed.

## 3.2 Research context

To understand the context of the research and the data collected it is important to describe the Rugby World Cup event and the All Blacks. The Rugby World Cup is a quadrennial tournament hosting the top rugby teams in the world. Beginning in 1987, the Rugby World Cup has grown in importance with 20 teams participating in the most recent iteration in England. The format of the tournament splits these 20 teams into four 'pools', with the five teams in each pool playing each other once in a round robin format. The two most successful teams from each of these pools move onto an elimination bracket of eight teams where quarter-finals, semi-finals and final are played to determine the overall tournament winner. The event began on the 18$^{th}$ of September with the All Blacks playing their first match on the 20$^{th}$ against Argentina, a close match that the All Blacks won 26-16. New Zealand then swept the rest of their pool, earning easy victories over the heavy underdogs of Namibia, Georgia and Tonga. This led to a quarter-final match for the All Blacks against France which New Zealand won easily with a score of 62-13. The All Blacks moved onto the semi-finals against South Africa where they played an extremely close game that was decided in the final minutes in favour of New Zealand, meaning the All Blacks progressed to the final to play Australia. The All Blacks were the favourite to win before the match, with Australia the underdogs. This prediction proved true with New Zealand winning the expected victory 34-17 and winning their third World Cup.

## 3.3 Research design

The research design most appropriate for investigating the hypotheses described in the previous chapter is a descriptive research methodology. Descriptive research is defined by Riazi (2016) "a label given to those studies which aim at describing a social phenomenon by describing the relationship among variables in a target population" (p, 88). While descriptive research can be carried out qualitatively through methods such as case study, these methods are not appropriate when attempting to research the attitudes of a large population such as the All Blacks fan base. Therefore the data will be collected quantitatively through surveys. Descriptive research such as this is useful for determining the relationship among variables (Brown & Suter, 2011) which is the goal of this research.

## 3.4 Questionnaire development

All items in the survey have been contextualised in a way in which the respondent should only respond with their attitudes towards the All Blacks in terms of the ongoing 2015 Rugby World Cup. This was to eliminate potential biases that long term fans may have from their prior relationship with the All Blacks. While this prior history is important in creating identification with the team, this is outside the scope of the research. Making all the data restricted to attitudes during the Rugby World Cup gives us greater control of the causes of the attitudes. For example if someone feels attached to the All Blacks because they began watching them twenty years ago, they will represent their high attachment as such despite not having watched the World Cup. This makes it difficult for us to quantify and generalise the determinants of attachment, which this study aims to do.

### 3.4.1 Survey format

The survey was spilt into seven different sections. The screening questions were asked first, with failure to meet the required criteria preventing the respondent from continuing the questionnaire. Following this, separate sections on team identification, emotion, satisfaction, attachment to team and attachment to event were presented to the respondent, with the respondent having the ability to discontinue their involvement with the survey at any time without penalty. Finally some demographic questions were asked; though no personal data was gathered thus allowing the respondent to maintain their anonymity. Each scale used a 5-point Likert scale.

### 3.4.2 Screening questions

To ensure all survey respondents are fans of the All Blacks and have awareness of the 2015 Rugby World Cup, screening questions were created. This ensures that all of the data collected will be relevant and non-fan respondents are unable to fill in the survey and give a series of low scores for all our measures. It is hoped however that those individuals who are fans, but are not as connected to the team as die-hard fans are still able to contribute to the survey to give a more balanced perspective on attachment. Screening out non-fans is a common part of the sport marketing literature where much of the data collection takes place at live events where attendance implies a certain level of interest in the sport objects on display. In other studies the survey has asked the respondent to self-identify their favourite team and answer the survey questions based on their attitudes towards the team they identify. This makes it more likely that the respondent is a fan.

The screening questions are as follows and were measured on a five point Likert scale.

*How interested are you in the All Blacks Rugby Team? Not at all interested – Very interested*
*How much did you follow the 2015 Rugby World Cup in England? Not at all – Very much*

Users rating their attitude as a two or below were not allowed to continue further. The respondents who rated their attitudes to both questions as being three or above on the Likert scale were allowed to continue. This allowed both die-hard fans as well as those who perhaps had a more passing interest to participate. It was expected that this lower level of interest would be more common during the start of the tournament while the All Blacks played a series of lower skilled teams during the group stage of the Rugby World Cup.

### 3.4.3 Identification measures

Team identification is measured as a unidimensional construct in every popular scale used in the literature. This is despite recognition in the literature that it is most likely multidimensional in nature (Kim & Kim, 2009). One of the two most common measures of team identification is Wann and Branscombe's (1993) Sport Spectator Identification Scale (SSIS). This scale contains seven items measuring an individual's identification towards a team. It has been criticised for measuring the cognitive concept of identification with items that are affective or behavioural in nature (Kwon & Armstrong, 2004). The second measure, the Psychological Commitment to Team scale (PCT) was created by Mahony, Madrigal and Howard (2000) is a 14 item scale that was created to measure commitment. It has been shown

that both scales are highly correlated and are measuring the same construct (Wann & Pierce, 2003).

After considering both scales it was decided that Wann and Branscombe's (1993) Sport Spectator Identification Scale (SSIS) would be more suitable for this research. This seven item scale has been used across the sporting literature to measure team identification and despite some attempts from other research to create competing measures such as the PCT (Mahony, Madrigal & Howard, 2000), the SSIS remains the most popular measure of the construct. Due to the fact that this research is measuring a variety of constructs, the value of SSIS being its cognitive aspects that allows this study to clearly identify the cognitive-affective aspects of sport fans behaviours. As such using this cognitive scale for identification and the discrete emotions allow clearer relationships between team identification, emotions and attachment to be identified. The seven items of the SSIS were adapted for the context and can been seen in Table 1. Note that item six was a reverse coded item in the original SSIS scale, but in this research the item has been modified from "How much do you *hate* the All Blacks closest rivals" to "How much do you *like* the All Blacks closest rivals". This was done to make the scale consistent for participants and to make the data easier to analyse.

| **Item codes** | **SSIS items** | **Range of response options** |
|---|---|---|
| ID1 | How important to you is it that the All Blacks win? | Not at all important – Very important |
| ID2 | How strongly do you see yourself as a fan of the All Blacks? | Not at all a fan- Very much a fan |
| ID3 | How strongly do your friends see you as a fan of the All Blacks? | Not at all a fan- Very much a fan |
| ID4 | During the Rugby World Cup, how closely did you follow the All Blacks via ANY of the following?: in person, on television, on the radio, on television news or newspaper | Never – Almost everyday |
| ID5 | How important is being a fan of the All Blacks to you? | Not at all important – Very important |

| | | |
|---|---|---|
| ID6 | How much do you like the All Blacks closest rivals? | Not at all like – Like very much |
| ID7 | How often do YOU display the All Blacks name or insignia at your place of work, where you live, or on your clothing? | Never - Always |

**Table 1**: Modified Sport Spectator Identification Scale Survey Items

### 3.4.4 Emotions

The basis for the discrete emotions being measured in the survey comes from Laros & Steenkamp's (2005) research on basic emotions. In it they identify four basic negative emotions and four basic positive emotions as subordinates to the two umbrella terms 'negative affect' and 'positive affect'. The four negative words were: Anger, fear, sadness and shame. The four positive words were contentment, happiness, love and pride. For this research, anger and sadness were chosen to represent negative affect. The concept of rage, anger and frustration are already well established in the wider consumer behaviour research as well as the sport consumer literature (e.g .Gelbrich, 2010; Grove, Pickett, Jones & Dorsch, 2012; Soscia, 2013, Van Steenburg, Spears & Fabrize, 2013). It's an emotion caused by the prevention of goals achievement or the feeling of an injustice having occurred (Shaver, Schwartz, Kirson & O'Connor, 1987). In the case of sports, a failure to achieve goals may be realised when a team loses and feelings of injustice could be caused by fans perceiving 'dirty' unfair play from the other team or bad officiating (Wann, Melnick, Russell & Pease, 2001). With anger making up such a part of the sports fans emotional response to games, it should be measured by this research (Zillman & Paulus, 1992). The other negative basic emotion being measured in this survey is sadness. Where anger is a highly arousing emotion that is usually felt in the short term and commonly paired with strong physical reactions, sadness is less arousing and characterised by feelings of grief and loss (Shields, 1984). It is usually felt when something of value is permanently lost (Lazarus, 1991). In this context the All Blacks may be eliminated from the competition if they lose a match. It is hypothesised that the permanence of this loss will create feelings of sadness among the fan base, so this will also be measured.

The discrete positive emotions being measured in this survey will be happiness, love and pride. Happiness is being measured as it reflects the positive high arousal emotion sport fans feel after a positive experience. Joy has already been shown to be a significant predictor of

satisfaction in the sporting context (Biscaia, Correia, Rosado, Maroco & Ross, 2012) and should therefore be included in a conceptual model representing emotion and satisfaction. Love will also be measured by the survey. This is to allow the model to capture deeper feeling of connection fans feel towards the All Blacks. While they may feel joy in the immediate aftermath of an exciting victory, they may also feel feelings of confidence and security in the performance of the All Blacks due to the team's perennial dominance in the international rugby sphere as well as the passion fans feel. Finally pride will also be measured. Due to the fact that the All Blacks are a national team, it is expected that All Blacks fans will feel pride towards the team. Hope (2002) identified the fact that the All Blacks are so entwined in the national identity and conscience that feelings of pride towards the team are common, assuming the team is performing well. Pride should therefore also be measured.

To measure the discrete emotions, respondents were asked the level to which they felt the emotions listed in Table 2 towards the All Blacks during the World Cup. The subordinate emotions to the five main discrete emotions were drawn from Laros & Steenkamp's (2005) hierarchy of emotions. The was measured on a five point Likert-scale from 'Not at all' to 'Very much'. The discrete emotions (in bold) and the items used to measure them are presented in table 2.

| **Discrete emotion** | **Happiness** | **Love** | **Pride** | **Anger** | **Sadness** |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Items | Happy | Love | Pride | Angry | Sad |
| | Joy | Warm-hearted | | Irritated | Miserable |
| | Cheerful | Exuberant | | Frustrated | Depressed |
| | | Caring | | | |

**Table 2:** Table of Emotion Survey Items

### 3.4.5 Satisfaction

In the sporting literature, satisfaction has mainly been studied in the context of live attendance of sport events with an emphasis on service quality concepts and simplistic one-item measures of satisfaction (e.g. Theodorakis et al., 2001; Tsuji, Bennett & Zhang, 2007). Koo et al. (2009) separated satisfaction into three factors: functional, technical and

environmental. Functional elements incorporate the quality and ease of use of the event facilities. The environmental factor aspect of their model of satisfaction incorporates the environmental factors that go along with live attendance (atmosphere in stadium, aesthetics of stadium etc.). Both of these factors are not relevant to this research as they only relate to factors of a live service setting. This research is measuring the satisfaction of All Blacks fans within New Zealand towards the All Blacks and the World Cup happening in the UK, half a world away. Therefore the data collection must focus on the technical aspect of satisfaction towards sport, which focusses on the action on the field. Koo et al (2009) presented a four item scale measuring this that incorporates feelings towards team as well as to the overall quality of the tournament. One item was removed due to its similarity to S3 when applied to the context of the Rugby World Cup. The remaining three items have been adapted and presented below. They were administered using a five point Likert scale ranging from Strong Disagree to Strongly Agree.

| **Item codes** | **Scale of satisfaction items** |
|---|---|
| S1 | I am satisfied with the performance of the All Blacks team during the Rugby World Cup |
| S2 | I am satisfied with the All Blacks team effort during the Rugby World Cup |
| S3 | I am satisfied with the overall level of play at the Rugby World Cup |

**Table 3:** Satisfaction Survey Items

### 3.4.6 Attachment to team

The point of attachment scale (PAI) is a commonly used in the sporting literature (Kwon, Trail & Anderson, 2005; Robinson & Trail, 2005; Trail, Robinson, Dick & Gillentine, 2003; Woo, Trail, Kwon & Anderson, 2009), particularly in the American College sports context where factors such as the fans' attachment towards their school and local community may play a factor in their feelings and attitude towards sporting objects. The PAI however is usually used as a segmentation tool to compare different types of attachment across various sport objects (e.g. attachment to the team vs attachment to the sport) and the different motivations for consumption these fans have (e.g. sense of achievement vs the aesthetics of the game) (Robinson & Trail, 2005). In contrast to this Funk and James's (2006) revised Psychological Continuum Model (PCM) focusses on the progression of a person's level of

attachment and we can correlate this level of attachment to the extent the fan is satisfied. This measure of attachment has four dimensions; pleasure, centrality, sign and resistance to change. In the context of this research the resistance to change dimension of the PCM has been left out of the survey as switching allegiances is not realistic in a national team setting. However for future research it could be used in the usual club/franchise sport context.

The items created by Doyle, et al. (2013) for the measurement scale of attachment in the PCM are listed below. The respondents were asked to indicate their level of agreement or disagreement with the below statements on a 5 point, Strongly Disagree - Strongly Agree, Likert scale. A1-A3 measure the pleasure dimension, the A4-A6 measure centrality and A7-A9 measure the sign dimension.

| Item code | Attachment to team items |
|---|---|
| A1 | Watching the All Blacks is of the most satisfying things I do |
| A2 | I really enjoy watching All Blacks matches |
| A3 | Compared to other activities, watching the All Blacks is very interesting |
| A4 | I find a lot of my life is organised around following the All Blacks |
| A5 | A lot of my time is organised around following the All Blacks |
| A6 | Following the All Blacks has a central role in my life |
| A7 | Watching the All Blacks says a lot about who I am |
| A8 | You can tell a lot about a person by the team he/she follows |
| A9 | When I watch the All Blacks, I can really be myself |

**Table 4:** Adapted Psychological Continuum Model Survey Items

### 3.4.7 Attachment to event

As mentioned in the literature review, attempts to quantify event attachment have been limited to sport event participants. As a result there is no clear way to measure sports fans feelings of attachment towards an event, particularly among those living on the opposite side

of the globe to where the event is taking place as is the case in this research. As a consequence our survey includes an adaption of Filo et al's. (2014) event attachment items that they used to assess charity sport event participants. The respondents were asked to indicate their level of agreement or disagreement with the below statements on a five point Strongly Disagree- Strongly Agree Likert scale.

| Item codes | Event attachment items |
|---|---|
| EA1 | I possess a great deal of knowledge about the Rugby World Cup |
| EA2 | If I were to list everything I know about the Rugby World Cup, the list would be quite long |
| EA3 | The Rugby World Cup is important to me |
| EA4 | Watching the Rugby World Cup is very important to me |
| EA5 | You can tell a lot about a person by whether or not he or she watches the Rugby World Cup |
| EA6 | Watching the Rugby World Cup gives a glimpse of the type of person I am |

**Table 5:** Event Attachment Survey Items

### 3.4.8 Demographics and fan behaviour

The survey also includes questions of age, gender, income, education level and location. There are also questions regarding the length of time the respondent has been a fan of the All Blacks, how many All Blacks games the individual has watched during the 2015 Rugby World Cup and prior to the World Cup. Finally they are asked how many All Blacks games they have attended in the past year.

## 3.4 Pre-test method

To test the reliability of the various scales used to build the questionnaire a pre-test was carried out. The pre-test survey was distributed using a non-probability convenience sampling method. Using personal networks 48 people completed the survey in a face-to-face setting. It was decided to administer the survey face-to-face to allow the respondents to provide verbal feedback on issues of survey clarity and the contextualisation of the items. As a result the

survey was only administered in the city of Christchurch and therefore did not capture a wide sample of All Blacks fans. This pre-test survey was administered from September 1-September 10, before the 2015 Rugby World Cup began.

### 3.4.1 Pre-test results

48 responses to the initial survey were gained, however five were either incomplete or did not meet the threshold set by the screening questions, leaving 43 usable surveys. There were 15 female and 28 male responses with 37% of the sample between the ages of 18-25. The reliability statistics of each scale were strong with a Cronbach Alpha exceeding 0.7. The results for each scale are presented in the table below.

| Scale | Cronbach Alpha |
|---|---|
| **Team identification** | .849 |
| **Anger** | .855 |
| **Sadness** | .761 |
| **Love** | .859 |
| **Happiness** | .904 |
| **Team attachment** | .912 |
| Pleasure | .825 |
| Centrality | .932 |
| Sign | .716 |
| **Event attachment** | .887 |

**Table 6:** Pre-test Cronbach Alpha Scores

### 3.4.2 Pre-test outcomes

From the pre-test some aspects of the questionnaire laid out above were modified. The SSIS items were found to be valid. However it was decided to change the emotions scale after respondent feedback. Some respondents were not clear on the definition of the word ‘exuberant’. While it statistically performed well, it was decided to replace the word with the similar, more common word ‘enthusiastic’. Additionally the ‘warm-hearted’ term was changed to ‘passionate’ as some respondents did not associate ‘warm-hearted’ feelings with the All Blacks.

There were also changes made to the attachment measures. Measurement of attachment under the PCM model has mainly been done in the sport participation context. Only recently has a scale for attachment been created for the spectator context. While the scale showed adequate

reliability, some respondents provided poor negative feedback to the scale. The three items measuring the pleasure construct were shown to be valid but changes had to be made to the centrality and sign dimensions. Due to the similarity between A4 and A5, A4 was deleted and A5 was changed to better limit the responses to the Rugby World Cup context. In the final survey A5 read: "A lot of my time is organised around following the All Blacks at the moment". This was to reflect the temporary nature of the Rugby World Cup experience. Fans were not likely to follow the All Blacks year round due to the fact they do not play regularly. However they did play extensively during the World Cup and this question better represents the short term behavioural changes that this may cause in fans, especially considering the matches are often played during the early morning (anywhere between 3am and 7am New Zealand time) due to the differences in time zone. For this reason A6 was also deleted as it does not match the behaviours of All Blacks fans. Verbal feedback showed that fans simply do not organise their life around All Blacks matches, because this is simply not necessary due to the fact that the All Blacks usually only play 10-11 matches per year. These long periods of inactivity make it difficult for a fan to make the All Blacks a central role in their life.

Therefore it was decided to remove the centrality aspect from the survey and adjust the scale to reflect only two factors: pleasure and sign. The only item measuring the centrality concept in the main survey was the modified A5 and this was moved to the pleasure sub scale. Due to the poor reliability of the sign subscale, A7 – A9 were also removed from the final survey. Due to this, 2 items were pulled from Tsiotsou's (2013) measure of team attachment. These items reflect the sign aspect of Attachment and are listed below:

A6: "I consider myself a loyal fan of the All Blacks"
A7: "Being a fan of the All Blacks is very important to me"

A final question was added as a part of the sign dimension to reflect the level of BIRGing a highly attached fan may feel towards the All Blacks. This is listed as A8 below. "If the All Blacks succeed I feel a sense of accomplishment"

Of the event attachment items, EA6 had to be deleted due to comments from pre-test subjects who felt the question was hard to understand and lacked relevance. EA1 was also deleted due to comments noting its similarity to EA2.

Satisfaction could not be measured in the pre-test as the World Cup had not started yet and therefore that aspect of the survey was not yet relevant. Testing the statistical validity of the scale would have therefore been difficult due to the recall bias fans would have experienced when remembering the 2011 World Cup. The data gathered from the satisfaction items relating to team performance would also have been invalid due to participants having different frames of reference for judging All Blacks matches. With the lack of All Blacks matches in the lead up to the World Cup, respondents would have been forced to recall judgements of satisfaction from a wide range of matches that may have been inconsistent compared to other responses. The usefulness of measuring satisfaction pre event was therefore low.

## 3.5 Ethical considerations

The final survey met the ethical standards set by the University of Canterbury Human Ethics Committee. In line with ethic committee guidelines the survey was prefaced with an information sheet describing the purpose of the study, what was required from the participants and the anonymous and secure nature of the data. A consent form was also enclosed confirming the participants understood the material in the information sheet. Participants were also asked to confirm that they were 18 years or older, as this was a condition of the Human Ethics Committee's approval of the research.

## 3.6 Survey population

The target population for this research are All Blacks fans living in New Zealand who are actively following the events of the 2015 Rugby World Cup. All ethnic groups and genders can be targeted. Respondents were all over the age of 18.

## 3.7 Survey distribution

To maximise the potential pool of respondents the main survey was distributed online. This was the easiest way to reach members of the fan base around the national and have the data properly reflect the national nature of All Blacks fans; this method is also much less costly in terms of both time and money (Wright, 2005). The survey was hosted on the Qualtrics.com website and the link was advertised primarily through social media channels, throughout the duration of the 2015 Rugby World Cup, which begun on September 18 2015. To allow fans a chance to develop attitudes on the All Blacks and the Rugby World Cup the survey only

began to be distributed on the 9th of October New Zealand time, the day before the All Blacks game against Tonga. At this point the All Blacks had participated in three games. Advertisements were taken out on Facebook targeting those who 'like' the official All Blacks Facebook page and/or the 2015 Rugby World Cup Facebook page. Facebook and other social media sites have become places researchers can connect with target populations, particularly those who may be hard-to-reach or even non-existent offline (Baltar & Brunet, 2012). While All Blacks fans are likely rather easy to reach in New Zealand due to their sheer number, there is no unified community where these fans can easily be identified and targeted. Therefore those who self-identify as All Blacks fans on Facebook by liking the All Blacks fan page were targeted with Facebook advertising. The advertisements were also restricted to those living in New Zealand. These Facebook advertisements appeared from the 9th of October through the duration of the Rugby World Cup. The other aspect of the social media data collection occurred on the reddit.com website. On the night of the 17th of October (the day before the Quarter-final elimination match the All Blacks faced against France), a post to the /r/NewZealand 'subreddit' was made advertising the survey. Follow up posts were made on the 30th of October and the 5th of November, before and after the Rugby World Cup final between the All Blacks and Australia. This website is primarily frequented by New Zealanders. To supplement this, an E-Mail with the link to the survey was sent to marketing students enrolled at the University of Canterbury on the 27th and 30th of October.

## 3.8 Sample size

Data collection took place gradually over the course of the World Cup from the 9th of October to 14th of November. 465 responses were collected over this duration. However 107 of these responses were made up of people failing to meet the threshold set by the screening questions. 29 respondents meet the screening criteria but did not continue further for unknown reasons. 5 further respondents did not complete the entirety of the survey and their data was removed. This left 324 usable responses, exceeding the 300 sample size minimum recommended for structural modelling analysis (Hair, Black, Babin & Anderson, 2010).

## 3.9 Data Analysis

First the data was checked for skewness and kurtosis to identify any significant departure from normality. Second the descriptive stats were analysed to understand the sample as a whole. The reliability of the scales was then checked before confirmatory factor analysis was

used to ascertain the scales used as well as to establish discriminant, convergent validity. Finally SEM was used to test the proposed relationships in the theoretical model. To carry this analysis out, SPSS version 22 and the AMOS software add-on were used.

## 3.10 Limitations

There are several limitations to this method of data collection and analysis. Firstly the mixing of data collection areas between social networking sites and direct E-mail to students could cause inconsistent results across the sample. Additionally, looking at the census population for New Zealand over 80% of 15-24 years olds have used the internet within the last 12 months, however only 70% of 55-64 years olds have done the same. Only 60% of 65-74 and 30% of those aged 75 and over have used the internet indicating that this sampling method will have a bias towards younger fans (Statistics New Zealand, 2014). However previous research examining constructs like identification and attachment has also used samples with heavy student and youth biases (Wann & Branscombe, 1993; Funk & James, 2006; Kwon, Trail & James, 2007; Wann & Branscombe, 1990) suggesting that high quality data can still be obtained from samples with such bias.

## 3.11 Chapter summary

This chapter outlined the quantitative research methodology used to test the hypotheses outlines in the previous chapter. The context for the research was first explained with a description of how the All Blacks performed at the World Cup. The choice to use descriptive research methods was justified before the development of the survey was discussed. The measurement instruments used in the survey were introduced and their use justified. Then the results of a pre-test were presented and the adjustments that were consequently made to the final survey were described. The use of convenience sampling through online social media advertising was then described and justified. Finally the limitations of this method were presented.

# Results

## 4.1 Results Introduction

The results of the data analysis as well as the hypothesis testing results are outlined in this chapter. A summary of the sample statistics is presented before the results of the confirmatory factor analysis are reported. After showing convergent and discriminant validity, the structural equation modelling results are reported. The hypotheses are then reported as being supported or not supported.

## 4.2 Sample composition

| Demographic Variable | Category | Count(Percentage) |
|---|---|---|
| **Age** | 18-25 | 155 (47.8%) |
| | 26-35 | 44 (13.6%) |
| | 36-45 | 38 (11.7%) |
| | 46-55 | 37 (11.4%) |
| | 56-65 | 28 (8.6%) |
| | 66+ | 22 (6.8%) |
| **Gender** | Male | 182 (56.2%) |
| | Female | 142 (43.8%) |
| **Education level** | NCEA level 2 or below | 23 (7.1%) |
| | NCEA level 3 | 105 (32.4%) |
| | Undergraduate degree | 85 (26.2%) |
| | Postgraduate degree | 34 (10.5%) |
| | Other | 77 (23.8%) |
| **Location** | New Zealand North Island | 168 (51.9%) |
| | New Zealand South Island | 155 (47.8%) |

**Table 7:** Sample Demographics

Due to the online nature of data collection the age of the sample is skewed towards those aged 18-25. The direct targeting of students through E-Mails to those enrolled in marketing classes at the University of Canterbury also would have contributed towards this bias. The

gender split has a slight bias towards males, with 43.8% of respondents identifying themselves as female. While sport fanship is considered to be a masculine, male-dominated pursuit (Wann, Waddill & Dunham, 2004) the amount of females captured in the sample illustrates the diversity of the All Blacks fan base. 58.6% of the sample had graduated from high school or university and 23.8% of respondents identified their education level as other, indicating they possessed trade qualifications or older school qualifications such as School Certificate. The location of respondents was almost evenly split.

## 4.3 Fandom Behaviour

| Behaviours | Count (percentage) |
|---|---|
| **How many years have you been interested in the All Blacks rugby team?** | |
| 1-5 Years | 35 (10.8%) |
| 6-10 Years | 45 (13.9%) |
| 11-20 Years | 99 (30.6%) |
| 20+ years | 145 (44.8%) |
| **How many All Blacks games have you watched during the 2015 Rugby World Cup?** | |
| 0 | 17 (5.2%) |
| 1-2 | 39 (12%) |
| 3-4 | 119 (36.7%) |
| 5+ | 149 (46%) |
| **Approximately how many All Blacks games have you watched in the past year?** | |
| 0 | 8 (2.5%) |
| 1-3 | 32 (9.9%) |
| 4-6 | 61 (18.8%) |
| 7-9 | 102 (31.5%) |
| 10+ | 121 (37.3%) |
| **How many All Blacks games have you attended live in the past year?** | |
| 0 | 256 (79%) |
| 1-2 | 54 (16.7%) |
| 3-4 | 12 (3.7%) |
| 5+ | 2 (0.6%) |

**Table 8:** Fandom Behaviour Result

Most of the sample considered themselves long term All Blacks fans, with 75% of respondents stating they had been fans for over 11 years. 145 people stated they were fans for 20 years or more, which indicates that much of the sample have been lifelong fans due to the

fact that 45% of the sample is between the ages of 18-25. 82.7% of the sample had watched at least three of the seven games the All Blacks played through the duration of the World Cup. However much of the data was gathered before the All Blacks had played each of these games, with 85 responses being gathered before their October 18th quarterfinal match against France. Respondents also had been actively engaged with the All Blacks team throughout the year, with 68% of respondents having seen at least seven of their matches on television recently. While there was a high amount of engagement on television, only 21% of the sample had attended an All Blacks match live. Despite this the sample overall demonstrated a high level of behavioural commitment to the All Blacks team.

## 4.4 Descriptives

| **Construct**/item | Mean | SD | Skewness | Kurtosis | Cronbach Alpha |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| **Identification** | 3.81 | .83 | -.517 | -.241 | .880 |
| ID1 | 4.29 | .921 | -1.527 | 2.5 | |
| ID2 | 4.27 | .847 | -1.22 | 1.685 | |
| ID3 | 3.84 | 1 | -.575 | -.508 | |
| ID4 | 4.22 | .94 | -1.08 | .52 | |
| ID5 | 3.75 | 1.217 | -.737 | -.358 | |
| ID7 | 2.48 | 1.144 | .208 | -.665 | |
| **Anger** | 1.85 | .82 | 1.183 | 1.39 | .769 |
| Angry | 1.5 | .888 | 2 | 3.757 | |
| Irritated | 1.91 | 1.1 | 1.17 | .872 | |
| Frustrated | 2.14 | 1.05 | .834 | 2.65 | |
| **Sadness** | 1.34 | .61 | 2.649 | 8.135 | .762 |
| Sad | 1.52 | .853 | 1.796 | 3.1 | |
| Miserable | 1.28 | .771 | 3.24 | 10.72 | |
| Depressed | 1.21 | .607 | 3.535 | 13.93 | |
| **Happiness** | 4.08 | .86 | -1.056 | 1.179 | .878 |
| Happy | 4.07 | .918 | -.912 | .643 | |
| Joy | 3.89 | 1.104 | -.874 | .049 | |
| Cheerful | 3.98 | .974 | -.975 | .814 | |
| **Love** | 3.67 | 1 | -.494 | -.451 | .840 |
| Love | 3.21 | 1.46 | -.212 | -1.303 | |

| | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Passionate | 3.99 | 1.136 | -1.001 | .180 | |
| Enthusiastic | 4.1 | 1 | -1.15 | .757 | |
| Caring | 3.36 | 1.1 | -.314 | -1.018 | |
| **Pride** | 4.31 | .95 | -1.548 | 2.164 | |
| **Attachment pleasure** | 3.88 | .842 | -.663 | .593 | .853 |
| A1 | 3.35 | 1.164 | -.182 | -.76 | |
| A7 | 4.42 | .785 | -1.782 | 4.422 | |
| A3 | 3.84 | .985 | -.748 | .323 | |
| A4 | 3.1 | 1.31 | -.046 | -1.145 | |
| **Attachment sign** | 4 | .874 | -.990 | 1 | .884 |
| A2 | 4.15 | .935 | -1.163 | 1.229 | |
| A5 | 4.15 | .964 | -1.275 | 1.404 | |
| A6 | 3.75 | 1.123 | -.637 | -.336 | |
| A8 | 3.99 | 1.023 | -1.023 | .661 | |
| **Satisfaction** | 4.2 | .65 | -.569 | -.083 | .772 |
| S2 | 4.08 | .914 | -.894 | .314 | |
| S3 | 4.26 | .747 | -.911 | 1 | |
| S4 | 4.28 | .690 | -.725 | .451 | |
| **Event attachment** | 3.2 | .88 | -.102 | -.353 | .791 |
| EA2 | 3.15 | 1.134 | -.044 | -.798 | |
| EA3 | 3.76 | 1.048 | -.698 | .034 | |
| EA4 | 2.49 | 1.15 | .427 | -.512 | |
| EA5 | 3.4 | 1.156 | -.281 | -.648 | |

**Table 9:** Normality and Reliability Statistics

As the table shows, respondents felt they identified with the behaviour described to a high level. The exception to this was the two sets of discrete negative emotions. Overall the average anger (M = 1.84, SD = .82) and sadness (M = 1.3, SD = .61) felt by respondents was far lower than the response to the positive emotions of love, happiness and pride. The lowest mean score belonged to emotion, due to the lack of negative emotions experienced by fans during the World Cup. This was likely caused by the strong performances of the All Blacks team during the World Cup where they went on to convincingly win the tournament against Australia in the grand final. As a result the positive emotions were felt to a larger degree,

particularly the pride emotion which on the 5 point Likert scale average 4.31. Satisfaction was felt on average to the highest level of all the main constructs (M = 4.2, SD = .65). Event attachment was felt on average to a lower level than the other constructs (M = 3.2, SD = .88). The identification scale performed well with respondents averaging 3.8. ID7 "How often do YOU display the All Blacks name or insignia at your place of work, where you live?" scored lower than the rest of the scale with a mean score of 2.48 (SD = 1.144). The average composite score of team attachment was M= 3.84, SD = .84 with A4 "A lot of my time is organised around following the All Blacks at the moment" showing the lowest response (M =3.1, SD = 1.31) and a7 "I really enjoy watching the All Blacks matches" (M = 4.42, SD = .785). The only issues with data normality per Kline's (2005) guidelines are in the 'sad' emotion scale, with skewness for the miserable and depressed items exceeding 3 and kurtosis exceeding 10. However the normality of the composite sadness scale was within the acceptable limits and so it was decided that the data would not be altered. The scales displayed adequate reliability with Cronbach Alpha scores of over 0.7 (Kline, 2015).

## 4.5 Confirmatory Factor Analysis

Confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) is commonly used in the social sciences (Kline, 2015). It is used to test the relationship between observed variables and the latent variables or factors that the observed variables were designed to measure. A key aspect of CFA is the fact that it is used to test whether the data obtained fits hypotheses developed by the researcher a priori (Jackson, Gillaspy Jr & Purc-Stephenson, 2009). These hypotheses may be developed through review of previous theory or empirical research (Suhr, 2006). In the context of structural equation modelling, CFA is used to test whether the factors the researcher attempted to measure are realised by the data set (Jackson, Gillaspy Jr & Purc-Stephenson, 2009).

Since hypothesised factors have been established in previous chapters of this paper, CFA is therefore the appropriate method of data analysis. In this paper (CFA) will be used as the first step in a two-step approach to structural equation modelling (SEM) recommended by Anderson and Gerbing (1988). In this approach CFA is used to establish the construct validity of the measures used, specifically the convergent and discriminant validity of the data collected (Brown, 2006). Convergent validity refers to the degree two (or more) separate scales that are theoretically hypothesised to measure the same construct, do in fact measure this construct as expected. Discriminant validity refers to the degree scales designed to

measure separate constructs do in fact diverge and are not correlated to each other (Campbell & Fiske, 1959). Maximum likelihood estimation was used as the estimation method for the analysis. This method is the most common form of estimation in CFA and SEM (Beauducel & Herzberg, 2006). For this set of data a nine factor CFA was carried out, with the factors as follows; team identification, anger, sadness, happy, love, satisfaction, attachment sign, attachment pleasure, and event attachment. The pride factor was excluded from the CFA because it was only measured by one item. While using single-item constructs in CFA is acceptable in the marketing literature (Petrescu, 2013), the measurement error of these factors cannot be calculated (Brown, 2006).

To measure the data's fit with the proposed model, fit indices were used. While some these fit indices have been seen as controversial by some (Barrett, 2007), they are still seen as useful if used with caution (Hooper, Coughlan & Mullen, 2008) and a variety of measures are used in tandem (Marsh, Hau & Wen, 2004). Firstly an analysis of the commonly used absolute fit indices was carried out to test how well the proposed model fit the data. These indices are "the most fundamental indication of how well the proposed theory fits the data" (Hooper, Coughlan & Mullen, 2008 p. 53).

The chi square statistic ($X^2$) is a comparison between the variance of data observed and the variance of the model specified by the researcher. It tests the null hypothesis that the data and the model are similar. If the data closely matches the specified model the chi-square test will give a non-significant result, meaning there is no significant difference in the variance explained by the data and model (Fornell & Larcker, 1981). A non-significant result of this test can subsequently be interpreted as the model being an acceptable fit for the data. However this metric has problems that prevent the use of the statistic in its original form.. The chi square test is also sensitive to sample size, with large sample sizes likely to cause the chi square statistic to reject the model. This can lead to type II error in data sets with large samples (Bentler & Bonett, 1980). To correct for the effect of sample sizes, dividing $x^2$ by the degrees of freedom of the model is recommended. This is called the normed chi-square statistic and complements the use of the standard $X^2$ number in SEM reporting (Kline, 2015). The recommended threshold for normed chi-square is 3, with any number exceeding this indicating the model represents a poor fit for the data. The poor performance of the Chi-square test in certain scenarios has also led to the creation of several fit indices that supplement the use of the $X^2$ and $X^2$/df statistic by researchers using CFA and SEM methodology. The most common fit indices used in academic literature according to

Jackson's et al. (2009) review of CFA reporting are; the root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA), the comparative fit index (CFI), the Tucker-Lewis index (TLI) and the normed fit index (NFI). However Hair et al (2010) does not recommend the use of NFI due to its tendency to overestimate the fit of complex model. Using a range of fit indices is important for establishing fit according to Hair's et al (2010) guidelines. Therefore the incremental fit index (IFI) will also be reported.

Due to issues with discriminant validity in the initial CFA two further items had to be removed from the team identification scale. These were items ID1 "How important to you is it that the All Blacks win?" and ID5 "How important is being a fan of the All Blacks to you?". These items capture the internal importance the All Blacks has to fans. Similar concepts are used in the scale of attachment and this is likely the reason for the discriminant validity issues. Additionally A6 "I consider myself a loyal fan of the All Blacks" was deleted. This also caused discriminant validity issues, possibly due to the fact that it was an item taken from outside the PCM scale and incorporated into it.

The final 9 factor CFA was run with the above items removed and the fit indices revealed the factors hypothesised were present in the data ($\chi^2$ = 874.767, df = 419, p = 0.000; $\chi^2$/df = 2.088; IFI = 0.930; TLI = 0.916; CFI = 0.929; RMSEA = 0.058). The normed chi-square test returned a value of 2.1, which fits the acceptable threshold (Fornell & Larcker, 1981). The RMSEA for the model is lower than 0.08 which Hair, Black, Babin and Anderson (2010) and Brown and Cudeck, (1993) suggest as the threshold for good fit. The other fit indices used met acceptable thresholds as they were greater than .9 (Hair, Black, Babin & Anderson, 2010). Due to the TLI, IFI and CFI being above .9 and the RMSEA and normed chi square also representing good fit, there is enough evidence to consider the model as fitting the data.

### 4.5.1 Convergent validity

| **Factor** | **C.R** | **AVE** | **t-values** | **Standardised Estimates** |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| **Identification** | .831 | .553 | | |
| ID2 | | | N/A | .819 |
| ID3 | | | 16.479 | .801 |
| ID4 | | | 13.112 | .664 |
| ID7 | | | 13.012 | .678 |

| | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| **Anger** | .766 | .522 | | |
| Angry | | | N/A | .764 |
| Irritated | | | 11.688 | .722 |
| Frustrated | | | 11.071 | .680 |
| **Sadness** | .781 | .545 | | |
| Sad | | | N/A | .690 |
| Depressed | | | 11.553 | .808 |
| Miserable | | | 10.722 | .711 |
| **Love** | .837 | .564 | | |
| Love | | | N/A | .679 |
| Caring | | | 13.772 | .681 |
| Passionate | | | 13.473 | .841 |
| Enthusiastic | | | 12.768 | .790 |
| **Happiness** | .882 | .714 | | |
| Happy | | | N/A | .852 |
| Joy | | | 19.362 | .850 |
| Cheerful | | | 18.703 | .833 |
| **Satisfaction** | .796 | .578 | | |
| S1 | | | N/A | .845 |
| S2 | | | 16.527 | .880 |
| S3 | | | 8.843 | .497 |
| **Attachment pleasure** | .868 | .623 | | |
| A1 | | | N/A | .795 |
| A3 | | | 17.289 | .850 |
| A4 | | | 15.916 | .799 |
| A7 | | | 13.516 | .706 |
| **Attachment sign** | .826 | .614 | | |
| A2 | | | N/A | .834 |
| A5 | | | 17.146 | .805 |
| A8 | | | 14.498 | .705 |
| **Event** | .800 | .507 | | |

| | | |
|---|---|---|
| **attachment** | | |
| EA2 | N/A | .671 |
| EA3 | 18.213 | .857 |
| EA4 | 10.047 | .535 |
| EA5 | N/A | .747 |

**Table 10:** Table of Standardised Loadings

Convergent validity was assessed using the t-statistic. All items in the table above were significant to the 0.001 level and the t-statistic of each item exceeded the critical value of 3.29 (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007) indicating that the data fulfilled the requirements for convergent validity. All standardised estimates pass the minimum threshold of .5 (Fornell & Larcker, 1981) except for one item, S4 which had a value of .497. Due to its closeness to the minimum threshold and its acceptable t-statistic the item was kept. Removing the item also posed problems given that three indicators for a construct are usually better than two.

### 4.5.2 Discriminant Validity

| | **Mean** | **SD** | **ID** | **ANG** | **SAD** | **HAP** | **LOV** | **SAT** | **SIG** | **PLE** | **EA** |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| **ID** | 3.72 | .87 | **.743** | | | | | | | | |
| **ANG** | 1.84 | .83 | .029 | **.722** | | | | | | | |
| **SAD** | 1.33 | .62 | .037 | .651** | **.738** | | | | | | |
| **HAP** | 4.05 | .86 | .614** | -.131* | -.127* | **.845** | | | | | |
| **LOV** | 3.67 | 1.03 | .649** | -.044 | .020** | .840** | **.750** | | | | |
| **SAT** | 4.17 | .78 | .408** | -.247** | -.143** | .566** | .482** | **.760** | | | |
| **SIG** | 4.07 | .88 | .742** | -.001 | -.032 | .657** | .690** | .377** | **.784** | | |
| **PLE** | 3.87 | .85 | .727* | -.045 | -.024 | .612** | 635** | .402** | .763** | **.789** | |
| **EA** | 3.27 | .87 | .679** | .085 | .124* | .477** | .537** | .361** | .664** | .726** | **.712** |

**Table 11:** Table of Discriminant Validity

*Note*: ** significant at the 0.01 level; *significant at the 0.05 level; ID=Identification; ANG=Anger; SAD= Sadness; HAP= Happiness; LOV= Love; SAT= Satisfaction; SIG= Attachment sign; PLE=Attachment pleasure; EA= Event attachment; Square root of average variance extracted (AVE) is shown on the diagonal of the matrix in boldface; inter-construct correlation is shown off the diagonal.

Discriminant validity is established in the table above. This is shown by comparing the intercorrelations of the factors with the square root of the AVE of each factor. With all intercorrelations lower than the square root of the AVE, discriminant validity is established according to guidelines by (Hair, Black, Babin & Anderson, 2010).

## 4.6 Structural equation modelling

Structural equation modelling has become popular over the 20-30 years in the social science area (Hershberger, 2003), including the area of marketing (Bagozzi & Yi, 1988). This is due to its ability to analyse multivariate models, allowing researchers to test the relationships hypothesised to exist between certain constructs the researcher has identified (Weston & Gore, Jr, 2006). Of the nine factors used in the SEM analysis (team identification, anger, sadness, happiness, love, pride, satisfaction, team attachment and event attachment) team attachment was the only second order construct in the model, with factors of pleasure and sign hypothesised to predict the overall team attachment latent variable. The rest were first order constructs, with pride only being measured by a single item. This is a weakness in that it is impossible to calculate the usual measures of scale reliability (such as Cronbach Alpha) with single item scales. However in the case of constructs that are "single-faceted" (Petrescu, 2013) and therefore difficult to create multi-item scales for, it is argued that it acceptable to incorporate latent variables with one observed variable in a SEM analysis (Hair et al 2010). With the literature review only identifying one word associated with the word pride (pride itself) the pride construct was deemed as meeting the definition of simple.

### 4.6.1 Structural model results

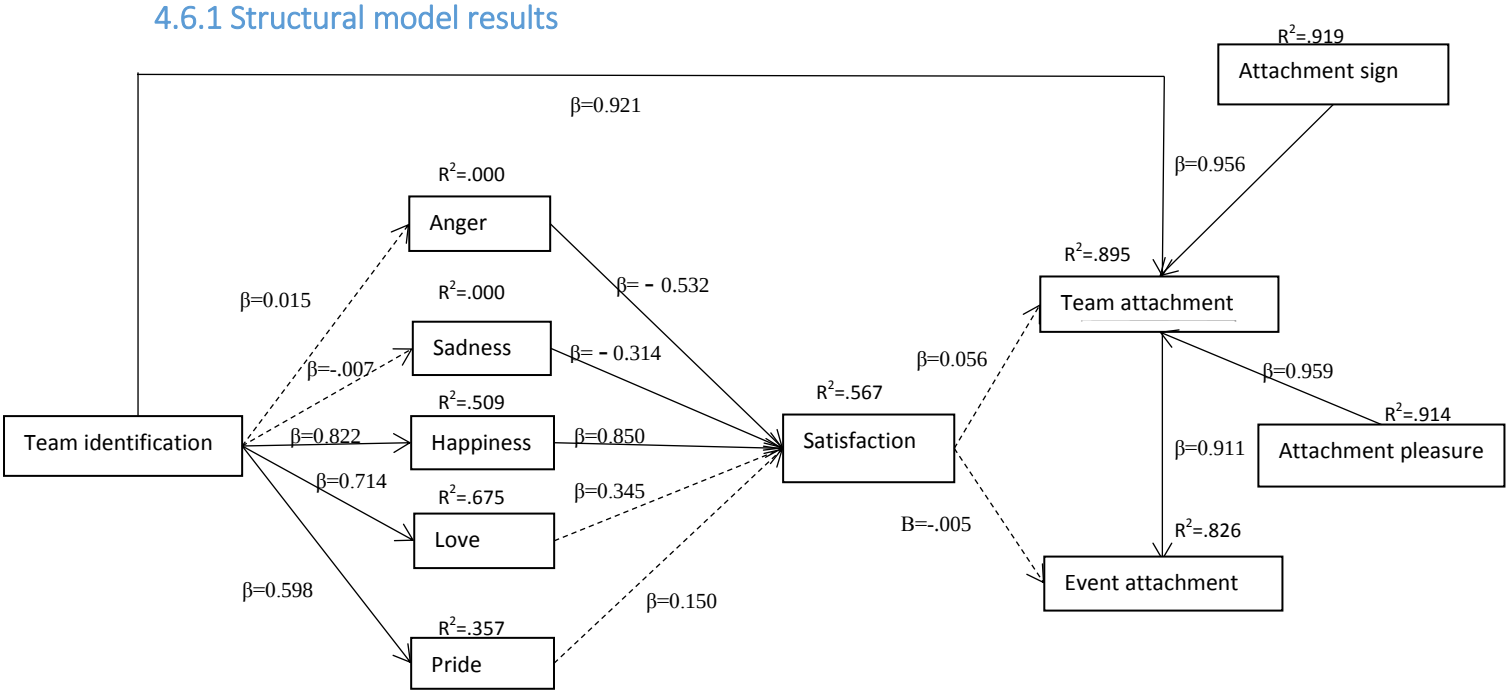


**Figure 3:** Final SEM Results.
Note: Dotted lines indicate non-significant relationships

The fit indices of the model indicated the data was a good fit ($\chi^2$ = 975.36, df = 443, p = 0.000; $\chi^2$/df = 2.202; IFI = 0.918; TLI = 0.908;CFI = 0.917; RMSEA = 0.061). These results

show some strong relationships. Team identification was a very strong predictor of team attachment with a beta value of .921. Happiness, love and pride were also strongly predicted by team identification. In contrast to this team identification did not significantly predict anger and sadness. Happiness was a strong predictor of satisfaction with a beta value of .850. Sadness and anger displayed moderate relationship strength with satisfaction, though love and pride were not significant in their relationship with satisfaction. Satisfaction was not a significant predictor of event or team attachment. Team attachment was a predictor of event attachment with a high beta value of 0.911. In table 12 these direct effects are presented along with the indirect and total effects for each hypothesis.

| Hx | Hypothesis | Direct Effects | Indirect Effects | Total Effects | P level | Supported/ Not Supported |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| H1a | Team identification - Anger | .015 | | .015 | .819 | Not supported |
| H1b | Team identification - Sadness | -.007 | | -.007 | .910 | Not supported |
| H1c | Team identification - Happiness | .714 | | .714 | <.001 | Supported |
| H1d | Team identification - Love | .822 | | .822 | <.001 | Supported |
| H1e | Team identification - Pride | .598 | | .598 | <.001 | Supported |
| H2a | Anger - Satisfaction | -.532 | | -532 | .002 | Supported |
| H2b | Sadness - Satisfaction | .345 | | .345 | .036 | Not Supported |
| H2c | Happiness - Satisfaction | .850 | | .850 | <.001 | Supported |
| H2d | Love - Satisfaction | -.314 | | -.314 | .128 | Not Supported |
| H2e | Pride - Satisfaction | .150 | | .150 | .103 | Not Supported |
| H3a | Satisfaction – Team attachment | .056 | | .056 | .196 | Not Supported |
| H3b | Satisfaction – Event attachment | -.005 | .051 | .046 | .920 | Not Supported |
| H4 | Team Identification – Team attachment | .921 | .024 | .945 | <.001 | Supported |
| H5 | Team attachment – Event attachment | .911 | | .911 | <.001 | Supported |

**Table 12:** Table of Effects with Hypothesis Results

The anger and sadness constructs showed a very slight correlation to the team identification construct though neither of these relationships is statistically significant therefore H1a and H1b were rejected. The model did lend support to H1c, H1d and H1e, with the positive emotions of happiness, love and pride being predicted by team identification. H2a was supported by significant data with anger levels have the predicted negative relationship with feelings of satisfaction. H2b was not supported. Despite the data showing a significant relationship with satisfaction, this relationship was positive showing that an increase in sadness predicts greater levels of satisfaction among All Blacks fans. H2c was supported with the data supported the positive happiness – satisfaction relationship. H2d and H2e were not supported with significant data with love and pride not predicting satisfaction levels. H3a and H3b were also not supported, with satisfaction not being a significant predictor of the team attachment and event attachment constructs. H4 was supported with a significant strong relationship with team attachment. Finally H5 was supported as event attachment was predicted by levels of team attachment.

## 4.7 Chapter summary

This chapter outlined the results of the data analysis. First the characteristics of the data were outlined before the convergent and discriminant validity of the measurement instruments was confirmed. After the appropriate alterations to the data set were made to give the data validity, the results of the CFA were reported. The final SEM analysis was then carried out and the hypotheses were either rejected or confirmed. Chapter five will expand upon these findings and discuss their implications in depth.

# Discussion

## 5.1 Discussion Introduction

This chapter concludes the thesis by presenting a discussion of the major findings of the research. Theoretical and practical implications of the research are explained and future research is suggested.

## 5.2 Results summary

Attachment is an important concept in the marketing literature due to its relationship to important attitudinal and behavioural factors such as purchase intentions (e.g. Filo et al., 2010; Tsiotsou & Alexandris, 2009) and loyalty (e.g. Yuksel, Yuksel & Bilim, 2010; Kwon et al., 2005). The results of the data analysis confirm the main objectives of the research by uncovering some important antecedents to the concept of attachment to a team: team identification and the discrete emotions of happiness, pride and love. These factors explain close to 90% of the variance of team attachment making, clear the importance that concepts of self-identity and emotion play in building attachment to an object in the mind of a consumer. These antecedents not only predict attachment to a sport team, but also attachment to a sporting mega-event; the Rugby World Cup. This illustrates the importance the sport teams themselves have in generating positive attitudes towards these events. Fans may not be particularly interested in the event if they are not interested in a team competing, despite the worldwide coverage the event receives. This also indicates that the concept of identification and the discrete emotions investigated here are antecedents to attachment and can be generalised to other attachments investigated in the marketing literature such as brand and place attachment. Factors of satisfaction were shown to be unimportant in consumer feelings of attachment towards event or the team, with both relationships proving to be insignificant. This would suggest that any potential negative effects of poor on-field performance will not have consequences for the post consumption attitudes and behaviour of fans. The final key finding of this research is the dual role that the concepts of identification and attachment have in explaining fan relationships with sport objects. More detailed information on these findings are presented below and theoretical explanations for these findings are provided.

## 5.3 Identification and happiness, love and pride

This research predicted that the level of team identification felt by All Blacks fans would be related to the positive discrete emotions measured by this study (happiness, love and pride). In the case of happiness this relationship was expected, with multiple instances of the literature finding a relationship between identification with a team and feelings of happiness or joy (Wann et al., 2002; Wann, 2006; Branscombe & Wann, 1991; Wann et al, 1994). The predicted relationship between pride and identification was also realised in the final model as predicted by the literature. Much of the literature has focussed on the idea that identification with a community or place can lead to feelings of pride (Decrop & Derbaix, 2010; Mahony et al., 2002). This study has extended this concept of the identification-pride relationship to identification with a team. Finally the identification – love relationship was confirmed by the data collected. Brand identification has previously been identified as an antecedent to brand love (Bergkvist & Bech-Larsen, 2010; Albert & Merunka, 2013). In fact Carroll and Ahuvia's (2006) definition of brand love states that absorption of the brand into the consumer's self-identity is a required pre-requisite of feelings of brand love. This research extends this relationship to the sport literature by showing identification to the All Blacks leads to greater feelings of love towards the All Blacks.

### 5.3.1 Identification and sadness and anger

No significant effect was found between team identification and the negative emotions of anger and sadness. Previous literature predicted there would be a relationship between team identification and discrete emotions. Wann et al. (1994) found that negative emotional reactions to a team's failure were more intense among highly identified fans. Wann & Branscombe (1992) found that sadness was specifically felt to a higher degree by fans in the aftermath of a defeat of their favourite team. Anger and aggression has also been shown to be outcomes of team identification (Wann, 2006). However, these relationships were not observed in the present study. This can be explained by the lack of negative experiences the All Blacks fans would have felt during the Rugby World Cup. When fans are not exposed to the defeat of their team, the level to which they experience negative emotions falls (Wann et al., 2002). The All Blacks won all seven matches during the World Cup and were eventual winners of the entire tournament. This meant that there was little reason for fans to feel anger or sadness. This is particularly the case with highly identified fans, who are more likely to watch their team with the goal of witnessing a victory (Madrigal, 2003). Throughout the

World Cup the All Blacks met these goals and so there was no reason for fans to feel sadness or anger towards the All Blacks.

## 5.4 Happiness and satisfaction

Happiness interacted with satisfaction as expected, with happiness having a strong positive relationship with the satisfaction in All Blacks fans. This was predicted by the review of the literature, with the previous research on satisfaction emphasising the role of emotion in creating attitudes of satisfaction (Soderlund & Rosengren, 2004; Westbrook & Oliver, 1991). While there is some debate on the issue (Madrigal, 1995), emotion is commonly thought of as an antecedent to satisfaction (Westbrook & Oliver, 1991; Mano & Oliver, 1993; Gelbrich, 2010), or even as an emotion itself, similar in nature to happiness (Nyer, 1997; Mehrabian & Russell, 1974). Soscia (2013) even describes satisfaction as a "lukewarm version of happiness" (p. 35). With the strong relationship in the data between the two constructs, this research supports the view that satisfaction and happiness are similar in nature. However, the manner in which satisfaction was measured for this paper suggests that the concept of satisfaction is a cognitive judgement that is informed by emotional factors such as happiness. This corroborates Oliver's (1993) view that satisfaction is a two factor concept that incorporates affective and cognitive aspects, with emotions such as happiness as antecedents.

### 5.4.1 Pride and satisfaction

The relationship between discrete emotions and satisfaction was less expected. Pride was predicted as being an antecedent of satisfaction due to literature on consumer pride showing this link. Louro et al. (2005) found that pride had a positive relationship with satisfaction, as did Arnett, Laverie and Mclane (2002) in their examination of job satisfaction and pride. Much of the emotions literature has positive emotions as occurring before satisfaction (Gelbrich, 2010; Mano & Oliver, 1993; Westbrook & Oliver, 1991; Emmons & Diener, 1985), of which pride is a positive emotion. In the case of the All Blacks the pride emotion was felt to a high level (as shown by the mean pride score of 3.8). However, in the model pride did not have a significant link to the level of satisfaction a fan had to a team and event. One plausible explanation for this finding is that pride is felt as an outcome of satisfaction, rather than as an antecedent. Literature on pride as an outcome related emotion (Weiner, 1985). Soscia (2013) defines pride as being felt when a goal or positive result is reached by the individual. Bagozzi et al. (1999) describe pride in a similar way, stating that pride is an emotional reaction to 'outcome-desire fulfilment'. This would indicate that pride occurs post consumption, after judgements of satisfaction are made. In the case of an All Blacks fan, the

goal is to experience a satisfactory (i.e. winning) performance from the team. Therefore it is plausible that only after a judgement of satisfaction is made can the pride emotion felt. There is some empirical research that suggests this is the case. Research on consumption emotions elicited by sport teams showed that pride was an outcome of team success (Gladden & Funk, 2002). Madrigal (1995) found that while positive feelings of pleasure and enjoyment are predictive of satisfaction due to the fact that these feelings can be easily credited to the team and sport event, pride is a self-centred, self-attributed emotion and is therefore not included in a consumer's judgement of satisfaction. This literature, as well as the current research, indicates that pride does not interact with satisfaction like other positive emotions. In fact some research has shown that pride may cause consumers to behave in the opposite manner predicted by other positive emotions in regards to repatronage intentions (Fredrickson, 2001; Louro et al., 2005), which may show that pride is unique in the way it interacts with marketing constructs when compared to other positive emotions.

Another plausible explanation for this finding is that pride is independent of satisfaction in the context of this research, showing that fans of a national team will feel pride towards their team irrespective of the circumstances. Literature has previously found that fans of the winning and losing teams of a particular sporting context will feel pride to near equal levels (Kerr, et al., 2005). This indicates that pride is not dependent on factors of short term performance but is more heavily based on past performance. Decrop and Derbaix (2010) found that pride towards a team was felt based on current and historical performances, but the current study suggests the past achievements of a fans team influences feelings of pride more than short term factors.

### 5.4.2 Love and satisfaction

Another unexpected finding was the lack of significant relationship between love and satisfaction despite a relationship of love and satisfaction having been shown previously in areas of tourism marketing (Prayag et al., 2013) and brand love (Albert, Merunka & Valette-Florence, 2008). However, some instances of the literature also find an insignificant relationship between love and satisfaction (Prayag, Hosany, Muskat & Del Chiappa, 2015). This research has pointed to sample characteristics and the complexity of emotional experiences as being the cause of this lack of relationship. A plausible explanation for this finding was the slight male bias of the sample. Research on marital satisfaction and love shows that the relationship between love and satisfaction is only present among females; therefore the male portion of the sample collected in this research may not be equating love

towards the All Blacks with the satisfaction, despite love being felt nearly equally by males and females (Aron & Henkemeyer, 1995). In particular, concepts of passionate love do not enter into judgements of satisfaction as much with males (Acker & Davis, 1992). When love does influence satisfaction, it may be in ways that are not relevant to a marketing context, such as sexual love and sexual satisfaction; particularly among men (Hendrick, Hendrick & Adler, 1988). This may indicate that the measurements of love in the survey did not adequately capture the feelings of All Blacks fans. Batra, et al. (2012) discussed the conceptualisation of brand love and indicated that it may be felt by consumers as a relationship, rather than as a raw emotion. Qualitative investigations into the love relationship that bikers have towards their motorcycles, empirically showed love as a relationship (Whang, Allen, Sahoury & Zhang, 2004). In the present study, relationship factors were captured by concepts of identification and attachment rather than through the relationship based paradigm of brand love. This may explain why the love and identification link was confirmed by the data, as the identification instrument captured the relational aspect. However, this relational conceptualisation of love was not adequately captured in relation to satisfaction. Future investigations on consumer feelings of love towards sport teams should measure love in terms of a wider relationship instead of in pure emotion terms.

### 5.4.3 Anger and satisfaction

Anger had a negative relationship with satisfaction as predicted. Soscia (2013) discusses dissatisfaction and anger as being outcomes of negative consumption experiences. These concepts are distinct due to the different thoughts, feelings and behavioural outcomes they elicit (Bougie, et al., 2003). Specifically, anger is created when a negative evaluation is made by a consumer towards a consumption experience that the consumer perceives as poor and as being within the control of the service provider (Soscia, 2013). In the context of the All Blacks fans studied in this research, the level of anger felt during the World Cup was low due to the consistent success of the team. This therefore led to high satisfaction. What anger that was felt may have been felt towards small errors made by the team during matches, but this was obviously minimal.

### 5.4.4 Sadness and satisfaction

Another unexpected finding was the relationship between sadness and satisfaction. Instead of the predicted negative relationship between the two concepts, the relationship was actually positive. Increased levels of sadness lead to an increase in satisfaction. This may have been due to the unique circumstances surrounding the All Blacks during the World Cup. The end

of the tournament signalled the end of the careers of five fan favourite players, including Richie McCaw; the All Blacks most capped player in history with 148 matches played over 14 years. Richie McCaw and Dan Carter's retirements from the domestic side of the game earlier in the year were met with feelings of loss and sadness, with news articles saying that "Canterbury Rugby will never be the same" and that their losses will be mourned (Davis & Mann, 2015). Articles during the tournament stated that the retirements of the players at the end of the tournament would be met with both celebration of their successful careers, but also with sadness and "perhaps a few tears" (Wall, 2015). The experience for fans during the World Cup may therefore have been bittersweet. Witnessing the team win would have been a source of satisfaction for fans, but it also was a reminder that some of the great players of the All Blacks would be leaving soon, so this satisfaction was tinged with sadness. The fans' desire for a triumphant end to the players' careers may have resulted in the observed sadness satisfaction link. As fans experienced higher levels of sadness due to the impending retirement of some of their favourite players, their satisfaction with the manner they were retiring (as World Cup victors) was raised.

### 5.4.5 Discrete emotions and satisfaction

This consistent success clearly created satisfaction not only with the All Blacks themselves, but with the overall quality of the Rugby World Cup event. For those experiencing a mega event primarily through television such as those gathered in the sample for this research judgements of the quality of the event are largely based on the sporting product itself. Satisfaction with live sport events are usually drawn from aspects of the functional and environmental factors of the event, as well as the quality of the sporting contests (Koo et al., 2009). However in this case the technical aspects of the event were the only ones able to be judged. This research has showed that emotions felt towards a team have implications for how the overall quality of competition is judged by a fan. This may be caused by the ego of the fans. The All Blacks won the competition, so what All Blacks fan would admit that the overall level of competition was low? This would diminish the accomplishment of the team and through BIRGing effects, the fan themselves.

Overall satisfaction was felt to a high level by All Blacks fan, with a mean score of 4.2 on the five point Likert scale used to measure the construct in this research. Under the traditional confirmation/disconfirmation paradigm of satisfaction established by Oliver (1980) this means the All Blacks team exceeded the expectation of its fan base. However, while this wasn't captured by this research, it can be argued that the fans were expecting a World Cup

victory. The All Blacks coach saying in an interview that New Zealand will accept nothing other than a win" ("TVNZ", 2015) and several media outlets noted the huge weight of expectation the New Zealand public were placing on the All Blacks to win the tournament (Paul, 2015; Hinds, 2015; Reason, 2015). There was even a Rugby World Cup blog set up by a fan called 'WeightOfANation.com" with the slogan "Home of New Zealand's Crushing Expectation". This would indicate that fans were highly satisfied with simply having their expectations met, rather than exceeded. This may have been caused by the unique nature of the World Cup product, which is only on offer once every four years. However more research is required to investigate the reasons for satisfaction and the differences between satisfaction with a sport team such as the All Blacks and consumer satisfaction with other consumer goods.

## 5.5 Satisfaction and team and event attachment

Hypothesis four; that satisfaction would be antecedent to attachment to team and hypothesis five; that satisfaction would be antecedent to attachment to event, were not supported by the data collected. There was no significant link between the two constructs. The argument for this hypothesis was laid out in the literature review, with satisfaction as an antecedent to attachment being common findings in the tourism (Lee & Allen, 1999; Brocato, 2006; Ramkissoon & Mavondo, 2015; Petrick, Backman & Bixler, 1999) and management literature (Koch & Steers, 1978; Graen, Novak & Sommerkamp, 1982). Our findings do not support this literature. However there is an alternative perspective in the literature that indicates the relationship may be flipped, i.e. attachment leads to satisfaction. This is particularly prevalent in the tourism marketing literature where models have shown that satisfaction is an outcome of place (Prayag & Ryan, 2012; Ramkissoon, Smith & Weiler, 2013; Yuksel et al., 2010). It is plausible that this is the case in the context of this research and this is leading to insignificant results. It is also possible that this result has been an outcome of the way in which satisfaction has been measured in this study. Affective factors that would usually be incorporated into measures of satisfaction where separated into distinct discrete emotions. As a result the instrument measuring satisfaction strictly focussed on the cognitive aspect of the construct. Many of the studies that have measured the satisfaction attachment link have incorporated an affective component (happiness) directly into their satisfaction measure (Yuksel et al., 2010; Ramkissoon et al., 2013) or have taken a more

parsimonious approach to satisfaction, using single item measures (Prayag & Ryan, 2012; Prayag et al., 2013).

## 5.6 Identification to team and team attachment

This hypothesised relationship was supported by the data with identification to the All Blacks having a strong relationship to team attachment. This relationship was predicted by marketing literature from the branding (Sen et al., 2015) tourism (Hernandez et al, 2007) and management (O'Reilly III & Chatman, 1986) areas, all showing that identification and attachment were highly correlated but distinct constructs. This is contrary to the reluctance of the sport marketing literature to engage with issues of attachment and identification in a unified way. A review of the literature shows discussion of consumer identification and attachment with sport objects, but these concepts are not investigated in relation to each other. In fact much of the literature combines the two constructs (Gray & Wert-Gray, 2012; Trail et al., 2000). This research shows that identification and attachment are two separate constructs in the sport context and should be investigated as such.

Additionally team identification has been shown to be an antecedent to team attachment by this research. This fits with various conceptualisations of attachment in the literature that note the importance of compatibility between brand values and notions of self in creating attachment (Kim, Lee & Ulgado, 2005; Malar, Krohmer, Hoyer & Nyffenegger, 2011). It also fits findings of Funk & James' (2006) revised PCM model which charts a sports fans strengthening relationship with a sport team over time. In their model while they do not explicitly measure the identification construct, their explanation of the attachment process draws on psychological (Schultz, Kleine & Kernan, 1989) and sporting (Gibson, Willming & Holdnak, 2002) literature to incorporate the idea of 'individuation'. Individuation is when an individual differentiates themselves from others by associating themselves with favourite possessions or objects. This idea clearly takes its cues from identity theory which emphasises the social aspect of identification. Incorporating objects into the identity of the self is an outward expression to others. The PCM notes the importance of social factors in the lower stages of fan attachment, with social utility needs an importance step in building attachment. Eventually this aspect of the self-identity (in this case the All Blacks team) becomes increasingly important to the fan and they become attached (Funk & James, 2006). This attachment is less about social needs and is a more personal relationship incorporating affective factors (Hernandez et al, 2007). The data in this research also fits the empirical

resarch of Chavanat, Martinent & Ferrand (2009) on attachment and sponsorship outcomes. In this research identification to a sponsor (in this case Adidas) was antecedent to attachment to a sponsor. Lee, Kyle and Scott's (2012) research also tested this link, finding that attachment to a place was related to satisfaction felt by tourists to a local music festival. This literature backs up the findings of the data in the present study.

## 5.7 Attachment to team and event attachment

Team attachment and event attachment were strongly related as predicted. Attachment constructs have been used to previously predict feelings of event support. Concepts such as community attachment (Gursoy & Kendall, 2006) have been shown to be related to event support, where support is conceptualised as the costs and benefits residents perceive regarding the event. Mahony et al. (2002) also found that attachment to a team predicts the frequency of which a fan will attend live sport events. This study extends the support construct and argues that there is an important link between a consumer's fandom and their perceptions of global mega-events. Those that hold deeper attachments to their team are more likely to incorporate the events in which they compete into their attachment. Highly attached All Blacks fans will likely have memories of World Cups of previous years, where the All Blacks were triumphant in 2011 and controversially lost in the quarter-finals in 2007. Older fans may even remember the first World Cup event from 1987 and these memories over the course of time become intertwined in the fan-team relationship.

## 5.8 Theoretical implications

This research has contributed to the literature by expanding on factors influencing the nature of fan relationships with sport team and the events they compete in. The conceptual model created in this research has pulled together concepts from marketing and psychology literature to further expand on these relationships. These fan relationships have been examined using two core psychological concepts Tajfel's (1972) social-identity theory and Bowlby's (1980) attachment theory. These concepts were drawn together to examine distinct areas of fan attitudes and behaviour. Social identity theory captured the outward expressions of sports fandom, where consumers share their passion for an object through behaviours such as group membership and fan gear. This built on the work primarily carried out by Wann and Branscombe, who have explored many of the causes and outcomes of identification to sports objects (e.g. Wann & Branscombe, 1993; Branscombe & Wann, 1991; Wann et al. 2002;

Wann & Branscombe, 1994; Wann & Branscombe, 1990). This area of research has explored aspects of emotions in the sport fan experiences, namely aggression (Branscombe & Wann, 1992) and emotional valence (Wann & Branscombe, 1992). This research has drawn on emotions literature to incorporate factors of emotion into identification, finding emotions of love, pride and happiness are distinct emotional outcomes of team identification. These concepts where shown to be antecedent to team and event attachment, concepts that draw on Bowlby's (1980) attachment theory. This concept focusses less on outward expressions of ownership and affection and instead explains what important people and objects mean to individuals personally. Attachment theory has been contextualised in the sports literature through work such as Funk & James's (2001; 2006) psychological continuum model, which attempts to predict the growth in a fans relationship with a sport object. However this conceptualisation fails to effectively distinguish between concepts of identification, emotion and attachment. This research shows that these three concepts are unique and each play a role in explaining fan post-consumption behaviour. It is the first to present a model in which identification, attachment and a series of basic, discrete emotions are presented as distinct constructs explaining unique aspects of fan attitudes and behaviour. It identifies team identification and emotions as antecedents to attachment. It also contributes to the debate on whether satisfaction is an outcome or an antecedent to attachment by finding that satisfaction has no significant statistical power as an antecedent to attachment.

In the initial stages of fan relationships, social, outward factors of identification are the most salient. As the consumer increasingly incorporates the team into their self-identity and shares this with others, feelings of love, happiness and pride are felt towards the object of their identification grows. This positive emotional feedback causes the team to take on greater and greater importance to the individual, eventually leading to feelings of attachment. The team not only has importance to the fans outward identity but to their personal wellbeing. Per attachment theory, at this stage in the fan-team relationship if they fan is somehow prevented from interacting with the object of their attachment they will begin to feel separation anxiety. The team (theoretically) provides them feelings of comfort and security. This attachment spreads to associated objects such as sport events. While it is no secret that consumers will extend positive attitudes from favourite objects to objects that associated with them (this is the basis for marketing activities like sponsorship) this paper confirms that consumers feel attachment towards events, even if they are experiencing them from half a world away. The

need for proximity is one of the pillars of attachment theory and in the marketing world proximity is much easier to achieve due to ease of access.

## 5.9 Managerial implications

This research illustrated the importance of the teams in creating interest in the event. As mentioned in the discussion, team attachment is an important predictor of event attachment. This indicates the importance of the promotion of the teams involved in a sporting event. Event organisers should emphasise the relationship between teams and the event in their marketing material. This will increase the importance of the event in the eyes of fans through association with the team. It is also important for event organisers to identity the teams that operate in the biggest markets with fans that are the most attached and make sure these teams are attending the event. Event organisers can then capitalise on the popularity of the teams attending to promote their event. This can take the form of advertisements showing highlights of the teams attending, generating interest among fans of the team. The event organisers may also want to encourage spectators not identifying with a team to become fans of a team by handing out free cheap merchandise at live events such as flags or coloured t-shirts. These spectators may then in the long run become fans of the team and grow the attachment to the event in the long run. Encouraging event attachment can also be done through social media by incorporating team information into event communications. The event can share information about the team's players and history, allowing potential fans to learn and identify with a team. It can also integrate itself with the social media communications of the teams competing in the event by sharing social media posts made by the teams.

With team attachment being largely explained in this model by identification to a team, it is evident that creating this identification is vital for sports marketers looking to build relationships with sport consumers. Fan merchandise and giveaways to a broad range of people could create a sense of identification among fans. This is important for creating long attachment and capturing 'fair weather' fans. To further encourage attachment this strategy of creating team identification among fans should focus on emotional outcomes. Marketing strategies that focus on identification should anticipate the emotional reactions of fans and attempt to harness these to create long term attachment to the team. Promotional material targeting fans should emphasise the positive emotions sport spectatorship evoked in their previous experiences with the team through the use of emotive language and imagery. This promotional focus is also useful in that it is not dependent on fan live attendance to matches.

As this research has shown, fans watching a team can feel attachment even if the team is on another continent. These fans are watching through television and there is little opportunity for sport marketers to target fans during the match. However they are able to update social media during the match and communicate promotional material online and on television to fans before and after the match. Team traditions may also be a way to generate emotion in spectators and fans. The All Blacks perform the New Zealand national anthem before every match, creating feelings of national pride. Other sport franchises may consider adopting similar pre-match or post-match traditions to create these emotional reactions.

## 5.10 Limitations

This research had some limitations. The research context is not generalisable to a variety of common sport marketing concepts. Much of the research on sport teams has been undertaken on clubs or college teams that play over long seasons. This research measured fans of the All Blacks in the midst of a quadrennial tournament of huge importance to the team, fans and the nation as a whole. This was evidenced in the difficulties in applying common survey instruments from the literature such as the SSIS and the PCM to the present research. These issues were caused by respondents feeling that the items did not apply to their experience as an All Blacks fan. In particular centrality aspects of attachment were not identified with by fans in this context.

Related to this limitation was the way in which the data was collected over the course of the Rugby World Cup. This meant that respondents often had a different frame of reference for making judgements on the level to which they felt the respective constructs studied in this research. The relationships may have been different at various points in the tournament, affecting the final model. For example fans may have felt less satisfaction at the beginning of the tournament but felt similar levels of emotion and identification as they did at the end of the tournament. The factor of when the survey was taken by the respondent was not controlled for in the data analysis and therefore this represents a limitation of the study.

Additionally the measure of satisfaction may have created some of the issues with the hypothesised model. The satisfaction construct displayed some unexpected results in the SEM. While it is possible that satisfaction truly does not have a significant effect on team and event attachment, it may also indicate that another style of measure was more appropriate. While this research captured the emotions of fans it did not directly incorporate these

emotions into the measures of satisfaction. The purely cognitive measure of satisfaction used here may have needed to incorporate these affective factors to achieve significant results.

## 5.11 Future research

The model proposed in this research does not capture antecedents to identification. There is research on consumption motives being a factor that predicts identification levels (Fink, Trail & Anderson, 2002; Trail, Robinson & Dick, 2003; Gwinner & Swanson, 2003) however other concepts could be looked at. This research lends credence to the idea that emotions have a large impact on consumers and particularly on hedonistic consumption such as that of sports consumption. Emotions are already a direct outcome of identification as shown by this research and so it is plausible they occur before it. The existing identification motives literature shows that motives such as vicarious achievement and drama contain emotive language in their definitions. Drama is conceptualised using words terms like 'pleasurable stress' and vicarious achievement are defined using concepts of self-esteem and sense of empowerment (Trail, Fink & Anderson, 2001). This strongly hints at affective factors influencing identification. Recent research into the dimensions of identification shows that affect factors are indeed a part of creating identification (Dimmock, Grove & Eklund, 2005). However the nature of this affective link is unclear with Dimmock et al's., (2005) Team Identification Scale only measuring the strength of the affective bond. Future research in measuring the effect discrete emotions have as an antecedent to identification would shed light on this, and may explain some of the unexpected findings from this research in regards to the lack of significant link between identification and sadness and anger.

Future research should also look to continue investigating the satisfaction and attachment relationship. This debate has been ongoing in the tourism literature (see Ramkissoon & Mavondo, 2015) but has not been adequately dealt with in other context. It is of particular importance in the sport marketing literature due to the phenomenon of 'fair-weather' fans that gravitate towards the most successful teams (Wann & Branscombe, 1990). The fair weather fan phenomenon and the present study would indicate that satisfaction driven by winning results is not enough to create attachment and that there are other factors involved. It may be that sports objects must create attachment to the consumer before high levels of satisfaction are felt. Certainly identification is involved with creating attachment, but often fair weather fans will identify strongly with the team as long as they perform well. Other factors like

community attachment and historical relationship with the team may be indicators of attachment and loyalty and should be investigated.

This research was slightly hampered by the lack of distinctive identification and attachment measures. This research has shown that team identification and attachment are distinct, but measures available were only able to display discriminant validity by altering the items somewhat. Future research investigating the team identification and attachment relationship in the sporting context should focus on creating distinct measurement instruments for these two constructs. These new measures should take into account some of the issues the SSIS and PCM have displayed in this study. The SSIS used in this research to measure team identification may need modification to reflect the multi-dimensional nature of identification being investigated in recent research (Dimmock et al., 2005). Additionally the items in the PCM may need to be altered to better reflect the realities of the spectator sport experience. In its current form it contains three factors: Pleasure, centrality and sign. The current research only found pleasure and sign to be relevant constructs, indicating that modifications or new measures of team attachment should further explore the factors of team attachment.

Finally event attachment should be researched further. This research has shown that event attachment is felt by consumers who only experience the event through indirect means such as television and the internet. This concept is under researched considering the size of the sporting mega events that take place each year, and the continued reliance these events place on television revenue. Spectators now more than ever experience and create attachments to teams and events they never have the opportunity to attend in person. Therefore the process these consumers go through to create attachments to events are important for marketers and academics to understand. This research shows that fans that support a team at an event will have attachment to events they participate in, but there are possibly other factors. For those unable to attend the event in person, issues of accessibility (such the quality and cost of television access available, language, time zones) must be of importance. Further research on mega events should incorporate aspects of team an event attachment. The current literature focusses on the economic and social impact of the event to determine attitudes towards an event, with a focus on local residents (Kaplanidou et al, 2013; Chien et al., 2011; Zhou & Ap, 2009). Future research should also consider the effect the quality of the team performance has on event support and the relationship between event support and attachment.

## Reference List

Aaker, D. A., Stayman, D. M., & Vezina, R. (1988). Identifying feelings elicited by advertising. *Psychology & Marketing*, *5*(1), 1-16.

Acker, M., & Davis, M. H. (1992). Intimacy, passion and commitment in adult romantic relationships: A test of the triangular theory of love. *Journal of Social and Personal Relationships*, *9*(1), 21-50.

Albert, N., & Merunka, D. (2013). The role of brand love in consumer-brand relationships. *Journal of Consumer Marketing*, *30*(3), 258-266.

Albert, N., Merunka, D., & Valette-Florence, P. (2008). When consumers love their brands: Exploring the concept and its dimensions. *Journal of Business research*, *61*(10), 1062-1075.

Alexandris, K., Funk, D. C., & Pritchard, M. (2011). The impact of constraints on motivation, activity attachment, and skier intentions to continue. *Journal of Leisure Research*, *43*(1), 56-79

Allen, N. J., & Meyer, J. P. (1990). The measurement and antecedents of affective, continuance and normative commitment to the organization. *Journal of occupational psychology*, *63*(1), 1-18.

Altarriba, J. (2012). Emotion and mood: Over 120 years of contemplation and exploration in the American journal of psychology. *The American Journal of Psychology*, *125*(4), 409-422.

Anderson, J. C., & Gerbing, D. W. (1988). Structural equation modeling in practice: A review and recommended two-step approach. *Psychological bulletin*, *103*(3), 411-42.

Arbuckle, J. L. (2010). IBM SPSS Amos 19 user's guide. *Crawfordville, FL: Amos Development Corporation*.

Arnett, D. B., Laverie, D. A., & McLane, C. (2002). Using job satisfaction and pride as internal-marketing tools. *Cornell Hospitality Quarterly*, *43*(2), 87-96

Aron, A., & Henkemeyer, L. (1995). Marital satisfaction and passionate love. *Journal of Social and Personal Relationships*, *12*(1), 139-146.

Bagozzi, R. P., & Yi, Y. (1988). On the evaluation of structural equation models. *Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science*, *16*(1), 74-94.

Bagozzi, R. P., Gopinath, M., & Nyer, P. U. (1999). The role of emotions in marketing. *Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science*, *27*(2), 184-206.

Bal, C., Quester, P., & Plewa, C. (2011). We play the same game, but do we share the same passion? A comparison of French and Australian emotional reactions during sport events. *The Journal of Applied Business and Economics*, *12*(3), 26-36

Ball, A. D., & Tasaki, L. H. (1992). The role and measurement of attachment in consumer behavior. *Journal of Consumer Psychology*, *1*(2), 155-172.

Baltar, F., & Brunet, I. (2012). Social research 2.0: virtual snowball sampling method using Facebook. *Internet Research*, *22*(1), 57-74.

Barrett, P. (2007). Structural equation modelling: Adjudging model fit. *Personality and Individual differences*, *42*(5), 815-824.

Batra, R., Ahuvia, A., & Bagozzi, R. P. (2012). Brand love. *Journal of Marketing*, *76*(2), 1-16.

Beauducel, A., & Herzberg, P. Y. (2006). On the performance of maximum likelihood versus means and variance adjusted weighted least squares estimation in CFA. *Structural Equation Modeling*, *13*(2), 186-203.

Belk, R. (1988). Possessions and the extended self. *Journal of Consumer Research*. *15*, 139-168.

Bentler, P. M., & Bonett, D. G. (1980). Significance tests and goodness of fit in the analysis of covariance structures. *Psychological bulletin*, *88*(3), 588-606.

Bergkvist, L., & Bech-Larsen, T. (2010). Two studies of consequences and actionable antecedents of brand love. *The Journal of Brand Management*, *17*(7), 504-518.

Bhattacharya, C. B., & Sen, S. (2003). Consumer-company identification: A framework for understanding consumers' relationships with companies. *Journal of Marketing*, *67*(2), 76-88.

Biscaia, R., Correia, A., Rosado, A., Maroco, J., & Ross, S. (2012). The effects of emotions on football spectators' satisfaction and behavioural intentions. *European Sport Management Quarterly*, *12*(3), 227-242.

Bitner, M. J., & Hubbert, A. R. (1994). Encounter satisfaction versus overall satisfaction versus quality. *Service quality: New directions in theory and practice*, 72-94.

Bougie, R., Pieters, R., & Zeelenberg, M. (2003). Angry customers don't come back, they get back: The experience and behavioral implications of anger and dissatisfaction in services. *Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science*, *31*(4), 377-393.

Boulding, W., Kalra, A., Staelin, R., & Zeithaml, V. A. (1993). A dynamic process model of service quality: from expectations to behavioral intentions.*Journal of marketing research*, *30*(1), 7-27.

Bowlby, J. (1977). The making and breaking of affectional bonds. II. Some principles of psychotherapy. The fiftieth Maudsley Lecture. *The British Journal of Psychiatry*, *130*(5), 421-431.

Bowlby, J. (1980). *Attachment and loss* (Vol. 3). Basic books.

Branscombe, N. R., & Wann, D. L. (1991). The positive social and self concept consequences of sports team identification. *Journal of Sport & Social Issues*, *15*(2), 115-127.

Branscombe, N. R., & Wann, D. L. (1992). Role of identification with a group, arousal, categorization processes, and self-esteem in sports spectator aggression. *Human Relations*, *45*(10), 1013-1033.

Branscombe, N. R., & Wann, D. L. (1994). Collective self-esteem consequences of outgroup derogation when a valued social identity is on trial. *European Journal of Social Psychology*, *24*(6), 641-657.

Brocato, E. D. (2007). Place attachment: an investigation of environments and outcomes in a service context. (Doctoral thesis, The University of Texas, Arlington, United States). Retrieved from: https://uta-ir.tdl.org/uta-ir/handle/10106/244

Brown, R., Maras, P., Masser, B., Vivian, J., & Hewstone, M. (2001). Life on the ocean wave: Testing some intergroup hypotheses in a naturalistic setting. *Group Processes & Intergroup Relations*, *4*(2), 81-97.

Brown, T., & Suter, T. (2010). MR. South-Western: Cengage Learning

Brown, T.A. (2006). *Confirmatory Factor Analysis for Applied Research*. New York: The Guilford Press B

Browne, M. W., & Cudeck, R. (1993). Alternative ways of assessing model fit. *Sage focus editions*, *154*, 136-136.

Cameron, J. E. (1999). Social identity and the pursuit of possible selves: Implications for the psychological well-being of university students. *Group Dynamics: Theory, Research, and Practice*, *3*(3), 179.

Cameron, J. E. (2004). A three-factor model of social identity. *Self and identity*, *3*(3), 239-262.

Campbell, D. T., & Fiske, D. W. (1959). Convergent and discriminant validation by the multitrait-multimethod matrix. *Psychological bulletin*, *56*(2), 81-105

Carroll, B. A., & Ahuvia, A. C. (2006). Some antecedents and outcomes of brand love. *Marketing letters*, *17*(2), 79-89.

Chavanat, N., Martinent, G., & Ferrand, A. (2009). Sponsor and sponsees interactions: Effects on consumers' perceptions of brand image, brand attachment, and purchasing intention. *Journal of Sport Management*, *23*(5), 644-670.

Chien, P. M., Ritchie, B. W., Shipway, R., & Henderson, H. (2011). I am having a dilemma: Factors affecting resident support of event development in the community. *Journal of Travel Research*, *51*(4). 451-463.

Collins, A., Jones, C., & Munday, M. (2009). Assessing the environmental impacts of mega sporting events: Two options?. *Tourism Management*,*30*(6), 828-837.

Cottingham II, M., Chatfield, S., Gearity, B. T., Allen, J. T., & Hall, S. A. (2012). Using points of attachment to examine repatronage and online consumption of wheelchair rugby spectators. *International Journal of Sport Management*, *13*, 1-13.

Crosby, L. A., & Taylor, J. R. (1983). Psychological commitment and its effects on post-decision evaluation and preference stability among voters. *Journal of Consumer Research*, 413-431.

Darwin C. (1998). *The expression of the emotions in man and animals* (3rd ed.).New York: Oxford University Press. (Original work published 1872).

Davis, H., & Mann, B. (2015). Christchurch bids farewell to Richie McCaw and Dan Carter. *Stuff*. Retrieved from: http://www.stuff.co.nz/sport/rugby/super-rugby/68347839/Christchurch-bids-farewell-to-Richie-McCaw-and-Dan-Carter

Dawes, J. G. (2008). Do data characteristics change according to the number of scale points used? An experiment using 5 point, 7 point and 10 point scales. *International journal of market research*, *51*(1).

de Groot, M., & Robinson, T. (2008). Sport fan attachment and the psychological continuum model: A case study of an Australian football league fan. *Leisure/Loisir*, *32*(1), 117-138.

Decrop, A., & Derbaix, C. (2010). Pride in contemporary sport consumption: a marketing perspective. *Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science*, *38*(5), 586-603.

Diener, E. D., Emmons, R. A., Larsen, R. J., & Griffin, S. (1985). The satisfaction with life scale. *Journal of personality assessment*, *49*(1), 71-75.

Dimanche, D. F., Havitz, D. M. E., & Howard, D. D. R. (1991). Testing the involvement profile (IP) scale in the context of selected recreational and touristic activities. *Journal of Leisure Research*, *23*(1), 51-66.

Dimanche, D. F., Havitz, D. M. E., & Howard, D. D. R. (1993). Consumer involvement profiles as a tourism segmentation tool. *Journal of Travel & Tourism Marketing*, *1*(4), 33-52.

Dimmock, J. A., Grove, J. R., & Eklund, R. C. (2005). Reconceptualizing Team Identification: New Dimensions and Their Relationship to Intergroup Bias. *Group Dynamics: Theory, Research, and Practice*, *9*(2), 75-86

Dionisio, P., Leal, C., & Moutinho, L. (2008). Fandom affiliation and tribal behaviour: a sports marketing application. *Qualitative Market Research: An International Journal*, *11*(1), 17-39.

Doyle, J. P., Kunkel, T., & Funk, D. C. (2013). Sports spectator segmentation: examining the differing psychological connections among spectators of leagues and teams. *International Journal of Sports Marketing and Sponsorship*, *14*(2), 20-36.

Dwyer, B., Mudrick, M., Greenhalgh, G., LeCrom, C., Drayer, J. (2015). *The tie that blinds? Developing and validating a scale to measure emotional attachment to a sport team.* Manuscript submitted for publication.

Ellemers, N., Kortekaas, P., & Ouwerkerk, J. W. (1999). Self-categorisation, commitment to the group and group self-esteem as related but distinct aspects of social identity. *European journal of social psychology*, *29*(23), 371-389.

FIFA. (2014) *The 2014 FIFA World Cup in Numbers.* Retrieved from: http://www.fifa.com/mm/document/tournament/competition/02/44/29/89/fifaworldcupinnumbers_120714_v7_eng_neutral.pdf

Filo, K., Funk, D. C., & Hornby, G. (2009). The role of web site content on motive and attitude change for sport events. *Journal of Sport Management*,*23*(1), 21-40.

Filo, K., Funk, D. C., & O'Brien, D. (2010). The antecedents and outcomes of attachment and sponsor image within charity sport events. *Journal of Sport Management*, *24*(6), 623-648

Filo, K., Funk, D. C., & O'Brien, D. (2014). An empirical investigation of the role of camaraderie, cause, competency, and participation motives in the development of attachment to a charity sport event. *Managing Leisure*,*19*(4), 245-262.

Fink, J. S., Trail, G. T., & Anderson, D. F. (2002). An examination of team identification: which motives are most salient to its existence?. *International Sports Journal*, *6*(2), 195-207

Fisher, H. (2000). Lust, attraction, attachment: Biology and evolution of the three primary emotion systems for mating, reproduction, and parenting. *Journal of Sex Education and Therapy*, *25*(1), 96-104.

Fleury-Bahi, G., Félonneau, M. L., & Marchand, D. (2008). Processes of place identification and residential satisfaction. *Environment and Behavior*. *40*(5). 1-14.

Folkes, V. S., Koletsky, S., & Graham, J. L. (1987). A field study of causal inferences and consumer reaction: the view from the airport. *Journal of consumer research*, *13*(4). 534-539.

Fornell, C., & Larcker, D. F. (1981). Evaluating structural equation models with unobservable variables and measurement error. *Journal of marketing research*, *18*(1), 39-50.

Fredrickson, B. L. (2001). The role of positive emotions in positive psychology: The broaden-and-build theory of positive emotions. *American psychologist*, *56*(3), 218-226

Fullerton, S., & Merz, G. R. (2008). The four domains of sports marketing: A conceptual framework. *Sport Marketing Quarterly*, *17*(2), 90-108

Funches, V. (2011). The consumer anger phenomena: causes and consequences. *Journal of Services Marketing*, *25*(6), 420-428.

Funk, D. C., & James, J. (2001). The psychological continuum model: A conceptual framework for understanding an individual's psychological connection to sport. *Sport Management Review*, *4*(2), 119-150.

Funk, D. C., & James, J. D. (2006). Consumer loyalty: The meaning of attachment in the development of sport team allegiance. *Journal of Sport Management*, *20*(2), 189-217

Funk, D. C., Ridinger, L. L., & Moorman, A. M. (2004). Exploring origins of involvement: Understanding the relationship between consumer motives and involvement with professional sport teams. *Leisure Sciences*, *26*(1), 35-61.

Gantz, W., Wang, Z., Paul, B., & Potter, R. F. (2006). Sports versus all comers: Comparing TV sports fans with fans of other programming genres. *Journal of Broadcasting & Electronic Media*, *50*(1), 95-118.

Garg, N., Wansink, B., & Inman, J. J. (2007). The influence of incidental affect on consumers' food intake. *Journal of Marketing*, *71*(1), 194-206.

Gelbrich, K. (2010). Anger, frustration, and helplessness after service failure: coping strategies and effective informational support. *Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science*, *38*(5), 567-585.

Gencer, R. T. (2015). Spectator Motives and Points of Attachment: Gender Differences in Professional Football. *Anthropologist*, *19*(1), 77-85.

Gencer, R., Kiremitci, O., & Boyacioglu, H. (2011). Spectator motives and points of attachment: An investigation on professional basketball. *Journal of human kinetics*, *30*, 189-196.

Gibson, H., Willming, C., & Holdnak, A. (2002). " We're Gators... not just Gator fans": Serious leisure and University of Florida football. *Journal of Leisure Research*, *34*(4), 397-425

Giese, J. L., & Cote, J. A. (2000). Defining consumer satisfaction. *Academy of marketing science review*, *2000*(1), 1-24

Giulianotti, R. (2002). Supporters, followers, fans, and flaneurs A taxonomy of spectator identities in football. *Journal of Sport & Social Issues*, *26*(1), 25-46.

Gladden, J. M., & Funk, D. C. (2002). Developing an understanding of brand associations in team sport: Empirical evidence from consumers of professional sport. *Journal of Sport management*, *16*(1), 54-81.

Gladden, J. M., Milne, G. R., & Sutton, W. A. (1998). A Conceptual Framework for Assessing Brand Equity in Division I College Athletics. *Journal of Sport Management*, *12*(1), 1-19

Graen, G., Novak, M. A., & Sommerkamp, P. (1982). The effects of leader—member exchange and job design on productivity and satisfaction: Testing a dual attachment model. *Organizational behavior and human performance*, *30*(1), 109-131.

Gray, G. T., & Wert-Gray, S. (2012). Customer retention in sports organization marketing: examining the impact of team identification and satisfaction with team performance. *International Journal of Consumer Studies*, *36*(3), 275-281.

Grove, S. J., Pickett, G. M., Jones, S. A., & Dorsch, M. J. (2012). Spectator rage as the dark side of engaging sport fans: Implications for service marketers. *Journal of Service Research*, 1-18.

Gursoy, D., & Kendall, K. W. (2006). Hosting mega events: Modeling locals' support. *Annals of Tourism Research*, *33*(3), 603-623.

Gwinner, K., & Swanson, S. R. (2003). A model of fan identification: Antecedents and sponsorship outcomes. *Journal of services marketing*,*17*(3), 275-294.

H. Tsiotsou, R. (2013). Sport team loyalty: integrating relationship marketing and a hierarchy of effects. *Journal of Services Marketing*, *27*(6), 458-471.

Hair, J.F., Black, W.C., Babin, B.J., & Anderson, R.E. (2010). *Multivariate Data Analysis*. Seventh Edition. Prentice Hall, Upper Saddle River, New Jersey.

Hansen, H., & Gauthier, R. (1989). Factors affecting attendance at professional sport events. *Journal of sport management*, *3*(1), 15-32.

Hazan, C., & Shaver, P. (1987). Romantic love conceptualized as an attachment process. *Journal of personality and social psychology*, *52*(3), 511-524

Hendrick, S. S., Hendrick, C., & Adler, N. L. (1988). Romantic relationships: Love, satisfaction, and staying together. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, *54*(6), 980-988

Hennig-Thurau, T., Groth, M., Paul, M., & Gremler, D. D. (2006). Are all smiles created equal? How emotional contagion and emotional labor affect service relationships. *Journal of Marketing*, *70*(3), 58-73.

Hernández, B., Hidalgo, M. C., Salazar-Laplace, M. E., & Hess, S. (2007). Place attachment and place identity in natives and non-natives. *Journal of Environmental Psychology*, *27*(4), 310-319.

Hershberger, S. L. (2003). The growth of structural equation modeling: 1994-2001. *Structural Equation Modeling*, *10*(1), 35-46.

Hinds, R. (2015). Rugby World Cup: Richard Hinds details the All Blacks' history of choking. *The Daily Telegraph.* Retrieved from: http://www.dailytelegraph.com.au/sport/rugby/rugby-world-cup-richard-hinds-details-the-all-blacks-history-of-choking/news-story/70573aab4450ebb794286be8fc360515

Hirt, E. R., Zillmann, D., Erickson, G. A., & Kennedy, C. (1992). Costs and benefits of allegiance: Changes in fans' self-ascribed competencies after team victory versus defeat. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, *63*(5), 724-738.

Holbrook, M. B., & Batra, R. (1987). Assessing the role of emotions as mediators of consumer responses to advertising. *Journal of Consumer Research*, 404-420.

Hooper, D., Coughlan, J., & Mullen, M. (2008). Structural equation modelling: Guidelines for determining model fit. *Articles*, 53-6

Hope, W. (2002). Whose all blacks?. *Media, Culture & Society*, *24*(2), 235-253.

Hu, L. T., & Bentler, P. M. (1999). Cutoff criteria for fit indexes in covariance structure analysis: Conventional criteria versus new alternatives. *Structural Equation Modeling: a Multidisciplinary Journal*, *6*(1), 1-55.

Hunt, K. A., Bristol, T., & Bashaw, R. E. (1999). A conceptual approach to classifying sports fans. *Journal of Services Marketing*, *13*(6), 439-452.

Hwang, S. N., Lee, C., & Chen, H. J. (2005). The relationship among tourists' involvement, place attachment and interpretation satisfaction in Taiwan's national parks. *Tourism Management*, *26*(2), 143-156.

Internet Service Provider Survey. 2014. *Statistics New Zealand.* Retrieved from: http://www.stats.govt.nz/browse_for_stats/industry_sectors/information_technology_and_communications/ISPSurvey_HOTP2014/Commentary.aspx

Jackson, D. L., Gillaspy Jr, J. A., & Purc-Stephenson, R. (2009). Reporting practices in confirmatory factor analysis: an overview and some recommendations. *Psychological Methods*, *14*(1), 6-23

Jackson, J. W. (2002). Intergroup attitudes as a function of different dimensions of group identification and perceived intergroup conflict. *Self and Identity*, *1*(1), 11-33.

Jackson, S. A. (2000). Joy, fun, and flow state in sport. In Y. Hanin (Eds), *Emotions in Sport*, 135-155. United States, Human Kinetics.

Jackson, S. J., & Hokowhitu, B. (2002). Sport, Tribes, and Technology: The New Zealand all Blacks Haka and the Politics of Identity. *Journal of Sport & Social Issues*, *26*(2), 125-139.

Jacobson, B. (2003). Rooting for Laundry: An Examination of the Creation and Maintenance of a Sport Fan Identity Unpublished PhD, University of Connecticut.

Jacoby, J., & Chestnut, R. W. (1978). *Brand loyalty: Measurement and management.* New York, New York: Wiley

Japutra, A., Ekinci, Y., & Simkin, L. (2014). Exploring brand attachment, its determinants and outcomes. *Journal of Strategic Marketing, 22*(7), 616-630.

Jones, M. A., & Suh, J. (2000). Transaction-specific satisfaction and overall satisfaction: an empirical analysis. *Journal of Services Marketing, 14*(2), 147-159.

Jones, T.O. and Sasser, W.E. (1995), ``Why satisfied customer defects'', *Harvard Business Review*, November-December, pp. 88-99.

Kapferer, J. N., & Laurent, G. (1985). Consumer involvement profiles: a new and practical approach to consumer involvement. *Journal of Advertising Research. 25*(6), 48-56

Kaplanidou, K. K., Karadakis, K., Gibson, H., Thapa, B., Walker, M., Geldenhuys, S., & Coetzee, W. (2013). Quality of life, event impacts, and mega-event support among South African residents before and after the 2010 FIFA world cup. *Journal of Travel Research*, *52*(5), 631-645.

Kerr, J. H., Wilson, G. V., Nakamura, I., & Sudo, Y. (2005). Emotional dynamics of soccer fans at winning and losing games. *Personality and Individual Differences*, *38*(8), 1855-1866.

Kerstetter, D. L., & Kovich, G. M. (1997). An Involvement Profile of Division I Women's Basket-ball Spectators. *Journal of Sport Management*, *11*(3), 234-249.

Kim, H. R., Lee, M., & Ulgado, F. M. (2005). Brand personality, self-congruity and the consumer-brand relationship. *Asia Pacific Advances in Consumer Research*, *6*(1), 111-117.

Kim, Y. M., & Kim, S. (2009). The relationships between team attributes, team identification and sponsor image. *International Journal of Sports Marketing and Sponsorship*, *10*(3), 18-32.

Kline, R. B. (2015). *Principles and practice of structural equation modeling*. Guilford publications.

Knobloch-Westerwick, S., David, P., Eastin, M. S., Tamborini, R., & Greenwood, D. (2009). Sports spectators' suspense: Affect and uncertainty in sports entertainment. *Journal of Communication*, *59*(4), 750-767.

Koch, J. L., & Steers, R. M. (1978). Job attachment, satisfaction, and turnover among public sector employees. *Journal of vocational behavior,12*(1), 119-128.

Koo, G. Y., Hardin, R., McClung, S.,Jung, T., Cronin, J., Vorhees, C., & Bourdeau, B. (2009). Examination of the causal effects between the dimensions of service quality and spectator satisfaction in minor league baseball. *International Journal of Sports Marketing and Sponsorship*, *11*(1), 41-54.

Kuenzel, S., & Yassim, M. (2007). The effect of joy on the behaviour of cricket spectators: The mediating role of satisfaction. *Managing Leisure,12*(1), 43-57.

Kwak, D. H., Kim, Y. K., & Hirt, E. R. (2011). Exploring the role of emotions on sport consumers' behavioral and cognitive responses to marketing stimuli. *European Sport Management Quarterly*, *11*(3), 225-250.

Kwon, H. H., Trail, G. T., & Anderson, D. S. (2005). Are multiple points of attachment necessary to predict cognitive, affective, conative, or behavioral loyalty?. *Sport Management Review*, *8*(3), 255-270.

Lambert-Pandraud, R., & Laurent, G. (2010). Why do older consumers buy older brands? The role of attachment and declining innovativeness. *Journal of Marketing*, *74*(5), 104-121.

Laros, F. J., & Steenkamp, J. B. E. (2005). Emotions in consumer behavior: a hierarchical approach. *Journal of business Research*, *58*(10), 1437-1445.

Laverie, D. A., & Arnett, D. B. (2000). Factors affecting fan attendance: The influence of identity salience and satisfaction. *Journal of leisure Research,32*(2), 225-246

Lazarus, R. S. (1991). Progress on a cognitive-motivational-relational theory of emotion. *American Psychologist*, *46*(8), 819-834

Lea, S. E., & Webley, P. (1997). Pride in economic psychology. *Journal of Economic Psychology*, *18*(2), 323-340.

Lee, C. K., & Taylor, T. (2005). Critical reflections on the economic impact assessment of a mega-event: the case of 2002 FIFA World Cup. *Tourism management*, *26*(4), 595-603.

Lee, C., & Allen, L. (1999). Understanding individuals' attachment to selected destinations: an application of place attachment. *Tourism Analysis*,*4*(3/4), 173-185.

Lee, I. S., Lee, T. J., & Arcodia, C. (2014). The effect of community attachment on cultural festival visitors' satisfaction and future intentions. *Current Issues in Tourism*, *17*(9), 800-812.

Lee, J. (2003). *Examining the antecedents of loyalty in a forest setting: Relationships among service quality, satisfaction, activity involvement, place attachment, and destination loyalty* (Doctoral thesis, The Pennsylvania State University, Pennsylvania, United States). Retrieved from: http://search.proquest.com.ezproxy.canterbury.ac.nz/docview/304281542?pq-origsite=summon&accountid=14499

Lee, J. J., Kyle, G., & Scott, D. (2012). The mediating effect of place attachment on the relationship between festival satisfaction and loyalty to the festival hosting destination. *Journal of Travel Research*, *51*(6). 754-767.

Lemyre, L., & Smith, P. M. (1985). Intergroup discrimination and self-esteem in the minimal group paradigm. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, *49*(3), 660-670

Lerner, J. S., Small, D. A., & Loewenstein, G. (2004). Heart strings and purse strings carryover effects of emotions on economic decisions. *Psychological Science*, *15*(5), 337-341.

Li, X. R., Hsu, C. H., & Lawton, L. J. (2015). Understanding Residents' Perception Changes toward a Mega-Event through a Dual-Theory Lens. *Journal of Travel Research*, *54*(3), 396-410.

Lock, D., & Filo, K. (2012). The downside of being irrelevant and aloof: Exploring why individuals do not attend sport. *Sport Management Review*,*15*(2), 187-199.

Lock, D., Taylor, T., Funk, D., & Darcy, S. (2012). Exploring the development of team identification. *Journal of Sport Management*, *26*(4), 283-294.

Loureiro, S. M. C., Ruediger, K. H., & Demetris, V. (2012). Brand emotional connection and loyalty. *Journal of Brand Management*, *20*(1), 13-27.

Louro, M. J., Pieters, R., & Zeelenberg, M. (2005). Negative returns on positive emotions: The influence of pride and self-regulatory goals on repurchase decisions. *Journal of Consumer Research*, *31*(4), 833-840.

Madrigal, R. (1995). Cognitive and affective determinants of fan satisfaction. *Journal of Leisure Research*, *27*(3), 205.

Mael, F., & Ashforth, B. E. (1992). Alumni and their alma mater: A partial test of the reformulated model of organizational identification. *Journal of organizational Behavior*, *13*(2), 103-123.

Mahony, D. F., Madrigal, R., & Howard, D. A. (2000). Using the psychological commitment to team (PCT) scale to segment sport consumers based on loyalty. *Sport Marketing Quarterly*, *9*(1), 15-25.

Mahony, D. F., Nakazawa, M., Funk, D. C., James, J. D., & Gladden, J. M. (2002). Motivational factors influencing the behaviour of J. League spectators. *Sport Management Review*, *5*(1), 1-24.

Malär, L., Krohmer, H., Hoyer, W. D., & Nyffenegger, B. (2011). Emotional brand attachment and brand personality: The relative importance of the actual and the ideal self. *Journal of Marketing*, *75*(4), 35-52.

Mann, L. (1974). On being a sore loser: How fans react to their team's failure. *Australian Journal of Psychology*, *26*(1), 37-47.

Mano, H., & Oliver, R. L. (1993). Assessing the dimensionality and structure of the consumption experience: evaluation, feeling, and satisfaction. *Journal of Consumer Research*, 20(3). 451-466.

Marsh, H. W., Hau, K. T., & Wen, Z. (2004). In search of golden rules: Comment on hypothesis-testing approaches to setting cutoff values for fit indexes and dangers in overgeneralizing Hu and Bentler's (1999) findings.*Structural equation modeling*, *11*(3), 320-341.

Mason, D. (1999). What is the sports product and who buys it? The marketing of professional sports leagues. *European Journal of Marketing*, *33*(3/4), 402-419.

Matsuoka, H., Chelladurai, P., & Harada, M. (2003). Direct and Interaction Effects of Team Identification and Satisfaction on Intention to Attend Games. *Sport Marketing Quarterly*, *12*(4).

Mehrabian, A., & Russell, J. A. (1974). The basic emotional impact of environments. *Perceptual and Motor Skills*, *38*(1), 283-301.

Menon, K., & Dube, L. (2004). Service provider responses to anxious and angry customers: different challenges, different payoffs. *Journal of Retailing*, *80*(3), 229-237.

Milano, M., & Chelladurai, P. (2011). Gross domestic sport product: The size of the sport industry in the United States. *Journal of Sport Management*,*25*(1), 24-35.

Mittal, B., & Lee, M. S. (1989). A causal model of consumer involvement. *Journal of Economic Psychology*, *10*(3), 363-389.

Mogilner, C., Aaker, J., & Kamvar, S. D. (2012). How happiness affects choice. *Journal of Consumer Research*, *39*(2), 429-443.

Mulligan, K., & Scherer, K. R. (2012). Toward a working definition of emotion. *Emotion Review*, *4*(4), 345-357.

Nabi, R. L. (2010). The case for emphasizing discrete emotions in communication research. *Communication Monographs*, *77*(2), 153-159.

No other team is burdened by World Cup expectations like the All Blacks - Steve Hansen. 2015. *TVNZ.* Retrieved from: https://www.tvnz.co.nz/one-news/sport/rugby/-no-other-team-is-burdened-by-world-cup-expectations-like-the-all-blacks-steve-hansen-q08747

Nyer, P. U. (1997). A study of the relationships between cognitive appraisals and consumption emotions. *Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science*, *25*(4), 296-304.

Oakes, P. J., & Turner, J. C. (1980). Social categorization and intergroup behaviour: Does minimal intergroup discrimination make social identity more positive?. *European Journal of Social Psychology*, *10*(3), 295-301.

Oliver R. L. (1997). Satisfaction: A behavioral perspective on the consumer. *New York ˈ NY: Irwin-McGraw-Hill*.

Oliver, R. L. (1980). A cognitive model of the antecedents and consequences of satisfaction decisions. *Journal of Marketing Research*, *17*(4). 460-469.

Oliver, R. L. (1993). Cognitive, affective, and attribute bases of the satisfaction response. *Journal of Consumer Research*, 418-430.

Olney, T. J., Holbrook, M. B., & Batra, R. (1991). Consumer responses to advertising: The effects of ad content, emotions, and attitude toward the ad on viewing time. *Journal of consumer research*, 440-453.

Olson, J. C., & Jacoby, J. (1971). A construct validation study of brand loyalty. In *Proceedings of the Annual Convention of the American Psychological Association*. American Psychological Association.

O'Reilly, C. A., & Chatman, J. (1986). Organizational commitment and psychological attachment: The effects of compliance, identification, and internalization on prosocial behavior. *Journal of applied psychology*, *71*(3), 492-499

Parasuraman, A., Zeithaml, V. A., & Berry, L. L. (1994). Reassessment of expectations as a comparison standard in measuring service quality: implications for further research. T*he Journal of Marketing*, *58*(1). 111-124.

Park, C. W., MacInnis, D. J., & Priester, J. R. (2006). Beyond attitudes: Attachment and consumer behavior. *Seoul National Journal*, *12*(2), 3-36.

Park, C., MacInnis, D. J., Priester, J., Eisingerich, A. B., & Iacobucci, D. (2010). Brand attachment and brand attitude strength: Conceptual and empirical differentiation of two critical brand equity drivers. *Journal of Marketing*, *74*(6), 1-17.

Paul, G. (2015). RWC 15: The people's All Blacks have nothing to fear. *The Irish Times.* Retrieved from: http://www.irishtimes.com/sport/rugby/international/rwc-15-the-people-s-all-blacks-have-nothing-to-fear-1.2344510

Petrescu, M. (2013). Marketing research using single-item indicators in structural equation models. *Journal of Marketing Analytics*, *1*, 99-117

Petrick, J. F., Backman, S. J., & Bixler, R. D. (1999). An Investigation of Selected Factors' Impact on Golfer Satisfaction and Perceived Value.*Journal of Park & Recreation Administration*, *17*(1).40-59

Pooley, J. C. (1978). *The sport fan: A social-psychology of misbehaviour*. Sociology of Sport Monograph Series. Calgary: Capher

Prayag, G., & Ryan, C. (2012). Antecedents of tourists' loyalty to Mauritius The role and influence of destination image, place attachment, personal involvement, and satisfaction. *Journal of Travel Research*, *51*(3), 342-356.

Prayag, G., Hosany, S., & Odeh, K. (2013). The role of tourists' emotional experiences and satisfaction in understanding behavioral intentions. *Journal of Destination Marketing & Management*, *2*(2), 118-127.

Prayag, G., Hosany, S., Muskat, B., & Del Chiappa, G. (2015). Understanding the Relationships between Tourists' Emotional Experiences, Perceived Overall Image, Satisfaction, and Intention to Recommend. *Journal of Travel Research*,

Prayag, G., Hosany, S., Nunkoo, R., & Alders, T. (2013). London residents' support for the 2012 Olympic Games: The mediating effect of overall attitude. *Tourism Management*, *36*, 629-640.

Rageh Ismail, A., & Spinelli, G. (2012). Effects of brand love, personality and image on word of mouth: The case of fashion brands among young consumers. *Journal of Fashion Marketing and Management: An International Journal*, *16*(4), 386-398.

Ramkissoon, H., & Mavondo, F. T. (2015). The satisfaction–place attachment relationship: Potential mediators and moderators. *Journal of Business Research*, *68*(12), 2593-2602.

Ramkissoon, H., Smith, L. D. G., & Weiler, B. (2013). Testing the dimensionality of place attachment and its relationships with place satisfaction and pro-environmental behaviours: A structural equation modelling approach. *Tourism Management*, *36*, 552-566.

Reason, M. (2015). Mark Reason: Of all the World Cups played on foreign soil, NZ should win this one. *Stuff*. Retrieved from:

http://www.stuff.co.nz/sport/rugby/opinion/71953936/Mark-Reason-Of-all-the-World-Cups-played-on-foreign-soil-NZ-should-win-this-one

Renaud, S. M., & Zacchia, C. (2013). Toward a definition of affective instability. *Harvard Review of Psychiatry*, *20*(6), 298-308.

Riazi, A. M. (2016). The Routledge Encyclopedia of Research Methods in Applied Linguistics. Routledge.

Richins, M. L. (1987). A multivariate analysis of responses to dissatisfaction. *Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science*, *15*(3), 24-31.

Riketta, M., & Van Dick, R. (2005). Foci of attachment in organizations: A meta-analytic comparison of the strength and correlates of workgroup versus organizational identification and commitment. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, *67*(3), 490-510.

Robinson, M. J., & Trail, G. T. (2005). Relationships among spectator gender, motives, points of attachment, and sport preference. *Journal of Sport Management*, *19*(1), 58-80.

Robinson, M. J., Trail, G. T., & Kwon, H. (2004). Motives and points of attachment of professional golf spectators. *Sport Management Review*, *7*(2), 167-192.

Roest, H., & Pieters, R. (1997). The nomological net of perceived service quality. *International Journal of Service Industry Management*, *8*(4), 336-351.

Rollero, C., & De Piccoli, N. (2010). Place attachment, identification and environment perception: An empirical study. *Journal of Environmental Psychology*, *30*(2), 198-205.

Rosenblatt, A. D. (1988). Envy, identification, and pride. *The Psychoanalytic quarterly*. *57*(1), 56-71.

Rubinstein, R. I., & Parmelee, P. A. (1992). Attachment to place and the representation of the life course by the elderly. In *Place attachment* (pp. 139-163). Springer US.

Sack, A. L., & Suster, Z. (2000). Soccer and Croatian nationalism a prelude to war. *Journal of Sport & Social Issues*, *24*(3), 305-320.

Schimmel, K. S. (2006). Deep play: sports mega-events and urban social conditions in the USA. *The Sociological Review*, *54*(s2), 160-174.

Schmalz, S., & Orth, U. R. (2012). Brand attachment and consumer emotional response to unethical firm behavior. *Psychology & Marketing*,*29*(11), 869-884.

Schultz, S. E., Kleine, R. E., & Kernan, J. B. (1989). 'These are a few of my favorite things': Toward an explication of attachment as a consumer behavior construct. *Advances in Consumer Research*, *16*(1), 359-366.

Scott, D., & Vitartas, P. (2008). The Role of involvement and attachment in satisfaction with local government services. International Journal of Public Sector Management, 21(1), 45–57.

Sen, S., Johnson, A. R., Bhattacharya, C. B., & Wang, J. (2015). Identification and Attachment in Consumer-Brand Relationships. In *Brand Meaning Management, Review of Marketing Research Volume 12*, 151-174.

Shaver, P., Schwartz, J., Kirson, D., & O'connor, C. (1987). Emotion knowledge: further exploration of a prototype approach. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, *52*(6), 1061-1086

Shields, S. A. (1984). Reports of bodily change in anxiety, sadness, and anger. *Motivation and Emotion*, *8*(1), 1-21.

Söderlund, M., & Rosengren, S. (2004). Dismantling" positive affect" and its effects on customer satisfaction: an empirical examination of customer joy in a service encounter. *Journal of Consumer Satisfaction, Dissatisfaction and Complaining Behavior*, *17*. 27-41.

Soscia, I. (2007). Gratitude, delight, or guilt: The role of consumers' emotions in predicting postconsumption behaviors. *Psychology & Marketing*, *24*(10), 871-894.

Soscia, I. (2013). *Emotions and consumption behaviour*. Northampton, Massachusetts. Edward Elgar Publishing.

Steiger, J. H. (1990). Structural model evaluation and modification: An interval estimation approach. *Multivariate Behavioral Research*, *25*(2), 173-180.

Storm, C., & Storm, T. (1987). A taxonomic study of the vocabulary of emotions. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, *53*(4), 805-816

Struch, N., & Schwartz, S. H. (1989). Intergroup aggression: its predictors and distinctness from in-group bias. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, *56*(3), 364-373.

Suhr, D. (2006). Exploratory or Confirmatory Factor Analysis. SAS Users Group International Conference (pp. 1 - 17). Cary: SAS Institute, Inc.

Sutton, W. A., & Parrett, I. (1992). Marketing the core product in professional team sports in the United States. *Sport Marketing Quarterly*, *1*(2), 7-19.

Tabachnick, B.G. and Fidell, L.S. (2007), *Using Multivariate Statistics* (5th ed.). New York: Allyn and Bacon.

Tajfel, H. (1978). *Differentiation between social groups*. London: Academic Press.

Tajfel, H. (1981). *Human groups and social categories: Studies in social psychology*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press

Tajfel, H., & Turner, J. C. (1979). An integrative theory of intergroup conflict. In W. Austin & S. Worchel (Eds.), The social psychology of intergroup relations (pp. 33-48). Pacific Grove, CA: Brooks/Cole

Tajfel, H., & Turner, J. C. (1986). The social identity theory of intergroup behavior. In S. Worchel & W. Austin (Eds.), Psychology of intergroup relations (pp. 7-24). Chicago, IL: Nelson-Hall.

Tajfel, H., Billig, M. G., Bundy, R. P., & Flament, C. (1971). Social categorization and intergroup behaviour. *European Journal of Social Psychology*, *1*(2), 149-178.

Tangney, J. P. E., & Fischer, K. W. (1995). Self-conscious emotions: The psychology of shame, guilt, embarrassment, and pride. New York, NY, US: Guilford Press

Theodorakis, N., Kambitsis, C., & Laios, A. (2001). Relationship between measures of service quality and satisfaction of spectators in professional sports. *Managing Service Quality: An International Journal*, *11*(6), 431-438.

Thoits, P. A., & Virshup, L. K. (1997). Me's and we's. R, Ashmore & L, Jussim (Eds.), In *Self and identity: Fundamental issues* (pp. 106-133). New York, New York: Oxford University Press.

Thomson, M. (2006). Human brands: Investigating antecedents to consumers' strong attachments to celebrities. *Journal of Marketing*, *70*(3), 104-119.

Thomson, M., MacInnis, D. J., & Park, C. W. (2005). The ties that bind: Measuring the strength of consumers' emotional attachments to brands. *Journal of consumer psychology*, *15*(1), 77-91.

Tracy, J. L., & Robins, R. W. (2004). " Putting the Self Into Self-Conscious Emotions: A Theoretical Model". *Psychological Inquiry*, *15*(2), 103-125.

Trail, G. T., & James, J. D. (2001). The motivation scale for sport consumption: Assessment of the scale's psychometric properties. *Journal of Sport Behavior*, *24*(1), 108-127

Trail, G. T., Anderson, D. F., & Fink, J. S. (2000). A theoretical model of sport spectator consumption behavior. *International Journal of Sport Management*, *1*(3), 154-180.

Trail, G. T., Anderson, D. F., & Fink, J. S. (2005). Consumer Satisfaction and Identity Theory: A Model of Sport Spectator Conative Loyalty. *Sport Marketing Quarterly*, *14*(2). 98-111

Trail, G. T., Robinson, M. J., Dick, R. J., & Gillentine, A. J. (2003). Motives and Points of Attachment: Fans Versus Spectators in Intercollegiate Athletics. *Sport Marketing Quarterly*, *12*(4), 217-227

Tsiotsou, R., & Alexandris, K. (2009). Delineating the outcomes of sponsorship: sponsor image, word of mouth, and purchase intentions. *International Journal of Retail & Distribution Management*, *37*(4), 358-369.

Tsuji, Y., Bennett, G., & Zhang, J. (2007). Consumer satisfaction with an action sports event. *Sport Marketing Quarterly*, *16*(4), 199-208

Turner, J. C., Brown, R. J., & Tajfel, H. (1979). Social comparison and group interest in ingroup favouritism. *European Journal of Social Psychology*, *9*(2), 187-204.

Uhrich, S., & Koenigstorfer, J. (2009). Effects of atmosphere at major sports events: A perspective from environmental psychology. *International Journal of Sports Marketing and Sponsorship*, *10*(4), 56-75.

Van Leeuwen, L., Quick, S., & Daniel, K. (2002). The sport spectator satisfaction model: A conceptual framework for understanding the satisfaction of spectators. *Sport Management Review*, *5*(2), 99-128.

Van Steenburg, E., Spears, N., & Fabrize, R. O. (2013). Point of purchase or point of frustration? Consumer frustration tendencies and response in a retail setting. *Journal of Consumer Behaviour*, *12*(5), 389-400.

Vlachos, P. A., Theotokis, A., Pramatari, K., & Vrechopoulos, A. (2010). Consumer-retailer emotional attachment: Some antecedents and the moderating role of attachment anxiety. *European Journal of Marketing*,*44*(9/10), 1478-1499.

Wakefield, K. L., & Blodgett, J. G. (1994). The importance of servicescapes in leisure service settings. *Journal of Services Marketing*, *8*(3), 66-76.

Wall, J. (2015). Party time for the All Blacks leaving the team behind. *Radio New Zealand.* Retrieved from: http://www.radionz.co.nz/news/sport/288288/an-after-party-for-the-record-books

Wann, D. L. (2006). The causes and consequences of sport team identification. *Handbook of sports and media*, 331-352.

Wann, D. L., & Branscombe, N. R. (1990). Die-hard and fair-weather fans: Effects of identification on BIRGing and CORFing tendencies. *Journal of Sport & Social Issues*, *14*(2), 103-117.

Wann, D. L., & Branscombe, N. R. (1992). Emotional responses to the sports page. *Journal of Sport & Social Issues*, *16*(1), 49-64.

Wann, D. L., & Branscombe, N. R. (1993). Sports fans: Measuring degree of identification with their team. *International Journal of Sport Psychology*. *24*(1), 1-17

Wann, D. L., & Pierce, S. (2003). Measuring Sport Team Identification and Commitment: An Empirical Comparison of the Sport Spectator Identification Scale and the

Psychological Commitment to Team Scale. *North American Journal of Psychology*, *5*(3).

Wann, D. L., Bayens, C., & Driver, A. (2004). Likelihood of attending a sporting event as a function of ticket scarcity and team identification. *Sport marketing quarterly*, *13*(4), 209-215.

Wann, D. L., Ensor, C. L., & Bilyeu, J. K. (2001). Intrinsic and extrinsic motives for originally following a sport team and team identification. *Perceptual and motor skills*, *93*(2), 451-454.

Wann, D. L., Hunter, J. L., Ryan, J. A., & Wright, L. A. (2001). The relationship between team identification and willingness of sport fans to consider illegally assisting their team. *Social Behavior and Personality: An International Journal*, *29*(6), 531-536.

Wann, D. L., Melnick, M. J., Russell, G. W., & Pease, D. G. (2001). *Sport fans: The psychology and social impact of spectators*. Routledge.

Wann, D. L., Royalty, J. L., & Rochelle, A. R. (2002). Using motivation and team identfication to predict sport fans' emotional responses to team performance. *Journal of Sport Behavior*, *25*(2), 207-216

Wann, D. L., Waddill, P. J., & Dunham, M. D. (2004). Using sex and gender role orientation to predict level of sport fandom. *Journal of Sport Behavior*,*27*(4), 367-377

Wann, D.L., Dolan, T.J., McGeorge, K.K., & Allison, J.A. (1994). Relationships between spectator identification and spectators' perceptions of influence, spectators' emotions, and competition outcome. *Journal of Sport & Exercise Psychology*, *16*, 347-364.

Watson, D., & Clark, L. A. (1984). Negative affectivity: the disposition to experience aversive emotional states. *Psychological bulletin*, *96*(3), 465-490.

Weiner, B. (1985). An attributional theory of achievement motivation and emotion. *Psychological review*, *92*(4), 548-573

Westbrook, R. A. (1987). Product/consumption-based affective responses and postpurchase processes. *Journal of marketing research*, 258-270.

Westbrook, R. A., & Oliver, R. L. (1991). The dimensionality of consumption emotion patterns and consumer satisfaction. *Journal of Consumer Research, 18*(1). 84-91.

Weston, R., & Gore, P. A. (2006). A brief guide to structural equation modeling. *The Counseling Psychologist, 34*(5), 719-751.

Whang, Y. O., Allen, J., Sahoury, N., & Zhang, H. (2004). Falling in love with a product: The structure of a romantic consumer-product relationship. *Advances in Consumer Research, 31*(1), 320-327.

Wickham, T.D. (2001). Attachment to places and activities: the relationship of psychological constructs to customer satisfaction. (Doctoral Thesis, The Pennsylvania State University, Pennsylvania, United States). Retrieved from: http://psycnet.apa.org/psycinfo/2001-95003-034

Williams, L. A., & DeSteno, D. (2008). Pride and perseverance: the motivational role of pride. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 94*(6), 1007-1017

Won, J. U., & Kitamura, K. (2006). Motivational factors affecting sports consumption behavior of K-league and J-league spectators. *International Journal of Sport and Health Science, 4*, 233-251.

Wright, K. B. (2005). Researching Internet-based populations: Advantages and disadvantages of online survey research, online questionnaire authoring software packages, and web survey services. *Journal of Computer-Mediated Communication, 10*(3), 00-00.

Yi, Y. (1990). The effects of contextual priming in print advertisements. *Journal of Consumer Research, 17*(2). 215-222.

Yuksel, A., Yuksel, F., & Bilim, Y. (2010). Destination attachment: Effects on customer satisfaction and cognitive, affective and conative loyalty. *Tourism Management, 31*(2), 274-284.

Zhou, Y., & Ap, J. (2009). Residents' Perceptions towards the Impacts of the Beijing 2008 Olympic Games. *Journal of Travel Research, 48*(1), 78-91.

Zillmann, D., & Paulus, P. B. (1992). *Spectators: Reactions to sports events and effects on athletic performance.* In R. N. Singer, M. Murphey, & L. K. Tennant (Eds.), Handbook on Research in Sport Psychology (pp. 234-269). New York: Macmillan.

# Appendices