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Investigation of involvement in university-affiliated alumni sport fan clubs

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UNIVERSITY OF NORTHERN COLORADO

Greeley, Colorado

The Graduate School

AN INVESTIGATION OF INVOLVEMENT IN
UNIVERSITY-AFFILIATED ALUMNI
SPORT FAN CLUBS

A Dissertation Submitted in Partial Fulfillment
of the Requirements for the Degree of
Doctor of Philosophy

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School of Sport and Exercise Science
Sport Administration

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This Dissertation by: Craig Damon Schmitt

Entitled: *An Investigation of Involvement in University-Affiliated Alumni Sport Fan Clubs*

has been approved as meeting the requirement for the Degree of Doctor of Philosophy
in College of Natural & Health Sciences in School of Sport and Exercise Science,
Program of Sport Administration

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ABSTRACT

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Numerous motivations for spectating sport have been studied, with higher levels of motivations found to be consistent with higher fan involvement levels. In addition, many people are connected to a community through their identification with a sports team. University-affiliated alumni sport fan clubs are one community that sport consumers may join. These clubs provide the opportunity to maintain and potentially strengthen their connection to the university's athletic teams. Thus, the purpose of this study was to examine the relationship between sport spectator motivations, as well as team identification, and involvement in a university-affiliated alumni sport fan club. Then, the relationship between involvement and donation intention was examined. Lastly, geographic proximity was tested as a moderator in several of the relationships.

A 53-item online survey was disseminated through presidents of university-affiliated alumni sport fan clubs. A final sample of 296 was analyzed. Prior to analyzing the relationships of interest, confirmatory factor analysis was performed on several multidimensional scales including the Motivation Scale for Sport Consumption (MSSC), Team Identification Scale (TIS), and the Psychological Continuum Model (PCM) staging tool (measures involvement). The seven-factor MSSC and the three-factor TIS showed

overall fit statistics that were considered good. The three-factor PCM staging tool showed an overall fit that was not considered adequate. Because the results of the three-factor involvement model could not be trusted, all further analysis was conducted using the individual dimensions of involvement as well as a total involvement score that showed excellent reliability. Assumptions were assessed prior to the interpretation of results from hierarchical multiple linear regression models used to address the research questions.

Social interaction was related to all dimensions of involvement and total involvement. Clubs provide an opportunity for members to share history about their respective university's athletic programs through reliving shared experiences. While managers tend to stress the importance of winning, involvement in the club appears to have little relationship with the product on the field, but rather with the opportunities to socialize with other alumni. Neither aesthetics nor the athletes' physical skills were found to explain involvement in the clubs. Thus, managers charged with strengthening the alumni fan base through development of these clubs may be more successful by focusing on other aspects of the experience. Escape was related to pleasure while acquisition of knowledge was related to centrality and sign, as well as total involvement. Although in the digital age, access to information is essentially limitless, membership in a university-affiliated alumni sport fan club provides exposure to other people with similar interests and opportunities for a member to acquire knowledge face-to-face.

After controlling for income, alumni status, and age, neither the individual dimensions of involvement nor the total involvement score explained a significant amount of variance in donation intentions. Geographic proximity was not found to moderate any of the relationships of interest.

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

Six Saturdays each fall, in a small town just south of Jacksonville, Florida, over 90,000 friends and strangers alike put their arms around each other while swaying and singing:

We are the boys from old Florida, F-L-O-R-I-D-A.

Where the girls are the fairest, the boys are the squarest of any old state down our way.

We are all strong for old Florida, down where the old Gators play.

In all kinds of weather, we'll all stick together...for F-L-O-R-I-D-A.

While this alone is quite a sight to see, the same ritual is repeated in communities and bars across the country and even the world. Every person singing that song has said countless times, “I am a Gator.” When we first introduce ourselves to strangers, we tend to define our identity through our group memberships whether it is family, religion, work, or sports. Sport team identification provides a connection to a community for many. Importantly, *membership* (i.e., being a fan of a team) requires no special skills or knowledge, just a desire to be. For sport managers, this identification is significant due to the influence it has on fans’ emotions (e.g., self-esteem, psychological health, etc.) and, more importantly for sport managers, fans’ behaviors (e.g., attendance decisions, merchandise purchase decisions, etc.). In short, through expanding our understanding of

how fans identify with their favorite teams, we, as sport managers, can continue to improve our ability to impact sport consumer behavior.

Myriad reasons explain the motivation for sport spectating including the tension and risk fans experience while watching a game (drama/eustress), the feeling of accomplishment if their team wins (achievement/self-esteem), the diversion from daily life (escape), the aesthetics of an athlete's performance, group affiliation (or the reduction of identity uncertainty), the acquisition of knowledge, the physical skills and attractiveness of the athletes, and the opportunity to spend time with family (Trail, Anderson, & Fink, 2000; Trail & James, 2001; Wann, 1995). Overall, higher levels of spectator motivations have been found to be consistent with higher involvement levels of fans (Wann, 1995). More importantly, some motives have been found to be more relevant to identification than others (Trail & James, 2001; Wann, 1995). Similarly, one can imply that some motives would be more relevant than others to a fan's involvement in a university-affiliated alumni sport fan club. While certain motives (e.g., drama, escape, physical skill, and aesthetics) could be met by watching any team, the salience of *their* team may explain the contribution to identification/involvement.

Identification with a sports team contributes to a sport fan's social identity. Social identity is a person's definition of self in a social context (Tajfel, 1978). "Social identity theory specifies how social categorization and social comparison processes work in conjunction with social belief structures to produce specific forms of group behavior" (Hogg & Mullin, 1999, p. 249). A fan's actions (behavior) are influenced or guided by that person's social identity (Tajfel, 1978), and thus by group membership. Social identity focuses on the group as seen in the individual.

As further evidence of the ubiquity of team identification, if you were to walk through the bar district of any metropolitan city in the United States on any given Saturday in the fall, you would be hard pressed not to notice a dizzying array of flags flying from doorways of bars representing university athletics' logos from across the country. These flags represent *home-away-from-home* bars where members of college sport fan clubs gather for game viewing parties. While some clubs are privately organized, many are affiliated with university alumni associations. For example, listed on the University of Florida Alumni Association webpage ("UF Alumni Association," 2013) are over 100 alumni association affiliated Gator Clubs®. These Gator Clubs are located from Florida to Washington, nearly 3,000 miles away from the University of Florida campus, and everywhere in between. In addition to game viewing parties, these alumni sport fan clubs offer a variety of other social opportunities over the course of the calendar year, including young alumni programs, outreach programs, and other social gatherings.

Maintaining and enhancing team identity among fans results in benefits for sport organizations including decreased price sensitivity, decreased performance-outcome sensitivity (Sutton, McDonald, Milne, & Cimperman, 1997), and increased consumption behavior (Fisher & Wakefield, 1998; Theodorakis, Dimmock, Wann, & Barlas, 2010). However, little is known about the motivations for membership in a university-affiliated alumni sport fan club or the behavioral intentions resulting from that membership. Offering opportunities to connect with other fans, for example at game viewing parties, (thus, increasing a person's involvement with the fan club) may be an effective tool to maintain or enhance team identity and positively affect behavioral intention outcomes.

Sports are a social endeavor; fans of sports teams do not consume sport in isolation. Identifying with a sports team presents the opportunity for membership in a social group that brings with it norms, assumptions, biases, and expectations of behavior. Understanding how sport social groups are formed, why sport social groups are formed, and ultimately how membership in sport social groups results in behavioral intentions provides the foundation on which sport marketers can further understand sport consumer behavior, and sport organizations can better understand their fans.

Statement of Problem

The purpose of this study is to examine the relationships between spectator motivations, team identification, involvement in a university-affiliated alumni sport fan club, and intentions to financially donate to the academic institution. Previous research has attempted to compile an exhaustive list of spectator and/or fan motivations (e.g., Robinson & Trail, 2005; Sloan, 1989; Wann, 1995). However, researchers differ in their belief of either the congruency or distinction of the terms *fan* and *spectator* (Trail, Robinson, Dick, & Gillentine, 2003). Fan, short for fanatic, may be “more descriptive of the enthusiastic devotee of a given diversion” (Sloan, 1989, p. 177). Thus, *fan* can be interpreted as a subset of *spectators*. In other words, all fans are spectators, but not all spectators are fans. In addition, the current study accounted for spectators being fans by measuring the level of team identification of participants. Therefore, the term *spectator* is used in this study when discussing consumer motivations.

Previous research has also focused extensively on fans’ identification with a team, including the antecedents of team identification (e.g., Wann, Tucker, & Schrader, 1996; Wann, 2006a) and outcomes of team identification (e.g., Fisher & Wakefield, 1998;

Wakefield & Sloan, 1995; Wann & Branscombe, 1993; Wann, Waddill, Polk, & Weaver, 2011). Involvement, in the context of spectator sport, has begun to receive more attention in the sport management literature (Beaton, Funk, Ridinger, & Jordan, 2011; Funk, 2008; Funk, Ridinger, & Moorman, 2004; Kerstetter & Kovich, 1997). Much of this research has focused on a fan's involvement with either a team or a sport. Previous research has also focused on purchase behavior as a result of high identification with a sports team (e.g., Madrigal, 2000; Theodorakis et al., 2010) or high involvement in leisure settings (e.g., Kyle & Mowen, 2005). However, to date, little interest has been paid to the role of involvement in a university-affiliated alumni sport fan club. In addition, the relationships between involvement and team identification as well as the relationship between involvement and the behavioral intention to donate to the academic institution have not been investigated. Moreover, geographic proximity has been suggested as a factor impacting the sense of belonging or attachment felt by fans (Branscombe & Wann, 1991; Wann et al., 1996). Thus, the geographic proximity of a fan's home to the institution was also examined.

Anecdotally, one would assume fans who consider themselves highly involved with university-affiliated alumni sport fan clubs are not only highly identified with the university's athletic teams, but also have higher levels of group supportive behavioral outcomes (e.g., purchase of game tickets and apparel), including supporting the institution through financial donations, than fans who do not consider themselves highly involved. However, no studies were found that directly addressed these relationships with respect to university-affiliated alumni sport fan clubs. In addition, researchers have suggested that sense of belonging or attachment can be reduced or even be no longer

present for fans who are not geographically close to a team (Branscombe & Wann, 1991). University-affiliated alumni sport fan clubs exist in the home state of the university as well as across the country. Perhaps the antecedents to and outcomes of involvement in these university-affiliated alumni sport fan clubs differ for fans who are geographically distant from their university.

Research Questions and Hypothesis

- Q1 To what extent do spectator motivations and the individual dimensions of a person's level of team identification (i.e., cognitive/affective, evaluation of self, and evaluation of others) explain the dimensions of involvement (i.e., sign, centrality, and pleasure) in a university-affiliated alumni sport fan club after controlling for gender?
- H1.1 The need for achievement will be significant and have the strongest positive relationship of all the spectator motivations with each dimension of involvement in a university-affiliated alumni sport fan club.
- H1.2 Social interaction, drama, and escape motivations will be significant and positively related to each dimension of involvement in a university-affiliated alumni sport fan club. However, social interaction, drama, and escape will be more strongly related to the pleasure dimension of involvement than to the sign and centrality dimensions.
- H1.3 Acquisition of knowledge motivation will be significant and positively related with all three dimensions of involvement in a university-affiliated alumni sport fan club. However, the relationships between acquisition of knowledge and the three dimensions of involvement will be weaker than the need for achievement, social interaction, drama, and escape.
- H1.4 The spectator motivations of aesthetics and physical skills will be correlated with other spectator motivations; however, they will not be significantly related to any of the three dimensions of involvement in a university-affiliated alumni sport fan club.
- H1.5 The cognitive/affective dimension of team identification will have the strongest positive relationship with each dimension of a fan's involvement in an alumni sport fan club.

H1.6 Evaluation of self and perceived evaluation of others (dimensions of team identification) will be significantly related to all three dimensions of involvement in an alumni sport fan club.

Q2 To what extent are the sign, centrality, and pleasure dimensions of involvement in an alumni sport fan club related to behavioral intentions to donate to the university after controlling for income, alumni status, and age?

H2.1 Both sign and centrality will be significant and have a positive relationship with behavioral intentions to donate to the university.

H2.2 Pleasure, while significant, will have a smaller positive relationship with behavioral intentions to donate to the university than sign and centrality.

Q3 To what extent does geographic proximity moderate the relationships between spectator motivations, team identification, dimensions of involvement with an alumni sport fan club, and behavioral intentions to donate to the university?

H3.1 Geographic proximity will moderate the relationship between the spectator motivation of social interaction and each of the three dimensions of involvement (i.e., sign, centrality, and pleasure). Fans who live in closer proximity to the university will be less motivated by social interaction to demonstrate sign, centrality and pleasure dimensions of involvement than fans who live farther away.

H3.2 Geographic proximity will moderate the relationship between all three dimensions of team identification and all three dimensions of involvement. The relationships between all three dimensions of team identification and all three dimensions of involvement will be weaker for fans who live in closer proximity to the university.

H3.3 Geographic proximity will moderate the relationship between sign and centrality dimensions of involvement and behavioral intentions to donate. The relationship between sign and centrality dimensions of involvement and behavioral intentions to donate will be weaker for fans who live in closer proximity to the university.

H3.4 Geographic proximity will not moderate the relationship between pleasure dimension of involvement and behavioral intentions to donate.

Rationale for the Study

University-affiliated alumni sport fan clubs are one way that universities attempt to promote and maintain fans' identification with a team, and thus potentially indirectly increase behavioral intentions (e.g., ticket/merchandise purchases, support of sponsors, or donations). These university-affiliated alumni sport fan clubs are located across the country in towns near and far from the university. Each of these clubs attracts alumni and fans to a variety of social gatherings including game viewing parties, young alumni programs, outreach programs, etc. Anecdotally, one would assume fans who perceive themselves as highly involved with these university-affiliated alumni sport fan clubs are both highly identified with the respective sports teams and also exhibit greater group supportive behavioral intentions including a greater intention to donate to the university. However, no studies were found that directly addressed these relationships with respect to university-affiliated alumni sport fan clubs.

A better understanding of these relationships could be particularly useful given the current state of NCAA Division I athletics. As reported by *USA Today*, only 22 of the 227 NCAA Division I athletic programs at public schools in 2011 generated sufficient revenue to offset expenses (Upton & Berkowitz, 2012). These revenues are generated through media rights deals, ticket sales, corporate sponsorships, and *donations*. Substantial media rights deals and corporate sponsorship may not be available to university athletic programs not considered in the top echelon of college sports. However, lessons in generating other revenue (e.g., donations) can be gleaned from understanding other revenue generating mechanisms used by major programs. Both major and mid-

major programs could benefit from understanding the potential benefit in supporting and promoting university-affiliated alumni sport fan clubs.

Therefore, the purpose of this study was to investigate the relationship between spectator motivations, the individual dimensions of team identification, and involvement in a university-affiliated alumni sport fan club. Then, the relationships between the individual dimensions of involvement (i.e., sign, centrality, and pleasure) in an alumni sport fan club and a specific behavioral intention outcome (i.e., financial donation to the institution) were investigated. Lastly, geographic proximity of the university was examined for any moderating effect on any of the relationships studied.

Delimitations

In this study, I examined the relationships between spectator motivations, fan identification, involvement, and intentions to donate to the institution by official members of university-affiliated fan clubs of the University of Florida and The Ohio State University. The participants consisted entirely of official club members to whom the presidents of the selected clubs had access. This may have excluded members who had not provided the president or their respective club with an e-mail address or do not interact with their club through social media platforms. The purposeful selection of two institutions limits the generalizability of the results. In addition, because the institutions that were sampled represent traditional football schools competing in two of the major National Collegiate Athletic Association (NCAA) Division I conferences, the results of this study cannot be generalized to schools competing in conferences not considered a major conference. Results also cannot be generalized to traditional basketball schools that compete in a major conference (e.g., Duke University) as the characteristics of alumni

support may differ depending on the traditions of the institution. Lastly, the findings of this study do not explain all facets of or the motivations for alumni financial support to an academic institution.

Limitations

Lack of responsiveness and unequal representation by school limit the generalizability of this study. To reach the desired sample size of 250, a stratified random sample of presidents or contacts of 40 Gator Clubs (20 located in the state of Florida, 20 located outside the state of Florida) and 40 Ohio State Alumni Clubs (20 located in the state of Ohio, 20 located outside the state of Ohio) were contacted via e-mail addresses retrieved from respective alumni association webpages (i.e., <http://www.ufalumni.ufl.edu/> and <http://www.ohiostatealumni.org/>). Each president or contact was asked for his voluntary assistance in disseminating a link to the electronic survey on SurveyMonkey.com to the members of his respective club either via e-mail, a link on the club's website, or as a post on the club's Facebook or other social media page. Even with an incentive offered for anyone who participated, follow-up e-mails, and additional clubs randomly selected due to invalid e-mail addresses, the desired sample size was not initially reached. Thus, an additional randomly selected 20 Gator Clubs (10 located in the state of Florida, 10 located outside the state of Florida) and 20 Ohio State Alumni Clubs (10 located in the state of Ohio, 10 located outside the state of Ohio) were contacted. Presidents or contacts were not asked to respond with whether or not they participated by disseminating the survey. Therefore, it is unknown how many total clubs, as well as which clubs, participated in the survey. Several presidents did voluntarily reply to either the initial or follow-up e-mail from the first or second round of data collection,

nine of whom were unable to forward the e-mail due to communication policies or an inactive group. In addition, out of the 120 presidents with valid e-mails who were contacted, only 34 (20 of which were Gator Clubs) voluntarily responded that they did participate by disseminating the survey to members of their respective clubs. Out of the 296 surveys deemed usable, 208 were members of Florida Gator clubs while only 88 were members of Ohio State Alumni Clubs.

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

This study examined the antecedents as well as a specific potential outcome (i.e., donation intentions) of fans' involvement in university-affiliated alumni sport fan clubs. Thus, this chapter begins with a discussion of social identity theory (Tajfel, 1978), the theoretical foundation for the relationships of interest. Then, a detailed overview of each component of the study is presented.

This chapter is divided into five sections. The first section discusses the development and application of social identity theory to the study of social interaction and the influence of group memberships on a person's definition of self. Next, sport managers have long been interested in understanding what motivates consumption of spectator sport. The second section reviews this diverse set of motivations. The third section includes the evolution of our understanding and outcomes of team identification, or a fan's psychological attachment to a sport team. Fourth, the literature on involvement is summarized while focusing on the current three-dimensional theorized model of involvement believed to be most applicable to the leisure and sport context. Lastly, this chapter concludes with a brief overview of the varied outcomes resulting from the effective engagement of sport consumers. These outcomes are of immense interest to researchers and industry practitioners alike.

Social Identity Theory

A person's definition of his own place within his social categorization system is his social identity (Turner, 1975). Thus, a person's social identity is a direct result of his group memberships (Tajfel, 1978). Social identity is defined as "that part of an individual's self-concept which derives from his knowledge of his membership in a social group (or groups) together with the value and emotional significance attached to that membership" (Tajfel, 1978, p. 63).

Although a person's social identity is socially defined, that identity becomes that person's reality. Therefore, the strategies people employ to maintain (or achieve) a positive social identity are dependent on the perceived value of current (or potential) group memberships. First, people will either stay in or pursue membership in groups that have the potential to positively affect their social identity in some way (Tajfel, 1982; Tajfel & Turner, 1986). If a person is currently a member of a group that is not positively impacting his social identity, he will attempt to leave (Tajfel, 1982; Tajfel & Turner, 1986). If a group is not positively influencing his social identity, but a conflict with other important values exists, the person will not leave and instead will either attempt to reinterpret undesirable characteristics of the group or be the catalyst behind a desirable social change (Tajfel, 1982; Tajfel & Turner, 1986). Two *sociocognitive* processes are generally understood to drive the workings of social identity theory (e.g., Grieve & Hogg, 1999; Hogg, Terry, & White, 1995). First, a person must self-categorize into a group. Then, the self must be enhanced through social comparisons. This process has been described as "social categorization-social identity-social comparison-positive distinctiveness sequence" (Turner & Reynolds, 2010, p. 16).

What is a “Group”?

Tajfel and Turner (1986) described a group as “a collection of individuals who perceive themselves to be members of the same social category, share some emotional involvement in this common definition of themselves, and achieve some degree of social consensus about the evaluation of their group and of their membership in it” (p. 15). A mixture of external criteria (i.e., a general acknowledgement by people outside the group that the group does in fact exist) and internal criteria (i.e., a cognitive awareness of membership within the group and value attached to that membership as a result of an evaluation or comparison) must be met to establish the existence of a group (Tajfel, 1982). In addition, an emotional investment in the awareness and evaluation of value may be present (Tajfel, 1982).

Tajfel (1978, p. 62) defined a group as a “cognitive entity that is meaningful to the individual at a particular point of time.” The introduction of a temporal element suggests that memberships in groups may shift over time. In addition, no definition of group is complete without acknowledging that characteristics of that group only exist in relation to differences, and the perceived values of these differences, from other groups (Tajfel, 1978).

Self-Categorization

As mentioned previously, people will either stay in or pursue membership in groups that have the potential to positively affect their social identity (Tajfel, 1982). However, positive influence is only understood in relation to other groups, thus linking social identity theory to self-categorization (Tajfel, 1978). Sometimes subsumed under the umbrella term, social identity theory, and sometimes discussed as an extension of

social identity theory, self-categorization refers to an individual's making sense of his own environment by ordering (or categorizing) his groups in a way that makes the most sense to that individual, often by placing a positive or negative social value on each (Tajfel, 1978). As derived from the definition above, two functions (cognitive and value) are necessary for "social accentuation" (Tajfel, 1982). The cognitive function is that which enables a person to make sense of his or her group memberships. The value function then enables a person to protect, maintain, or enhance the distinctions between his group and others (Tajfel, 1982). Then, due to the values stemming from evaluations, people tend to not only favor members of their own groups (the ingroup) who are similar over members of the outgroup (Oakes & Turner, 1980), but also depersonalize the outgroup, especially in the presence of intergroup conflict (Tajfel, 1982).

This group membership, as discussed in self-categorization theory, results in a depersonalization of characteristics important to group categorization (Hogg et al., 1995; Turner, 1982, 1987). In other words, people "self-stereotype" and perceive themselves as similar to the group on the most relevant group features. These social categories are then accessible and are used by members if they are relevant or salient to the present social conditions. These social categories tend to be easily accessible if they have been recently or are frequently accessed, or if people are motivated to use them (Hogg & Mullin, 1999).

Social Comparison

Positive social identity can only be understood in the context of a comparison to other groups (Turner, 1975). In addition, the only way a group remains a group is through continuously evaluating itself through social comparisons with other groups and maintaining a distinct positive value for its members. This *distinctness* is necessary to

provide the group with a unique identity (Ashforth & Mael, 1989). Simply stated, for groups to exist (meaning attributed), a comparison must be available. Festinger's (1954) theory of social comparison addresses this fundamental requirement. The need to evaluate one's opinions or abilities exists in all humans (Festinger, 1954). In fact, human behavior is driven by a need to figure out if one's opinions are correct and if an evaluation of one's abilities is accurate (Festinger, 1954). While abilities can most often be evaluated objectively, opinions are generally more complex. How are one person's opinions more correct than another's? Without the ability to evaluate objectively, opinions are compared to *similar* others (Festinger, 1954). If a comparison cannot be made to a similar other, then that opinion becomes unstable (Festinger, 1954). However, Tajfel (1978) argued that even what one would consider an objective evaluation is only accepted because of the significance obtained in a social setting. Further, Tajfel (1978) argued that a social reality can be objective if an alternative (or the chance an opposing view is correct) is highly unlikely. Thus, social realities can become objective as a result of repeated attempts at challenging or testing over time.

Festinger (1954) told us that people are more attracted to others who are similar in their abilities and opinions. For the present research, the focus was on opinions. Pressure towards group uniformity (the reduction of inconsistencies) forces members to follow one of three paths. First, a member may strive for uniformity by modifying his or her own opinion to more closely reflect that of the group (Festinger, 1954). Second, the member may exert effort to attempt to affect change in the opinion of the group (Festinger, 1954). Third, the member may purposefully choose to only compare to those in the group who are most similar, ignoring those who differ, sometimes accompanied by hostility and/or

derogation (Festinger, 1954). This pressure towards uniformity is only heightened as the importance of or attraction to a group is strengthened (Festinger, 1954; Tajfel, 1978). While Festinger (1954) discussed social comparisons made between individuals striving for uniformity, membership in numerous groups and their contributions to an overall social identity is ignored, lending support for the need for the contributions of social identity theory (Tajfel, 1978). Thus, social identity theory can be viewed as an extension of social comparison theory.

Similar to social comparison theory, but on a group level, social identity theory suggests that ingroups do not compare themselves with *all* available outgroups. Comparisons are made between ingroups and *relevant* (or similar) outgroups (Tajfel & Turner, 1986). Relevant outgroups include groups that are perceived as similar, proximate, or have situational salience. With increased similarity comes the increased need for distinctiveness (Tajfel & Turner, 1986).

Minimal Group Paradigm

Early experiments to test whether group categorization was enough to provoke ingroup bias were conducted by randomly and anonymously dividing subjects into two groups and then charging them with allocating something of value to other participants with only the knowledge of group membership (Tajfel, Billing, & Bundy, 1971). These experiments, the minimal group paradigm, were designed to test if social categorization, in and of itself, was enough to produce ingroup favoritism, ingroup loyalty, and an observance of group norms by theoretically equalizing on all other dimensions. The belief was that people identify with the minimally defined group and that simply the

process of identification can result in observable behaviors demonstrating intergroup differentiation (Turner & Bourhis, 1996).

Studies designed with a minimal group paradigm have produced two distinct ingroup bias effects. First, subjects have allocated resources to benefit the ingroup. In addition, subjects have allocated resources in such a way as to maximize the discrepancy between groups, even at the expense of their own group's overall gain (e.g., Brewer, 1979; Jackson & Smith, 1999; Tajfel et al., 1971). The validity of the findings of minimal group studies has been consistently questioned. One challenge suggests that perhaps mere categorization influences ingroup bias (or intergroup discrimination) in laboratory settings due to the inability for people to make sense of the situation, except through use of the group distinctions (Turner, 1975). Therefore, self-categorization in natural settings may not have as strong of an effect on ingroup favoritism (Mullen, Brown, & Smith, 1992). In addition, Hogg and Mullin (1999) offered uncertainty reduction as another possible explanation of group behavior in minimal group paradigms. They suggested that minimal group studies put subjects in situations of high uncertainty, and it is the effort to reduce uncertainty that results in ingroup bias. [Another explanation offered by Chin and McClintock (1993) is that people have differing value orientations (e.g., competitors versus "prosocials") that will influence behavior, with this expression of values leading to higher self-esteem (social value theory).]

Ethnocentrism (i.e., Ingroup Bias or Intergroup Discrimination)

Sumner (1906) defined ethnocentrism as the "view of things in which one's own group is the center of everything, and all others are scaled and rated with reference to it" (p. 13). Mullen et al. (1992) interpreted it as the view that the ingroup is superior and the

outgroup is viewed through the ingroup's perceptions. Thus, ethnocentrism is synonymous with ingroup bias and intergroup discrimination. A meta-analysis (37 papers encompassing 42 studies using 137 tests) was conducted by Mullen et al. (1992) on studies involving ingroup bias. Several findings are important and relevant to the present discussion. First, a significant, moderate effect was found suggesting the ingroup is evaluated more positively than the outgroup (Mullen et al., 1992), thus supporting the fundamental existence of ingroup bias. With regard to salience of the group, ingroup bias was stronger for groups that were proportionately smaller and for groups occurring in natural settings ("real" groups) (Mullen et al., 1992). The effect of a group's status on ingroup bias has been a point of contention and confusion. Mullen et al. (1992) showed this may have been due to an interaction between status and natural/artificial groups. Specifically, in natural settings, there was not a significant status effect. However, in artificial groups, ingroup bias did increase as a function of status (Mullen et al., 1992).

Two Motivations

Self-esteem. As proposed by social identity theory, ingroup bias or intergroup discrimination is motivated by a need to achieve and maintain positive self-esteem (Abrams & Hogg, 1988). In the first study to test the "self-esteem hypothesis," Oakes and Turner (1980) found that even in a minimal group paradigm, where groups are low in salience, intergroup discrimination increases self-esteem. In other words, a desire for positive social identity motivates intergroup discrimination and results in higher self-esteem. Several researchers criticized Oakes and Turner's study. Lemyre and Smith (1985) suggested the vastly different "psychological significance" of the tasks the two groups were given (i.e., one group was given a decision-making task while the other was

not given a task, and instead asked to wait) may have in fact led to the discrimination. Abrams and Hogg (1988) argued that Oakes and Turner only took into account self-esteem as a dependent variable (intergroup discrimination will increase self-esteem) and not the other possibility of self-esteem as an independent variable (low self-esteem will promote intergroup discrimination), thus only finding correlation, not directional causation. However, this second role (low self-esteem promoting intergroup discrimination), has been rarely supported by empirical evidence (Rubin & Hewstone, 1998).

Uncertainty reduction. Motivational processes behind social identity may be more complex and involve additional variables beyond just self-esteem (Hogg & Grieve, 1999; Hogg & Mullin, 1999). For example, self-certainty (the absence of uncertainty) may be an antecedent for self-esteem (Hogg & Mullin, 1999). In other words, reduction of uncertainty has been suggested as the primary motivator in self-categorization (Grieve & Hogg, 1999). Thus, social categorization and the reduction of uncertainty could be motivations for social identity, beyond just self-esteem. The presence of uncertainty reduction as a potential motivator opens up the possibility that in real-world settings, motivations for social identity may be more complicated than previously envisioned (Brown, 2000).

Uncertainty exists in situations where our “beliefs, attitudes, feelings, and behaviors” do not align with the similar others with whom we compare ourselves (Hogg & Mullin, 1999, p. 254). The existence of uncertainty results in an undesirable loss of control over one’s life which then motivates people to search for certainty, and with it meaning and the confidence to interact in one’s social environments (Hogg & Mullin,

1999). Again, people evaluate situations and strive for certainty where they have subjectively evaluated importance (Hogg & Mullin, 1999). How is uncertainty reduced? Uncertainty may be reduced through social comparisons that directly result from group membership. Researchers have provided empirical evidence, in minimal group paradigms, that uncertainty reduction is the motivation behind categorization, thus resulting in higher identification and increased levels of self-esteem (Grieve & Hogg, 1999; Hogg & Grieve, 1999).

Interpersonal Behavior vs. Intergroup Behavior

Group membership affects intergroup behaviors (Tajfel, 1978). The distinction then must be made between interpersonal and intergroup behavior. On one end of the spectrum, interpersonal behavior deals with behavior between people that is primarily driven by the individuals and their unique characteristics and the personal relationships they maintain (Tajfel, 1982; Tajfel & Turner, 1986). More relevant to this discussion is the other end of the spectrum that deals with intergroup behavior. Intergroup behavior suggests that behavior between people is primarily driven by the influences of group memberships and not by individual characteristics (Tajfel, 1982; Tajfel & Turner, 1986). While neither is found in its pure form in real life, behavior favoring the intergroup side of the continuum may be more meaningful, specifically in the context of sport. In fact, the stronger the intergroup conflict, the more likely a person will behave as a member of the social group (Tajfel & Turner, 1986).

The following two distinguishing characteristics of intergroup behavior may be observed: the homogeneity of behavior (and attitudes) towards an outgroup evident in members of the ingroup and an ingroup perception of the depersonalization of members

of the outgroup (Tajfel, 1982). In other words, the members of the ingroup all behave the same and they believe all members of the outgroup behave the same. Tajfel (1982) discussed several circumstances that seem to precede these two distinguishing characteristics, three of which are briefly discussed in the following paragraphs (intergroup conflict, social movement, and stereotyping).

Intergroup conflict. A particularly salient point in the present conversation deals with intergroup conflict or competition. A first point to make is that scarce resources are of no importance if not in the presence of competition. However, where social competition exists, scarce resources can include something as simple as winning a contest. This conflict is believed to improve the solidarity of the group if a threat that affects all members of the group equally is present and the group is able to deal with the conflict in addition to providing support to each other (Tajfel, 1982).

Social movement. Interpersonal behavior is related to social mobility, or the belief that the individual has a high level of flexibility with respect to the social groups in which he holds membership (Tajfel & Turner, 1986). If a person is unsatisfied by his or her membership in a social group, he or she can easily move into another more desirable group. In contrast, intergroup behavior supports the idea of social change or the stratification of social groups (Tajfel & Turner, 1986). Thus, social change implies that social groups are situated in such a way as to make an individual's moving to a new, more desirable social group very difficult if not impossible. Uniformity of behavior and intense intergroup conflict with members of the relevant outgroup is most often present in the social change extreme (intergroup behavioral extreme) where the moving from one group to another is difficult or impossible (Tajfel & Turner, 1986)

Stereotyping. Along with uniformity of behavior when members are close to the intergroup behavioral extreme, there also tends to be a uniformity of treatment toward members of the outgroup. As differences in outgroup members (and ingroup members) is diminished, group stereotypes result (Tajfel & Turner, 1986). Stereotyping serves as a tool for understanding relationships and for justifying group behavior (Brown, 2000).

The Multidimensionality of Social Identity

As previously stated, social identity is “that part of an individual’s self-concept which derives from his knowledge of his membership of a social group (or groups) together with the value and emotional significance attached to that membership” (Tajfel, 1978, p. 63). Three necessary components of social identity as suggested by Tajfel (1978) include cognitive, affective, and evaluation. Although other researchers have identified differing dimensions (e.g., Jackson & Smith, 1999), Tajfel’s three dimensions are still considered the foundation of research in social identity (e.g., Ashmore, Deaux, & McLaughlin-Volpe, 2004; Dimmock, Grove, & Eklund, 2005; Theodorakis et al., 2010).

Cognitive and affective. The cognitive perception is the knowledge or perception of membership in a group and is also referred to as self-categorization (Ellemers, Kortekaas, & Ouwerkerk, 1999). Ellemers et al. (1999) found that group size is a determinant of self-categorization. Specifically, low group size results in high self-categorization. Thus, minority members tend to show high levels of self-categorization (and thus strong personal identification).

The affective perception is also termed emotional commitment (Ellemers et al., 1999), or attachment (Ashmore et al., 2004). High group status as well as self-selected group (versus assigned group) results in high commitment; high commitment in turn is

the only component of social identity that affects ingroup favoritism (or in other words, behavior in terms of group membership) (Ellemers et al., 1999). Thus, the affective dimension has been previously shown as the strongest predictor of intergroup bias (e.g., Ellemers et al., 1999; Jackson & Smith, 1999). Although, in the context of sport, studies have found that the cognitive and affective dimensions should be combined and that together they are the strongest predictors of intergroup bias (Dimmock et al., 2005).

Evaluation. Once categorization is established, evaluation of positive or negative value may be the simplest way to think about identity. Ellemers et al. (1999) found that group self-esteem (as derived from an evaluation of value) results from the status of the group (i.e., high status results in high self-esteem). Social identity cannot exist without some element of evaluation. The positive relationship observable between group membership and group bias is necessarily reliant on the ability to evaluate one's own group in relation to outgroups. However, researchers have noted that evaluations are not necessarily consistent from one person to another (Ashmore et al., 2004). Therefore, the evaluation component has been subdivided into the following two distinct elements: self-evaluation (judgments people make about their own identities) and perceived evaluation of others (the judgments people perceive others make about them) (Ashmore et al., 2004; Dimmock et al., 2005).

Spectator Motivations

In an early attempt to specifically identify factors that contribute to a fan's initially identifying with a sports team, Wann et al. (1996) asked 91 undergraduate students to fill out booklets and list the reasons why they *currently follow* their favorite sports team, why they originally *began following* their favorite sports team, and why they

no longer follow a particular sports team. Out of the 315 different reasons given for why these fans originally *began following* their favorite sports teams, the following five factors were most prevalent: geographic reasons, liking the players, parents/family, friends/peers, and the success of the team (Wann et al., 1996). It is interesting to note, these fans also listed the success of a team as a major reason why they *no longer follow* a team. [Other research contradicts this finding and has suggested that fans are not likely to have their level of team identification affected by a game outcome; in other words, once team identification is established, the level of identification appears to be relatively stable (Wann, Dolan, McGeorge, & Allison, 1994).] Wann (2006a) furthered this line of research by categorizing the expanding list of antecedents to the development of team identification. The three categories identified by Wann (2006a) included psychological, environmental, and team-related antecedents which encompassed many of the motivations that previous researchers had identified.

Typical spectator motivations discussed by researchers include the tension and risk experienced while watching a game (drama/eustress), the feeling of accomplishment if their team wins (achievement/self-esteem), the diversion from daily life (escape), the aesthetics of an athlete's performance, group affiliation (or the reduction of identity uncertainty), the acquisition of knowledge, the physical skills and attractiveness of the athletes, and the opportunity to spend time with family (e.g., Trail, Anderson, & Fink, 2000; Trail & James, 2001; Wann, 1995). These motivations are not discrete; instead, overlap exists among these motivations as they have been found to be correlated (Wann, 1995). Much of the research on motivations has investigated the relationships between spectator motivations and team identification (e.g., Fink, Trail, & Anderson, 2002; Trail

et al., 2000). In the current study, these motivations were examined for their relationship with involvement in a university-affiliated alumni sport fan club. Each spectator motivation is discussed below.

Achievement/Self-Esteem

Many researchers have found a positive correlation between the need for achievement, or self-esteem, and team identification (Fink et al., 2002; Sloan, 1989; Wann, 1994). In fact, achievement, or vicarious achievement, has been found to be the most highly correlated motivation with identification (Fink et al., 2002). Perhaps this is related to Heider's (1958) balance theory that suggests that similarity will be perceived when the relationship between two objects is positive. Thus, people associate themselves with achievement by basking-in-reflected glory (BIRGing) and distance themselves from lack of achievement by cutting-off-reflected failure (CORFing) (Cialdini et al., 1976).

The desire to be a part of a distinctive group drives the development of social identification (Ashforth & Mael, 1989), and more relevant to this discussion, team identification (Wann & Branscombe, 1995). A need for increasing or maintaining high levels of self-esteem is generally discussed as a primary motivator in regards to social identity theory (Tajfel & Turner, 1986). However, self-esteem benefits (e.g., belonging) can be realized regardless of team success (Branscombe & Wann, 1991).

Wann (2006a) referred to achievement motivations under the category of team-related antecedents, which included organizational characteristics and the off-field image of the sport organization including history, tradition, and rituals (Sutton et al., 1997; Underwood, Bond, & Baer, 2001). Management or ownership do exert influence over these characteristics, though, generally do not have direct control (Underwood et al.,

2001). Also important to note is that no sport team exists in isolation and thus organizational characteristics, such as achievement, also reflect the management of the conference/division and the league (Sutton et al., 1997).

Aesthetics

Second only to achievement, Fink et al. (2002) found aesthetics to be highly correlated and thus a particularly salient motivation for team identification. Aesthetics refer to the “excellence, beauty, and creativity in an athlete’s performance” (Smith, 1988, p. 58). In other words, spectators are motivated to watch sport because of the high level of performance seen on the field, pitch, or court. Anecdotally, sport spectators regularly describe plays or moves as “beautiful.” Wann (1995) also found aesthetics to be significantly related to sport involvement.

Drama and Escape

While drama, or eustress, and escape have been found to be *distinct* factors (Wann, 1995), more commonly they tend to be related. Smith (1988) described their relationship as follows: “the search for excitement represents one of the most familiar means of escape” (p. 58). In fact, it has been argued that both drama and escape differ from many of the other motivations in that following any team could satisfy these motivations (Fink et al., 2002). However, if a person is highly identified with a particular team, the salience of the drama and escape intensifies. Yet, even if *your* team loses, the feeling or pain from defeat is temporary and relatively less than the benefits received from the escape provided by the game (Smith, 1988). Drama/eustress has been found to be positively related to identification and sport involvement (Fink et al., 2002; Wann, 1995). Trail et al. (2000) defined escape as “a diversion from work and everyday

activity” (p. 163). However, some researchers have found little support for the escape motivation (Sloan, 1989). Specifically, violent sports such as hockey, professional wrestling, and boxing have been found to be unrelated to the motivation of escape (Wann, 1995).

Acquisition of Knowledge

Fink et al. (2002) noted the logic that increased levels of knowledge would lead to higher levels of identification for a fan. In fact, this environmental antecedent of team identification (Wann, 2006a) has been discussed as an exposure to information about a team through attendance as well as electronic and print media (Sutton et al., 1997). Examples abound of fans’ enjoyment of consuming the enormous amount of information available to fans (Smith, 1988). Wann and Branscombe (1995) found that objective knowledge is related to identification with a specific team; not with a sport in general.

Physical Skills of Players

Another team-related antecedent and spectator motivation is the physical skills of the athletes (Wann, 2006a). While team performance, similar to achievement, contributes to the initial development of team identification (Fisher & Wakefield, 1998; Sutton et al., 1997; Wann et al., 1996), team performance (i.e., success) was mentioned by fewer participants in Wann et al.’s (1996) study than player characteristics as reasons why they originally began following a team. Thus, the physical skills of the players may be an especially important motivation when identification with a team is first developed.

Social/Group Affiliation

Nearly 10% of respondents in Wann et al.’s (1996) study indicated the psychological antecedent and motivation of group affiliations (e.g., friends/peers follow

the team) as a reason why they began following their favorite team. This idea of affiliation or belonging can be observed in the similar interests and goals of fans of the same team including shared symbols (e.g., the Gator “chomp”) and history (Sutton et al., 1997, Underwood et al., 2001). James, Kolbe, and Trail (2002) found that a psychological attachment can be made between a fan and a new expansion team even before the team has played its first game. In fact, simply the act of purchasing season tickets may be viewed by a consumer as more than a decision to attend games, but also his or her membership into the club (James et al., 2002).

In addition, environmental factors may influence the social motivations of fans. Many fans are socialized into team identification by family and friends (Funk & James, 2001; Trail & James, 2001; Wann et al., 1996). In the context of college sports teams, environmental factors may become especially important motivations. Anecdotally, many alumni of the University of Florida spent their college years in close geographical proximity to Gator sports and were almost entirely surrounded by social networks (i.e., friends/peers) that were highly similar. Researchers have found social affiliation positively correlated with identification or sport involvement (Branscombe & Wann, 1991; Wann, 1995; Wann et al., 1996).

Family

Wann et al. (1996) found family as the number one listed reason fans originally began following their favorite team. However, researchers have expressed conflicting opinions concerning the family motivation. Fink et al. (2002) suggested that family may not in fact be a motivator for high levels of identification and rationalized it as follows: if family is a motivator for spectating, the game or team may not be important; any game

will do. Thus, while family may serve as an important motivator for spectating, it is probably negligible in the context of identification and/or involvement. In fact, Fink et al. (2002) found family not to be significantly correlated with identification. Other researchers have had similar findings (James & Ridinger, 2002). Wann (1995) found family only to be related to specific sports: basketball and swimming. However, Wann's (1995) sample consisted entirely of college students, a population that most likely differs from other demographics on the family motivation.

Physical Attractiveness of Players

Lastly, another team-related antecedent and spectator motivation discussed in the literature is the physical attractiveness of the players (Wann, 2006a). In situations where team identification is formed in the absence of success, other motivations such as player characteristics (e.g., group member attractiveness) become significant as a fan attempts to maintain a positive self-image (Fisher & Wakefield, 1998). However, Fisher (1998) found that perceived similarity between a fan and a sports team (e.g., geographic proximity) is a more important factor than the attractiveness of an athlete (or sports team) leading to team identification. Trail and James (2001) found that physical attractiveness was not significantly correlated with team identification or general fanship.

Similar to the family motive, Fink et al. (2002) suggested that physical attractiveness of the athlete may be less important with respect to identification. In other words, if the motivation to spectate is due to physical attractiveness of the athletes, the game and/or team is not important. Thus, while physical attractiveness may be an important motivator for spectating sport in general, it is probably negligible in the context of identification and/or involvement. The physical attraction subscale has been removed

from several studies on motivation (e.g., Fink et al., 2002; Robinson & Trail, 2005; Robinson, Trail, & Kwon, 2004).

Gender Differences in Spectator Motivations

Some researchers have found gender differences in spectator motivations. For example, Dietz-Uhler, Harrick, End, and Jacquemotte (2000) found females are more strongly motivated by social factors while males are more strongly motivated by the desire to acquire knowledge. Other studies also have found males more strongly motivated by the acquisition of knowledge (Fink et al., 2002; James & Ridinger, 2002). One such study found males more likely to watch a greater percentage of sport news programming than females (Wann, Grieve, Zapalac, Partridge, & Parker, 2013). Conversely, Robinson and Trail (2005) found that females are motivated by the acquisition of knowledge, though the effect was small. Several researchers have found men are more motivated by achievement and aesthetics (James & Ridinger, 2002; Wann, 1995; Wann, Schrader, & Wilson, 1999). Lastly, findings surrounding the family motivation have differed. While James and Ridinger (2002) found men are more strongly motivated by family, other researchers have found women to be more motivated by family (Wann, 1995; Wann et al., 1999). Thus, while our understanding of gender differences is unclear, it is clear that differences in motivations do exist across gender.

Team Identification

Many terms have been used in the sport literature when referring to a person's psychological attachment to a sports team. For instance, Sutton et al. (1997) used the term "fan identification" to discuss factors under management's control that affect the level of fan identification with a professional sports team (along with the benefits to an

organization as a result of higher levels of fan identification). “Loyalty” was used by Wakefield and Sloan (1995) when investigating the relationship between stadium factors and sporting event attendance. “Psychological commitment” was used by Mahony, Madrigal, and Howard (2000) when developing the Psychological Commitment to Team (PCT) scale to differentiate between consumers on the basis of loyalty. Lastly, Wann and Branscombe (1993) used the term “team identification” as they developed the Sport Spectator Identification Scale (SSIS). The SSIS has been used extensively in the sport literature in the United States and also translated into several languages including Dutch, German, and Japanese (Wann, 2006a). Due to its universal acceptance, the term *team identification* is used for the duration of this study. Team identification can be defined 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, 2006a, p. 332).

As implied by *in all kinds of weather we all stick together*, a person’s identification, once securely established, with a sports team has been found to be unrelated to that team’s success or team record (Branscombe & Wann, 1991; Wann & Schrader, 1996). In other words, even if a team is unsuccessful, fans may manipulate their perceptions of the ingroup to gain an identity boost regardless of team success (Wann & Dolan, 1994b). Even as teams suffer through losing streaks, fans who highly identify with a team remain loyal (i.e., attached). While team identification has been shown stable (Wann & Branscombe, 1993; Wann et al., 1994; Wann & Schrader, 1996), the belief that a fan’s level of team identification can be altered is the stimulus for the strategies developed and executed by sport marketers. In present-day society, with the ever apparent increased importance of sports to a person’s social identity, sport marketers

are in a unique position to create secure bonds between fans and a sports team. Beyond the intrinsic benefits to the individual (e.g., higher self-esteem, well-being, etc.), the behavioral outcomes from highly identified fans (e.g., increased game attendance, increased investment of time and money) will be directly realized financially by teams. In addition, highly identified fans may benefit a sport organization several times over through their influence on their friends, their family, and their children (and their children's children, etc.). Further investigation into the specific dimensions of team identification and their individual effects on behavioral intentions or outcomes is still needed. With a focused attention on multidimensional scales and more sophisticated (e.g., multivariate) statistical analyses, our understanding of team identification will only continue to develop.

Characteristics of Team Identification

Many studies have examined the characteristics of highly identified fans. Characteristics can include both affective (emotional) and cognitive (perceptions of self) responses to team identification. Highly identified fans have been shown to increase in positive emotions after a win and increase in negative emotions after a loss (Wann & Branscombe, 1993; Wann et al., 1994). The same positive and negative emotions resulting from a game outcome were not observed in fans deemed low in identification (Wann et al., 1994). Perhaps the strong affective response to a game outcome explains why Wann et al. (1994) found a strong positive relationship between highly identified fans and successful teams. Highly identified fans have also been found to believe they have greater influence on the outcome of a game (Wann et al., 1994). However, not all sport teams are successful. Thus, highly identified fans have developed several coping

mechanisms when their team is faced with failure, including ingroup bias, BIRGing, and CORFing.

Ingroup bias. Highly identified fans have been found to view fans of the same team as “special” or bonded (Wann & Branscombe, 1993) while displaying more ingroup bias (e.g., positive evaluations of fellow ingroup members) than low identified fans, but were not found to display more negative evaluations of outgroups than low identified fans (Wann & Branscombe, 1995; Wann & Dolan, 1994a). These results may reflect the motivation to maintain a positive social identity, as discussed in social identity theory. Perhaps another possible explanation is that the ingroup bias displayed was simply a byproduct of highly identified fans more frequently being exposed to other ingroup fans and their behaviors that reinforce the held positive perceptions. In other words, the ingroup bias could just be a result of the availability of information. Ingroup bias has been studied only with team identification as a unidimensional construct (Wann & Branscombe, 1995; Wann & Dolan, 1994a). However, if ingroup bias is examined while considering the multidimensionality of team identification, individual dimensions may be found to affect ingroup bias to varying degrees. For example, in other contexts, the affective dimension (i.e., commitment) of team identification has been found to be the strongest predictor of ingroup bias (Ellemers et al., 1999).

In addition to the characteristics previously discussed, high identification has also been shown to lead to higher levels of self-esteem (a positive outlook on life and less feelings of alienation and other “negative affective experiences”) (Branscombe & Wann, 1991). Increased self-esteem, a desired outcome of group membership, is closely related to evaluative factors (Dimmock et al., 2005). Thus, fans are driven to use image

maintenance strategies by this desire to maintain or achieve higher levels of self-esteem (Wann & Branscombe, 1990). Two specific image maintenance strategies, BIRGing (basking in reflected glory) and CORFing (cutting off reflected failure) are based on Heider's (1958) balance theory (i.e., two objects are perceived as being similar when the relationship between them is positive and dissimilar when the relationship is negative). Simply put, people (e.g., fans) observe their own and other's behaviors and are therefore aware of their ability to influence others' evaluations by either claiming association when the relationship is positive, BIRGing, or by distancing when the relationship is negative, CORFing.

BIRGing. Cialdini et al. (1976) first examined that there exists a "tendency for people to publicize a connection with *another person* who has been successful" (p. 366). This image enhancement strategy, termed BIRGing, was supported initially by observing students' choice of apparel at seven "large" universities during the 1973 college football season (Cialdini et al., 1976). They found on Mondays following football victories, more students wore apparel of their school of attendance, thus displaying connection with successful team, than following non-victories (Cialdini et al., 1976). To test whether the previous findings were due to just increased positive feelings toward the university, Cialdini et al. (1976) conducted two additional experiments. Beyond just wearing of apparel, the use of *we* to describe the accomplishments of others to whom we have some affiliation or connection is another demonstration of BIRGing. They found *we* was used more in victories than in defeats. In addition, if a subject perceived his or her personal or public self-esteem had just been diminished, a greater use of *we* was observed. This may be due to people's understanding that similar evaluations are made of things that are

connected in some way, directly reflecting Heider's (1958) balance theory. Additional evidence for BIRGing was found by Snyder, Lassegard, and Ford (1986); people were more likely to behave in a way that supports a group (i.e., wearing a team badge) after the group realizes some level of success. The BIRGing phenomenon has been found and supported in many other studies (e.g., End, Dietz-Uhler, Harrick, & Jacquemotte, 2002; Kimble & Cooper, 1992; Wann & Dolan, 1994b). Even an inconsequential connection may be sufficient to encourage BIRGing (Cialdini et al., 1976). Examples of this are common in sport (e.g., a star player is from a fan's hometown).

CORFing. While BIRGing is an "enhancement tactic," CORFing (cutting off reflected failure) is an image "protection tactic" (Snyder et al., 1986). This was tested by Snyder et al. (1986) in an experiment to demonstrate people's self-report and behavioral indications (wearing of a team badge) of group membership after they were involved in a group activity that was either a success, a failure, or they had no information. They found that after a failure, people did distance themselves from the group, attempting to avoid further damage of social and self-image (Snyder et al., 1986). However, research has shown that CORFing is much less prevalent in highly identified fans (e.g., Wann & Branscombe, 1990) as discussed next.

Identification as a moderator to BIRGing and CORFing. As is commonly understood, sports fans vary in their psychological attachment to a team. Wann and Branscombe (1990) hypothesized that higher identification results in increased BIRGing and decreased CORFing, while lower identification results in people less likely to BIRG and an increased likelihood to CORF. In other words, only when an individual has a very strong identification with a group, does a failure of the group (i.e., a threat to social

identity) *not* produce a reduction in attraction to the group and reduced ingroup solidarity (Wann & Branscombe, 1990). To test these hypotheses, Wann and Branscombe (1990) studied undergraduate students at the University of Kansas (KU) by first identifying their level of identification with the KU basketball team, and then measuring their enjoyment after either a win or a loss. They found that identification does moderate the degree to which fans BIRG and CORF. In another study, highly identified fans were found to attempt to protect their self-esteem rather than distancing themselves from the team (Wann & Dolan, 1994b).

Lastly, Wann (2006b) suggested that just identification is not enough to result in greater well-being; instead, it is the social connections that result from identification that lead to positive social well-being. Wann et al. (2011) further tested these relationships and found team identification to be positively related to both well-being and social connections; however, their study did not support the idea that social connections moderated or mediated the relationship between team identification and social well-being.

Operationalizing Team Identification

Several scales have been commonly used by sport management researchers to measure a fan's identification or psychological attachment to a team. Due to the conflicting perspectives of researchers as to the dimensionality of team identification, an extended discussion of the development of scales used to measure the construct follows. The first subsection consists of scales that measure team identification as a unidimensional construct. The second subsection examines multidimensional scales and further expands on the scale chosen for the current study.

Team identification as unidimensional. Wann and Branscombe (1993)

recognized that previous studies had treated all fans as equals in the strength or level of attachment to a team. Thus, to empirically measure a fan's level of identification with a team, Wann and Branscombe (1993) developed and tested the Sport Spectator Identification Scale (SSIS) in a study conducted at the University of Kansas. The resulting scale, comprised of seven Likert-type items with ratings from one to eight, loaded on a single factor which the researchers named identification ($\alpha = .91$) in a sample of University of Kansas undergraduate students in an introductory psychology class.

In a similar effort, Mahony et al. (2000) developed the Psychological Commitment to Team (PCT) scale. In the sport literature, behavioral measures (e.g., attendance) had typically been used to assess loyalty (identification/commitment). However, support, or psychological commitment, can be strong regardless of a fan's attendance behaviors (Murrell & Dietz, 1992). Using only attendance as an indicator for loyalty ignores a fan's psychological attachment to a team. The recognition that a need existed for a scale that measured attitudes toward a team drove the development of the PCT. Thus, Mahony et al. (2000) developed the PCT containing 14 seven-point Likert-type items with responses ranging from strongly disagree to strongly agree ($\alpha = .88$, $\alpha = .88$, and $\alpha = .94$ in three follow up convenience samples of students from the University of Oklahoma, the University of Louisville, and The Ohio State University, respectively). Mahony et al. (2000) believed that the combination of the PCT and a behavioral measure would best predict future loyal behavior.

The validity of inferences made from scores on the PCT was further investigated by Kwon and Trail (2003) who suggested more stringent statistical tests could have been

used. Thus, in two samples of undergraduate students, confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) on the 14 items on the PCT, in the context of Kwon and Trail's (2003) sample, found a poor fit in two separate samples. Then, in a post hoc exploratory factor analysis, Kwon and Trail (2003) found the 14 items loaded on two factors. This led to a recommendation of further refinement and testing of the PCT. "Validity is not a property of the test or assessment as such, but rather of the meaning of the test scores" (Messick, 1995, p. 741). Therefore, validity can only be assessed with respect to the current group of participants, in a particular context, at a particular time. Though both Mahony et al. (2000) and Kwon and Trail (2003) used convenience samples of college students, regional, university, cultural, or other differences could have effects on the validity of inferences based on scores from the PCT in a particular context.

From another perspective, Wann and Pierce (2003), in a study of undergraduates, found the SSIS and the PCT to be highly correlated and thus seemingly measuring the same construct (again suggesting the equivalence of the terms *identification* and *commitment*). In addition, both scales were generally not significantly different with respect to behavioral outcomes (Wann & Pierce, 2003). However, they did note a necessary improvement that must be made was to incorporate the generally understood multidimensionality of identification or commitment. While both the SSIS and the PCT may have items addressing multiple dimensions, neither can tease out the distinct dimensions that may differentially predict fan behavior (Wann & Pierce, 2003). Specifically, Kwon and Armstrong (2004) argued that a consumer's attachment to a sports team encompasses both cognitive and affective aspects that neither the SSIS

(measuring only cognitive elements) nor the PCT (measuring only affective components) purport to measure.

Identification as a multidimensional construct. Tajfel's (1978) social identity theory, serving as the theoretical foundation for the development of team identification, has led sport team identification researchers to consider cognitive, affective, and evaluative dimensions simultaneously. As discussed above, team identification (or commitment) has previously been examined as a unidimensional construct (Mahony et al., 2000; Wann & Branscombe, 1993), but researchers have noted the need for a scale that incorporates and teases out the multidimensional nature of a fan's psychological attachment to a team (i.e., team identification) (Wann & Pierce, 2003). Researchers have taken up the call and have attempted to address identification with multidimensional scales, but consistency across studies is lacking.

Kwon and Armstrong (2004) developed a multidimensional scale to measure a fan's psychological attachment to a sports team in the context of college athletics, using the dimensions of team identification (cognitive), team commitment (affective), and school identification (cognitive). Team and school identification (cognitive) were measured using selected items from a team identification scale used by Kwon and Armstrong (2002), originally derived from a Mael and Ashforth (1992) study on organizational identification. All 10 items on the scale used by Kwon and Armstrong in their 2002 study on sport merchandise impulse buying by university students loaded on a single factor, thus suggesting a unidimensional construct: identification (i.e., cognitive aspect). Responses on the scale were also internally consistent ($\alpha = .94$). Then, Kwon and Armstrong (2002) measured the affective element (termed in this study as team

commitment) with Meyer and Allen's (1991) affective commitment scale (ACS). After refinement, the result of Kwon and Armstrong's (2002) study was a 9-item scale measuring a fan's psychological attachment to a team, with three distinct and identifiable dimensions (two cognitive dimensions and one affective dimension).

Ellemers et al. (1999) noted that how a person becomes a member of a group (e.g., assigned versus self-selected) affects commitment (affective), which in turn may be the primary driver of behavior in line with group membership. In the present context of sports, fans are not assigned a group; rather, they voluntarily choose a team with which to identify. The voluntary nature of team identification should then tend to result in a greater commitment. Thus, the cognitive and affective dimensions were expected to be strongly related for groups in which membership is self-selected, such as sports fans (e.g., Dimmock et al., 2005; Ellemers et al., 1999; Theodorakis et al., 2010). Using a 30-item team identification scale with items modeled from other instruments, Dimmock et al. (2005) found that cognitive and affective items did load on a single factor, and in fact, evaluation split into two factors (self-evaluation and evaluation perceived by others); thus resulting in a three factor solution. Similarly, Ashmore et al. (2004), in their framework of collective identity (in this case, synonymous with social identity, and thus team identification) that attempts to describe the multidimensionality of collective identity, also described the need to split evaluation into two distinct dimensions (self-evaluation and evaluation perceived by others).

Dimmock and Grove (2006) developed and used a 9-item, three dimensional Team Identification Scale (TIS) (based on the work of Dimmock et al., 2005) to investigate the relationship between team identification and subjective certainty. The TIS

consists of the following dimensions: cognitive/affective, personal evaluative, and other evaluative (Dimmock & Grove, 2006). While limited reliability and validity support exists for scores on the TIS due to the relatively recent introduction into the literature, reliability has been reported in two subsequent studies (Dimmock & Grove, 2006; Theodorakis et al., 2010). Thus, operationalizing team identification with a multidimensional scale, such as the TIS (Dimmock & Grove, 2006), allows researchers to investigate not only overall relationships with team identification, but also to tease out the individual dimensions (i.e., cognitive/affective, personal evaluation, and other evaluation) and recognize their distinct contributions to team identification as well as their relationships with other variables.

Involvement in Sport

The involvement construct has been extensively investigated in other disciplines including leisure and business. In the context of spectator sport in the sport management literature however, involvement has only recently begun to receive attention (Beaton et al., 2011; Funk, 2008; Funk et al., 2004), primarily focusing on the role of a person's involvement with either a team or a sport (Funk, 2008). However, little interest has been paid to the role of involvement with other types of sport objects or participatory activities (e.g., membership in a university-affiliated alumni sport fan club). Prior to any discussion of the construct of involvement, a few clarifications are needed. First, involvement is not an inherent characteristic of any activity or product. Instead, it is a variable that differs across individuals. In other words, involvement is an individual's unique perception of the activity or product (Beaton et al., 2011; Bloch & Richins, 1983, Laurant & Kapferer, 1985). Involvement, in theory, motivates or causes a behavior in a consumer (Laurent &

Kapferer, 1985). Thus, involvement can be said to mediate consumer behavior (Havitz & Dimanche, 1999; Mitchell, 1979). In fact, strong support has been found that involvement in a leisure setting does influence behavior (Havitz & Dimanche, 1999). Applying the construct of involvement to sport may help us further understand what drives sport-related consumption (Funk et al., 2004).

Rothschild (1979) suggested a framework that elaborates on three distinct types of involvement. First, situational involvement is influenced by attributes and situational variables and is specific to a point in time. Second, response involvement has to do with the complexity or extensiveness of consumer decision making. Lastly, and most relevant to the current study, enduring involvement is a function of past experience and the strength of relevant values, essentially a preexisting relationship (Bloch & Richins, 1983). Enduring involvement stems from the idea that the product or object is related to centrally held values (Laurent & Kapferer, 1985). Research in the leisure context, and thus in sport, has focused on this type of enduring involvement (Havitz & Dimanche, 1997, 1999).

The construct of involvement opens a vast array of theoretical interpretations and conceptual definitions. Researchers in many contexts of consumer behavior have discussed the challenges the varying definitions of involvement present (e.g., Beaton et al., 2011; Bloch & Richins, 1983; Greenwald & Leavitt, 1984; Mitchell, 1979; Mittal, 1995). Perhaps the confusion stems from involvement research focusing on one of two primary interpretations of the conceptual definition of involvement. The first conceptualizes involvement as personal relevance/importance (and various antecedents of involvement including risk, sign, emotional appeal, etc.). The second theorizes

involvement as the combination of hedonic, sign, and centrality, and thus personal importance is an outcome of involvement.

The interpretation of involvement as personal relevance or importance provided the foundation for Mittal's (1995) comparative analysis of unidimensional scales used to measure involvement. Other researchers have used a similar definition. For example, Greenwald and Leavitt (1984) in their review of involvement in the context of communication state that there is "consensus that high involvement means (approximately) personal relevance or importance" (p. 583). Bloch and Richins (1983) chose to use *importance* in place of involvement. Other researchers have defined involvement as comprised of an interest, a motivation (drive), or an arousal (e.g., Mitchell, 1979; Rothschild, 1984). Adopting this definition and then adapting the involvement construct to the study of leisure, Havitz and Dimanche (1997, 1999) defined involvement as "an unobservable state of motivation, arousal or interest toward a recreational activity or associated product" (p. 246). Zaichkowsky (1985), perhaps coalescing previous definitions of involvement stated involvement is "a person's perceived relevance of the object based on the needs, values, and interests" (p. 342). Zaichkowsky (1985) developed the first widely used involvement scale to measure the state of involvement (versus involvement as a stable trait) called the personal involvement inventory (PII), a 20-item "bipolar adjective scale." While the PII by design is unidimensional, Zaichkowsky (1994) later reduced the PII to 10 items and identified the potential to split the PII into two subscales: cognitive and affective (though correlations between the cognitive and affective subscales ranged from .58 to .70, suggesting some overlap).

Laurent and Kapferer (1985) impacted the trajectory of involvement research by suggesting that involvement cannot be measured directly. Instead, antecedents must be measured that then serve as operational indicators of involvement. This may have served to only create more confusion among researchers struggling to operationalize and measure involvement. Laurent and Kapferer (1985), in a review of literature, identified several antecedents of involvement including perceived importance, perceived risk (risk importance and risk probability), a symbolic or sign value, and an emotional appeal. Laurent and Kapferer (1985) stressed that multiple dimensions of involvement must be considered simultaneously; a single dimension is unable to effectively capture the involvement construct. Thus, looking at the different dimensions in a profile rather than aggregating to form a single index may better allow researchers to understand the full picture of involvement. Using Laurent and Kapferer's (1985) involvement profile (IP) scale, Kerstetter and Kovich (1997) examined the multidimensionality of involvement with a sample of Division I women's basketball spectators and found the following two dimensions: sign (i.e., self-expression) and a second factor that consisted of importance, risk, and pleasure.

Recently, research in sport management has agreed with a multidimensional conceptualization of involvement. Beaton et al. (2011) have suggested that to achieve a complete understanding of involvement, researchers must push beyond simply personal relevance or importance. Beaton et al. stated that sport involvement "is present when individuals evaluate their participation in a sport activity as a central component of their life that provides both hedonic and symbolic value" (p. 128). Thus, a perceived relevance or importance is an outcome of a person's involvement that consists of a hedonic value, a

symbolic value, and its place as a central component of a person's life or lifestyle (Beaton et al., 2011). For example, in the present study, the focus is not on how many sport club events a person attends, but instead on the pleasure derived (hedonic), the self-expression (sign), and the centrality of the club to the person's life.

Researchers have argued the simultaneous consideration of sign /self-expression, pleasure/attraction, and centrality best represent involvement in a leisure setting (Havitz & Dimanche, 1997; Kyle & Mowen, 2005). Thus, Havitz and Dimanche (1997) stressed the importance of using multidimensional scales for measuring involvement in the leisure domain. Operationalizing involvement as multidimensional enables researchers to more fully understand the influence of different facets of involvement with different populations of sport spectators (e.g., university-affiliated alumni sport fan clubs). For example, Kyle and Mowen (2005) used a 12-item, three dimension (attraction, centrality, and self-expression) scale to measure leisure involvement of subscribers to a Cleveland recreation publication finding good reliability estimates for scores on the subscales with Cronbach's alphas between .79 and .87. Then, in two studies of Australian rugby players and skiers in Greece, Beaton, Funk, and Alexandris (2009), used a 12-item scale adapted from Kyle and Mowen's (2005) instrument. Beaton et al. (2009) found what they termed as "acceptable reliability," Cronbach's alphas ranging from .62 to .81, due to the exploratory nature and the small number of items in each of the following three subscales: pleasure (attraction), centrality, and sign (self-expression).

Similarly, Funk and James' (2001) Psychological Continuum Model (PCM) addresses the processes that account for a fan's movement from an initial awareness of a team, to an attraction, then to an attachment, and eventually becoming an allegiant fan of

a team. Essentially, the PCM uses involvement to distinguish between fans at different levels of psychological involvement (Funk et al., 2004). The PCM staging tool is the instrument used to place a fan on the PCM and is comprised of items addressing the same three facets: pleasure (equivalent to attraction), centrality, and sign (self-expression) (Funk, 2008). Again, the dimensionality of involvement is important to consider in that dimensions of involvement may be differentially related to behavioral outcomes (Funk et al., 2004).

Sign/Self-Expression

Involvement is said to be present, first and foremost, when a product choice is perceived as a sign of oneself (Laurent & Kapferer, 1985). The self-expression value or level of symbolism is the “unspoken statements that purchase or participation conveys about the person” (Iwasaki & Havitz, 2004, p. 49). In other words, high sign values relate to the intention of creating favorable perceptions (Kerstetter & Kovich, 1997). One visible manifestation in the spectator sport context is membership in a university-affiliated alumni sport fan club. This membership is symbolic and goes above and beyond simply spectating to creating an association and sign of involvement.

Pleasure/Attraction

Pleasure, or the “enjoyment derived from the activity” (Beaton et al., 2011, p. 129), in leisure-settings is actually an aggregate of two dimensions found to be distinct in other contexts. In a leisure-context, pleasure and importance are closely related and have been found to load on a single factor (Kerstetter & Kovich, 1997). The pleasure/attraction facet can also be described as the hedonic value of a product. Pleasure in spectator sport may be exhibited in several ways including fun/enjoyment, sensory stimulation, or

fantasy. Pleasure derived from partaking in university-affiliated alumni sport fan club activities may represent one facet of a fan's involvement in that club.

Centrality

Centrality of a product or activity refers to how central it is to an individual's lifestyle. In other words, is an individual's life organized around participation in a particular activity? Logically then, centrality may comprise the social context of friends and family (Iwasaki & Havitz, 2004). Centrality may be particularly relevant in the context of sport spectating. Many people have heard extreme stories of people rearranging weddings, missing a funeral, or quitting jobs to attend sporting events. Thus, perhaps a significant aspect of involvement in a university-affiliated alumni sport fan club would be the level to which members arrange their lives around activities provided by that club.

Sport Behavioral Intentions/Outcomes

Key success factors for organizations including maximizing revenue and building/maintaining positive reputations may be in part driven by highly involved participants or consumers (Iwasaki & Havitz, 2004). In general, fans deemed at higher levels of involvement have an increased likelihood of engaging in team-related behavior including attending games, reading about the team/player/sport, watching games, and purchasing team/player/sport related merchandise (Funk & James, 2001). "[Involvement] is a causal or motivating variable with a number of consequences on the consumer's purchase and communication behavior" (Laurent & Kapferer, 1985, p. 42). These consumption behaviors are one relevant behavioral outcome. High levels of enduring

involvement in the recreation/leisure setting seem to be highly related to behavioral loyalty (Iwasaki & Havitz, 2004).

Fisher and Wakefield (1998) may have said it best, “In general, the stronger the relationship between an organization and its members, the greater the willingness of individual members to engage in behaviors that support the group” (p. 24). In other words, the behavior of highly involved consumers may be more likely influenced by members of their group. Strong support has been found in prior research of a positive relationship between identification and “consumption” behavior (e.g., Fisher & Wakefield, 1998; Madrigal, 2000; Wann et al., 2013). These consumption behaviors can include ticket sales (i.e., attendance), merchandise, and/or support of sponsors (Shapiro, Ridinger, & Trail, 2013). The issue arises in that researchers have not been consistent in operationalizing consumption. For example, researchers have operationalized consumption behavior as intentions to attend in the future (e.g., Matsuoka, Chelladurai, & Harada, 2003; Wakefield & Sloan, 1995), past attendance (e.g., Fisher & Wakefield, 1998; Murrell & Dietz, 1992), or even price sensitivity (Wann & Branscombe, 1993). Beyond just ticket purchases, other behavioral outcomes are a result of a fan’s high team identification. Researchers have used scales for indirect consumption behavior such as intention to purchase a sport sponsor’s product (Madrigal, 2000) or watching their favorite team on television (Wann et al., 2013). In a university setting, researchers have proposed a model in which university identification (theorized to be impacted by athletic program dimensions) is positively related to *university consequences* that include alumni giving, participation in events, and encouraging others to attend the university (Bass, Gordon, & Kim, 2013). Because of this inconsistency, our understanding of the

relationship between behavioral outcomes and either identification levels or involvement with a sport product is limited.

Ticket Purchase/Attendance Behavior and Intentions

Perhaps the most apparent behavioral outcome with regards to spectator sports is attendance. Numerous studies have shown that fans deemed higher in identification are more likely to attend games (e.g., Wakefield & Sloan, 1995; Wann & Branscombe, 1993; Wann & Pierce, 2003), in many cases the most visible display of group supportive behaviors. In a 2013 study of multiple spectator consumption behaviors in the context of a new college football program, researchers found higher levels of team identification was positively related to football attendance (Shapiro et al., 2013). Likewise, in a study of Division I women's basketball game attendees, higher levels of involvement (specifically sign and an "enjoyment" factor consisting of pleasure, importance, and risk) were related to higher occurrences of attendance (Kerstetter & Kovich, 1997). Hill and Green (2000) also found involvement was a significant predictor of future attendance among rugby spectators supporting the home team. Similarly, researchers have found fans high in identification have and would be more willing to wait in longer lines for tickets (Wann & Branscombe, 1993; Wann & Pierce, 2003).

Emotional State Outcomes

Beaton et al. (2011) suggested such possible cognitive outcomes of involvement as psychological commitment, attitudinal loyalty, biased cognition, and perceived importance. However, the relationship between involvement, commitment, and the closely related construct of loyalty remains unclear. Researchers have noted the large amount of literature in leisure devoted to involvement and loyalty (Iwasaki & Havitz,

2004). For example, Pritchard, Havitz, and Howard (1999) further investigated the commitment-loyalty relationship in a study of airline and hotel patrons. They found that a resistance to change essentially mediates the relationship between antecedents of commitment and loyalty (Pritchard et al., 1999). Persistence of attitudes over time and a resistance to change have both been suggested as characteristics of highly involved fans (Funk & James, 2001). Enduring involvement has also been found to affect loyalty via commitment (commitment was a mediator) (Iwasaki & Havitz, 2004). With respect to identification, higher levels of identification with a specific sports team have been found to result in elevated levels of self-esteem and increased positive emotions while buffering against feelings of depression, alienation, and other negative emotions (Branscombe & Wann, 1991). In addition, highly identified fans are more apt to see other fans of their team as “special” or bonded (Wann & Branscombe, 1993), tending to evaluate other members of their ingroup more favorably (Wann & Dolan, 1994a).

Other Behavioral Outcomes

One of the more frequently cited studies in the sport literature reflects other behavioral outcomes besides attendance and is worthy of mention. Cialdini et al. (1976) examined the tendency for fans to BIRG through several behaviors including wearing clothing supporting their school of attendance and using *we* when discussing the sport team, both at a higher frequency following victories than defeats. In fact, researchers have found that higher levels of identification with a team results in fans more likely to BIRG (Wann & Branscombe, 1990).

The continued development of knowledge was also found to be positively related with the level of team identification (Wann & Branscombe, 1995). Specifically, Wann

and Branscombe (1995) found that simply being a general sports fan was not enough to predict the continued search for knowledge, but high identification with a specific team was the significant influencer. Other group supportive behaviors, that indirectly provide benefits to sport organizations, include the positive relationships between level of team identification and the intent to purchase a sport team's sponsor's products (Madrigal, 2000) as well as watching one's favorite team on television (Wann et al., 2013).

Donation/Support

Perhaps the most visible and relevant group supportive behavior for sport managers is the willingness to invest a greater amount of time and money associated with highly identified or highly involved fans (Havitz & Dimanche, 1999; McGehee, Yoon, & Cardenas, 2003; Wann & Branscombe, 1993; Wann & Pierce, 2003). Worth restating is Fisher and Wakefield's (1998) comment that "In general, the stronger the relationship between an organization and its members, the greater the willingness of individual members to engage in behaviors that support the group" (p. 24). Although no literature was found directly assessing the impact of identification or involvement with a university's sports teams on behavioral intentions to donate to that university, prior research showing a willingness to invest a greater amount of money and group supportive behaviors would lead one to believe logically that greater intentions to donate would also result. In addition, Bass et al. (2013) put forth a framework for understanding benefits realized by a university, including donations, that suggests further research should investigate the theorized link between athletic program dimensions (e.g., perceived success, prestige of the athletic program, etc.), university identification, and alumni support through donations.

Summary

Managers in all segments of the sport industry strive to identify and understand factors that stimulate consumer behavior. In college sport, where few NCAA Division I athletic programs are able to generate revenues that exceed expenses, the pressures to understand consumer behaviors intensify. Tajfel (1978) suggests actions (i.e., behaviors) are influenced or guided by a person's social identity. In other words, the influence of membership in a group affects intergroup behavior, or behavior stimulated through group influences rather than individual characteristics (Tajfel, 1982; Tajfel & Turner, 1986).

For many people, identification with a sports team provides a connection to a community and, in many cases, a significant group membership. In addition to increased consumption behavior (Fisher & Wakefield, 1998; Theodorakis et al., 2010), benefits to enhancing sport team identification include decreased price sensitivity and decreased performance-outcome sensitivity (Sutton et al., 1997). One strategy available to universities to maintain and enhance sport team identification among its consumers is the support of university-affiliated alumni sport fan clubs.

Sport spectator motivations including drama/eustress, achievement/self-esteem, escape, group affiliation, knowledge acquisition, and family have been identified (e.g., Trail et al., 2000; Trail & James, 2001; Wann, 1995). However, the salience of individual motivations to specific groups is unclear. No studies were found that identify the motivations that impact involvement in a university-affiliated alumni sport fan club.

In addition, while the construct of team identification has been investigated, much of the research has examined antecedents to and outcomes of team identification as a unidimensional construct. Building on social identity theory, team identification is

believed to be multidimensional consisting of the following factors: cognitive/affective, self-evaluative, and evaluation of other (Dimmock & Grove, 2006). Thus, to fully understand the relationship between team identification and involvement in a university-affiliated alumni sport fan club, team identification must be broken down to its factors.

Researchers have suggested that involvement motivates or causes a behavior in a consumer (Havitz & Dimanche, 1999; Laurent & Kapferer, 1985). However, similar to team identification, research has suggested that involvement in sport is multidimensional consisting of pleasure, self-expression (sign), and centrality (Beaton et al., 2011). Literature was not found that studied the antecedents and outcomes of the individual dimensions of sport involvement.

Evidence of a positive relationship between identification and consumer behaviors has been provided by researchers (e.g., Fisher & Wakefield, 1998; Madrigal, 2000; Shapiro et al., 2013). In addition, fans with higher levels of involvement with the sport product have an increased likelihood of engaging in team-related behavior (Funk & James, 2001). Behavior can include attendance, purchase of merchandise, support of sponsors, or in the context of college athletics, donations to the university. As previously stated, research suggests that highly involved or highly identified fans are more willing to invest a greater amount of time and money (Havitz & Dimanche, 1999; McGehee, Yoon et al., 2003; Wann & Branscombe, 1993; Wann & Pierce, 2003). However, no studies were found that directly addressed the relationship between involvement and donation intentions.

CHAPTER III

METHODOLOGY

The primary purpose of this study was to examine the relationships among spectator motivations, team identification, involvement in a university-affiliated alumni sport fan club, and general intentions to donate to the respective academic institution. In previous studies, the relationship between team identification and myriad behavioral outcomes has been examined (e.g., Madrigal, 2000, Wakefield & Sloan, 1995; Wann & Branscombe, 1993). However, university-affiliated sport fan clubs are a unique way that universities can potentially positively affect a necessary revenue stream (i.e., donations). Therefore, this study focused on the potential role that involvement and its dimensions of pleasure, sign, and centrality in a university-affiliated alumni sport fan club play in relation to spectator motivations, team identification, and behavioral intentions to donate.

This chapter is divided into the following sections: (1) sample, (2) instrumentation, (3) design and procedures, and (4) statistical analysis. The sample section includes a description of the target population, sampling frame, sample size requirements, and a description of respondents. In the instrumentation section, the scales used to measure the variables are discussed in detail. The design and procedures section specifies the nature of the study as well as a discussion of the data collection. Finally, the statistical analysis section expands on the statistical techniques used to answer each research question and is organized as such. A pilot study was conducted during the fall of

2012 to assess the accessibility of the target population, the clarity of several of the scales used, and the potential presence of non-normal data. A subsection in the design and procedures section contains a detailed discussion of the pilot study.

Sample

Population

The target population for the current study was members of official Division I Football Bowl Subdivision (FBS) university-affiliated alumni sport fan clubs of “football” schools that have traditionally been relatively successful based on financial stability (e.g., athletic revenues exceeding expenses on an annual basis) and on-field success in football in the major six conferences (i.e., Atlantic Coast Conference, Big East, Big Ten Conference, Big 12 Conference, Pac-12 Conference, and Southeastern Conference). Clubs were deemed “official” by their listing on a university-affiliated webpage. While these clubs vary in formality and the programming offered to their members, commonality exists in that membership in the club creates a formal connection of the fan to the university with the key purpose of supporting the sport teams, primarily football.

Any fan who is an official member of a club was a potential participant. However, there are fans who participate in club events (e.g., game viewing parties), who are not official members of the club. These fans were generally considered unreachable as the intended distribution of the survey was through a forwarded e-mail from the president or contact of the club, who was assumed to only have access to e-mail addresses of official members. However, club presidents or contacts were also encouraged to post the survey on the club’s social media sites, or use other channels for distribution, such as passing out

hard copies at a club event. Thus, these unofficial members may have been reached if a president or contact decided to use one of these alternate channels of distribution. Lastly, the vast majority of members of university-affiliated alumni sport fan clubs are alumni of the respective university. In the pilot study (to be discussed in a later section), 80.6% of the participants attended the University of Florida as an undergraduate student (77.4% graduated with an undergraduate degree) and just over a quarter (25.38%) attended as a graduate student (22.6% earned a graduate degree).

Sampling Frame

A sampling frame is “the list from which the sample is to be drawn in order to represent the survey population” (Dillman, 2000, p. 196). Thus, the sampling frame for this study was all members of alumni sport fan clubs affiliated with the University of Florida of the Southeastern Conference and The Ohio State University of the Big Ten Conference who had either provided an e-mail address to their club or were active on their club’s social media sites. Data were collected by contacting the president or contact of each randomly selected Gator Club listed on the University of Florida Alumni Association webpage (“UF Alumni Association,” 2013) and each randomly selected Ohio State Alumni Club listed on The Ohio State University Alumni Association, Inc. webpage (“The Ohio State University,” 2013). The presidents and contacts were contacted via email with a link to the survey asking them to disseminate it to their club either by e-mail, website link, or Facebook post. The potential for mixed-mode methods, using multiple methods to collect survey data, may have helped in reaching potential participants (Dillman, 2000).

The University of Florida and The Ohio State University were chosen for several reasons. First, similar to many of the Division I FBS football schools that have traditionally been relatively successful based on financial stability and on-field success, these universities have alumni networks that span from coast to coast calling themselves the “GatorNation” and the “BuckeyeNation.” In addition, both universities have been successful in a variety of sports beyond football as evidenced by recent finishes of second (University of Florida) and fourth (The Ohio State University) for the 2011-2012 Learfield Sports Director’s Cup (Associated Press, 2012); both have finished in the top 11 in the Learfield Sports Director’s Cup in each of the last five years (“National Association of Collegiate Directors,” 2013). The Learfield Sports Director’s Cup is a program that recognizes institutions that achieve success across a broad spectrum of men’s and women’s sports (“National Association of Collegiate Directors,” 2013). Many other schools in the population of interest (i.e., Division I FBS football schools that have traditionally been relatively successful based on financial stability and on-field success) have achieved similar recognition. Lastly, both schools are among the minority of overall athletic departments (but more common among the target population of universities) that consistently generate sufficient revenue to offset expenses as reported annually by *USA Today* (Upton & Berkowitz, 2012). This serves as another indicator of the financial strength of the programs due to a range of factors including strong alumni support. The target population was a subset of total Division I schools, Division I FBS football schools that have traditionally been relatively successful based on financial stability and on-field success. Therefore, results cannot be generalized beyond the population. However, lessons in generating other revenue (i.e., donations) can be gleaned from understanding

these revenue generating mechanisms used by major programs. Both major and mid-major programs could benefit from understanding the potential benefit in supporting and promoting university-affiliated alumni sport fan clubs.

Sample Size

Sample size was determined by examining requirements of each of the statistical tests to be used. First, confirmatory factor analysis was used to confirm that the factor structure of the multidimensional scales align with theory. In addition, a series of multiple regressions was used to assess relationships among variables. The overall study sample size reflected the procedure that required the largest sample size.

First, to assess factor structure of fan motivations, team identification, and involvement, confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) was used. CFA is commonly referred to as a *large sample* technique (Kline, 2011). However, relatively small samples, as few as 200, have been shown to be adequate in Monte Carlo simulations (Myers, Ahn, & Jin, 2011).

Next, a series of hierarchical multiple regressions was used to assess the relationships between fan motivations, dimensions of team identification, dimensions of involvement, and behavioral intentions to donate. The hierarchical regression model that required the largest sample size tested the following 10 explanatory variables after controlling for gender: seven spectator motivations and three dimensions of team identification. G*Power 3.1.3 (Faul, Erdfelder, Buchner, & Lang, 2009) was used to calculate a minimum sample size needed of 160 to detect a medium effect, with a Bonferroni-adjusted alpha of .01 (to compensate for inflated Type I error risk due to multiple tests), and desired a priori power equal to .80. Thus, 250 served as the minimum

target sample size (a minimum of 200 needed to run analyses and 50 additional to allow for unusable surveys due to missing data).

Description of Participants

It is unknown how many total clubs participated in the survey. However, several presidents did reply to either the initial or follow-up e-mail from the first or second round of data collection. While nine presidents responded that they were unable to forward the e-mail due to communication policies or an inactive group, others noted they were willing to participate and used a variety of methods to disseminate the survey to their members (Table 1).

Table 1

Reported Methods Used by Presidents who Replied Via E-mail

Dissemination Method	Gator Clubs		Ohio State Alumni Clubs	
	In Florida	Outside Florida	In Ohio	Outside Ohio
E-mail	3	5	8	5
Facebook	2	6	0	1
Unknown	3	1	0	0
Could not forward	4	3	0	2
<i>Total Unique Replies</i>	<i>12</i>	<i>15</i>	<i>8</i>	<i>8</i>

Prior to analysis, 22 cases (representing 6.9% of the total sample) were removed due to participants quitting at various stages of the survey (13 after the first page, six after the second page, one after the third page, and two after the fourth page). Due to the construction and ordering of the scales on the survey, the 13 participants who quit after

the first page did not complete the first instrument (spectator motivations) or any subsequent items. The six participants who quit after the second page only completed the first instrument (spectator motivations). The two participants who quit after the third page only completed the first instrument (spectator motivations) and the second instrument (team identification). None of these participants completed the 3-item semantic differential donation intention scale. Thus, these responses were deemed unusable. The following sections describe the remaining sample ($N = 296$).

Tables 2 and 3 provide average age (and standard deviation), gender, donation intention, and marital status breakdown of all participants. While a majority of participants of both university-affiliated alumni sport fan clubs were married, The Ohio State Alumni Club members tended to be a bit older in age. Both clubs had a relatively equal representation by gender.

Table 2

Age, Gender, and Donation Intention of Participants

Club	Age		Gender			Donation Intention*	
	<i>n</i>	<i>M(SD)</i>	<i>n</i>	Male	Female	<i>n</i>	<i>M(SD)</i>
Gator Clubs	205	42.5(14)	207	105(50.7%)	102(49.3%)	208	13.1(6)
Ohio State Alumni Clubs	86	51.5(15)	87	41(47.1%)	46(52.9%)	88	14.8(6)
<i>Total</i>	291	45.2(15)	294	146(49.7%)	148(50.3%)	296	13.6(6)

*Donation Intention was measured through the use of Madrigal's (2000) 3-item semantic differential scale. After recoding of two items, each item was measured on a 1 (most negative) to 7 (most positive) scale. Donation Intention scores were calculated by summing scores on the three items for each participant. Thus, Donation Intention scores are on a scale of 3 (most negative) to 21 (most positive). Excellent reliability was found in the current sample with Cronbach's alpha of .95.

Table 3

Marital Status of Participants

Club	Now Married		Divorced		Never Married		Widow/ widower	
	<i>n</i>	%	<i>n</i>	%	<i>n</i>	%	<i>n</i>	%
Gator Clubs (<i>n</i> = 206)	127	61.7%	15	7.3%	62	30.1%	2	1.0%
Ohio State Alumni Clubs (<i>n</i> = 86)	61	70.9%	8	9.3%	15	17.4%	2	2.3%
<i>Total</i> (<i>n</i> = 292)	188	64.4%	23	7.9%	77	26.4%	4	1.4%

Table 4 provides a breakdown of participants' affiliation with their respective university. Over 80% of members of both university-affiliated alumni sport fan clubs attended their respective university as an undergraduate student. Only about a quarter attended their respective university as a graduate student.

Table 4

Affiliation/Alumni Status of Participants

Affiliation/Alumni Status	Gator Clubs		Ohio State Alumni Clubs		Total	
	<i>n</i>	%	<i>n</i>	%	<i>n</i>	%
Attended as an Undergraduate Student	171	83.8%	73	85.9%	244	84.4%
Graduated with a Bachelor's Degree	162	81.0%	72	83.7%	234	81.8%
Attended as a Graduate Student	51	27.7%	25	33.3%	76	29.3%
Graduated with a Graduate Degree	49	26.6%	20	27.0%	69	26.7%

Instrumentation

The online survey was created on SurveyMonkey.com and disseminated via a link in an e-mail. Two versions of the survey were created. One version was titled "Go Gators!" and had the "Florida Gators" or "Gator Club" inserted in the text of the items. The other version was titled "Go Buckeyes!" and had "Ohio State Buckeyes" or "Ohio State Alumni Club" inserted into the text. The 53-item survey consisted of the following

five sections: a spectator motivation scale (21 items), a team identification scale (nine items), an involvement scale (nine items), a behavioral intention to donate scale (four items), and a demographic section (10 items). A detailed discussion of each of the sections of the survey follows.

Spectator Motivations

Several scales have been used by researchers in the sport literature to measure spectator and fan motivations. The Sport Fan Motivation Scale (SFMS), one of the first, is a 23-item scale that measures eight categories of motivations including eustress, self-esteem benefits, escape, entertainment, economic, aesthetic, group affiliation, and family needs (Wann, 1995). While Wann (1995) found psychometric support for his eight-factor model, other studies have found conflicting evidence for the factor structure and internal consistency of the SFMS in similar samples (e.g., Armstrong, 2002; Wann, Grieve, Zapalac, & Pease, 2008; Wann et al., 1999). Trail and James (2001) also noted several concerns with the SFMS including content validity, construct validity, and discriminant validity. Thus, Trail and James (2001) developed the Motivation Scale for Sport Consumption (MSSC), a nine factor scale (i.e., achievement, acquisition of knowledge, aesthetics, drama/eustress, escape, family, physical attractiveness of participants, the quality of the physical skill of participants, and social interaction), testing the factor structure, validity, and reliability of scores elicited from the scale in a sample of 2003 Major League Baseball season ticket holders. They reported the model fit the data reasonably well based on a root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA) equal to 0.057. Also, Trail and James (2001) showed convergent-related validity evidence with average variance explained (AVE) values for all but one subscale exceeding .50 and

discriminant-related validity evidence with no squared correlations exceeding the AVE values for any constructs. Reliability estimates for scores on the subscales ranged from .68 (family needs) to .89 (achievement).

The MSSC scale has been modified since its original development. In 2002, Fink et al. found the family subscale to be irrelevant, questioning whether spending time with family was really a motive of sport consumption. The physical attraction subscale has also been removed from several studies on motivation (e.g., Trail et al., 2003; Robinson & Trail, 2005; Robinson, Trail, & Kwon, 2004). The modified scale consists of 21 items (seven subscales, three items per scale). A CFA on the modified scale, in a sample of 2,304 spectators at three major professional golf tours, resulted in a good fit, RMSEA = 0.059. In addition, scores on all subscales showed good to excellent reliability as suggested by Kline's (2011) cutoffs with Cronbach's alphas ranging from .86 (drama) to .92 (social). Further evidence for the factor structure and internal consistency has been found. Robinson and Trail (2005), in a sample of 669 spectators at a collegiate football game, a men's basketball game, and a women's basketball game, found a reasonable fit with the data, RMSEA = 0.08, and Cronbach's alphas for scores on the subscales ranging from .75 (drama) to .90 (social).

Due to the more consistent findings supporting the factor structure, convergent and discriminant validity, and reliability, the MSSC was chosen for this study. The only modification made for the purposes of this study was to specifically reference either the Florida Gators or The Ohio State Buckeyes in each item. For example, an original item from the MSSC is (achievement subscale) "I feel a personal sense of achievement when the team does well." This item was modified to "I feel a personal sense of achievement

when the *Florida Gators* do well” or “I feel a personal sense of achievement when the *Ohio State Buckeyes* do well.” The MSSC consists of the following seven subscales: achievement, acquisition of knowledge, aesthetics, drama/eustress, escape, the quality of the physical skill of participants, and social interaction. Each subscale consists of three items. Each item was measured on a 7-point Likert-type scale ranging from 1 (*strongly disagree*) to 7 (*strongly agree*). Reliability of the scores on each of the theoretical subscales was assessed with Cronbach’s alpha values of .80 or greater indicating good reliability and Cronbach’s alpha values of .70 or greater indicating adequate reliability (Kline, 2011). CFA was used to test the factor structure of the current data set. If the data did not closely fit a seven-factor model, individual items and theorized subscales were investigated. If items on a particular subscale did not load on that subscale, the subscale was deleted for the current study. If the seven-factor structure was confirmed, the scores for each of the seven subscales were summed with total scores for each subscale ranging from 3 to 21.

Team Identification

Dimmock and Grove (2006) developed and used a 9-item, three dimensional Team Identification Scale (TIS) (based on the work of Dimmock et al., 2005) to investigate the relationship between team identification and subjective certainty. The TIS consists of three items in each of the following dimensions: cognitive/affective, personal evaluative, and other evaluative (Dimmock & Grove, 2006). Limited reliability and validity support exists for scores on the TIS due to the relatively recent introduction into the literature. However, reliability has been reported in two subsequent studies. Dimmock and Grove (2006), in a study of Australian high school students, found adequate to good

reliability, as suggested by Kline's (2011) cutoffs, for scores on each of the three subscales that make up the TIS: cognitive/affective ($\alpha = .77$), personal evaluation ($\alpha = .81$), and perceived other evaluative ($\alpha = .81$). More recently, scores on the TIS obtained adequate to good reliability (ranging from .77 to .81) for the three subscales among Greek college students and Australian high school students in a study with a purpose of translating the TIS into Greek (Theodorakis et al., 2010). To develop the TIS, Dimmock et al. (2005) modeled items from existing instruments (e.g., Ellemers et al., 1999) and recruited doctoral students to help assess the appropriateness of the items to the theoretical framework. Dimmock et al. (2005) then ran an exploratory factor analysis on the remaining items (with a sample of community members who had attended at least one Australian football game) and extracted the three factors used in the scale (i.e., cognitive/affective, personal evaluation, and perceived other evaluative). A CFA was conducted on the same sample on four competing models including a one-factor model, a two-factor model (cognitive-affective and evaluative), and two three-factor models (cognitive, affective, and evaluative in the first and cognitive-affective, personal evaluative, and perceived other evaluation). The three-factor model consisting of cognitive-affective, personal evaluative, and perceived other evaluation provided the best fit and was considered acceptable, $\chi^2(87, N = 362) = 261.12, p < .01$; incremental fit index (IFI) = .922; comparative fit index (CFI) = .921. In a second study, Dimmock et al. (2005) found, in a sample of Australian community members who closely followed a team, a fit for the three-factor model (cognitive-affective, personal evaluative, and perceived other evaluation) that while still not considered acceptable, $\chi^2(87, N = 319) = 359.16, p < .01$; IFI = .891; CFI = .890, was an improvement over competing models

including a unidimensional model, a two-factor model (cognitive-affective and evaluative), and a three-factor model (cognitive, affective, and evaluative). Dimmock and Grove (2006) used the TIS in a study of Australian high school students and once again found strong loadings on items for each of the three factors (all factor loadings were greater than .40). In addition, Dimmock and Grove (2006) found correlations between factors (.44 to .58) to be “moderately related but not redundant” (p. 1207).

The TIS (Dimmock & Grove, 2006) was chosen for the current study due to its ability to allow researchers to investigate not only overall relationships with team identification, but also to tease out the individual dimensions (i.e., cognitive/affective, personal evaluation, and other evaluation) and recognize their distinct contributions to team identification as well as their relationships with other variables. The only modification made to the TIS in this study was to replace “my favorite team” with “the Florida Gators” or “the Ohio State Buckeyes.” A sample item from the personal evaluation subscale follows:

The Florida Gators have a lot to be proud of...

Strongly Disagree 1234567 *Strongly Agree*

Each of the nine items were measured on a 7-point Likert-type scale ranging from 1 (*strongly disagree*) to 7 (*strongly agree*). Reliability of each subscale was assessed with Cronbach’s alpha values of .80 or greater indicating good reliability and Cronbach’s alpha values of .70 or greater indicating adequate reliability (Kline, 2011). CFA was used to test the factor structure of the current data set. If the three-factor structure was confirmed, the scores for each of the three subscales were summed with total scores for each subscale ranging from 3 to 21.

Involvement in a University-Affiliated Alumni Sport Fan Club

In 2001, Funk and James introduced the PCM that addresses the processes that account for a fan's movement from an initial awareness of a team, to an attraction, then to an attachment, and eventually becoming an allegiant fan of a team. Essentially, the PCM uses involvement to distinguish among fans at different levels of psychological involvement (Funk et al., 2004). The PCM staging tool is the instrument used to place a fan on the PCM and is comprised of items addressing three of the involvement facets previously discussed: pleasure (equivalent to attraction), centrality, and sign (self-expression) (Funk, 2008).

The PCM staging tool (Funk, 2008), a 9-item Likert-type scale used in the current study, theoretically consists of three subscales (i.e., pleasure, centrality, and sign), each containing three items. Participants were asked to rate their level of agreement from 1 (*strongly disagree*) to 7 (*strongly agree*) on items such as "I find a lot of my life organized around attending X" or "You can tell a lot about a person by seeing them at X." In this study, X was replaced with "Gator Club" or "Ohio State Alumni Club." Reliability of scores on each theoretical subscale was assessed with Cronbach's alpha values of .80 or greater indicating good reliability and Cronbach's alpha values of .70 or greater indicating adequate reliability (Kline, 2011). CFA was used to test the factor structure of involvement in the current data set by testing a three-factor model (pleasure, centrality, and sign). If the three-factor structure was confirmed, the scores for each of the three subscales were summed with total scores for each subscale ranging from 3 to 21. If the three-factor structure was not confirmed, scores of all three subscales were summed

to represent a total involvement score and reliability was assessed using Kline's criteria listed above.

Behavioral Intentions to Donate

Researchers have been inconsistent in the scales used to measure behavioral intentions. For example, Matsuoka et al. (2003) used the following single item: "How likely are you to attend the [TEAM's] games during the remainder of the season" (p. 248). Similarly, Wakefield and Sloan (1995) used a single item asking the frequency of expected attendance in the future. In contrast, other researchers have instead measured outcomes by simply asking subjects how many games they had already attended that season (Fisher & Wakefield, 1998; Murrell & Dietz, 1992). Wann and Branscombe (1993) examined how much a fan would be willing to pay for a variety of types of games, how much they had paid, how long they would be willing to wait in line, and how long they had waited in line for tickets in the past.

Madrigal (2000) used a 3-item semantic differential scale (i.e., extremely likely-extremely unlikely, not probable-probable, certain chance-no chance) to measure a consumer's intentions to purchase the product of a sponsor of a football team. The three items chosen for Madrigal's study have been used in similar form in a number of studies; however, Madrigal's was the only study in the context of sports. Madrigal found good reliability ($\alpha = .81$) for scores on the 3-item scale in a sample of NCAA D-I football game attendees. Other researchers, using similar items, have found reliability (Cronbach's alpha) ranging from .80 (Zhang & Buda, 1999) in a sample of undergraduate students to .96 (Oliver & Swan, 1989) in a sample of new car buyers.

“To the extent that a person has the required opportunities and resources, and intends to perform the behavior, he or she should succeed in doing so” (Ajzen, 1991, p. 182). Thus, for the purposes of the current study, Madrigal’s (2000) 3-item semantic differential scale was used to measure behavioral intentions to donate. As previously mentioned, universities can benefit financially from other forms of behavioral intentions beyond just attendance or merchandise sales. Thus, participants were asked to assess their intentions to donate financially to the University of Florida or The Ohio State University through the use of Madrigal’s (2000) 3-item scale. One item was measured by scores ranging from 1 (most negative) to 7 (most positive) while the other two items were reversed, 1 (most positive) to 7 (most negative). After data collection, these two items were recoded so higher numbers on all three scales represented a more positive response. Then, scores on these three items were summed resulting in a range of 3 to 21. In the pilot study, excellent reliability was found for scores on the intention to donate scale with Cronbach’s alpha of .90.

Demographics

Several demographic questions to describe the sample were asked including age, gender, marital status, race/ethnicity, and average household income. In addition, participants were asked to provide the zip code where their home is located to assess geographic proximity to the University of Florida or The Ohio State University. Then, geographic proximity was measured in miles from each zip code to the respective university. On Google Maps (“Google,” 2013), each zip code was entered as the starting point and the respective university (i.e., University of Florida, Gainesville, FL and The Ohio State University, Columbus, OH) was entered as the ending point. The mileage of

the first suggested route was used as the geographic proximity variable. The suggested routes are listed in the order of expected drive time from shortest to longest and thus do not always correlate with the shortest route as measured in miles. Geographic proximity was measured between 8:00 AM and 8:30 AM Mountain Standard Time on Tuesday, June 25, 2013. Due to the effect of variations in traffic patterns, different routes may be suggested at different points of time and/or on different days slightly upwardly or downwardly biasing the mileage. Lastly, several questions were asked concerning whether participants attended/graduated from the University of Florida or The Ohio State University for either their undergraduate or graduate studies.

Design and Procedures

The design of this study was nonexperimental in that participants were not randomly assigned to groups with a manipulated independent variable. Instead, this study relied on a self-report survey consisting of scales and items previously found to elicit reliable and valid scores in similar populations. The correlational nature of this study allowed for the investigation of the strength and direction of the relationships between the variables of interest.

Research question one examined the extent to which theorized dimensions of involvement (i.e., sign, centrality, and pleasure) in a university-affiliated alumni sport fan club could be explained by spectator sport motivations and the theorized dimensions of team identification after controlling for gender. Research question two investigated the extent to which sign, centrality, and pleasure dimensions of involvement in a university-affiliated sport fan club could explain intentions to donate to the academic institution

after controlling for income, alumni status, and age. Lastly, geographic proximity was tested to see if geographic proximity moderates any of the examined relationships.

Pilot Study

A pilot study was conducted during the fall of 2012 to assess the accessibility of the target population, the clarity of several of the scales used, and the potential presence of non-normal data. For the purposes of the pilot study, four Gator Clubs in the state of Florida and four Gator Clubs outside the state of Florida were contacted. The Gator Clubs chosen were randomly selected and contact information for the president or contact of each Gator Club was acquired from the full list of Gator Clubs listed on the University of Florida Alumni Association webpage (“UF Alumni Association,” 2013). An e-mail was sent to the president or contact of each of the selected clubs briefly introducing myself as the researcher, describing the study, and asking for their help in dissemination (Appendix A). If the president had not responded by e-mail within a week, a follow-up note along with the original e-mail was resent (Appendix B) to increase the response rate (Dillman, 2000).

The four Gator Clubs selected in the state of Florida included the Clay County Gator Club (Orange Park, FL), the Marion County Gator Club (Ocala, FL), the Northwest Florida Gator Club (Pensacola, FL), and the Putnam County Gator Club (Palatka, FL). The four Gator Clubs selected outside the state of Florida include the Kansas City Gator Club (Kansas City, MO), the Gotham Gator Club (New York, NY), the Music City Gator Club (Brentwood, TN), and the Alamo City Gator Club (San Antonio, TX). Two clubs (25.0%) did not respond to the initial or follow-up e-mail. Two clubs (25.0%) replied that they were unable to forward the request due to their communication policies. Four clubs

(50.0%) forwarded the e-mail to their respective clubs. The number of members was only known for one club (Music City Gator Club). It is unknown whether the size of the Music City Gator Club is representative of other Gator Clubs near metropolitan areas. The final sample for the pilot study consisted of 32 participants. One participant did not complete the survey, and thus was excluded from data analysis resulting in a final sample size of 31. Therefore, approximately eight people responded and fully completed the survey from each club where the e-mail was passed on to the club membership. The participants' mean age was 42.5 years ($SD = 13.5$ years). The majority of the participants were white/Caucasian (87.1%), male (64.5%), and married (64.5%). In addition, 80.6% attended the University of Florida as an undergraduate student (77.4% graduated with an undergraduate degree) and just over a quarter (25.38%) attended as a graduate student (22.6% earned a graduate degree). Approximately one-third (38.7%) reported annual household income between \$50,000 and \$100,000 (45.2% reported annual household incomes greater than \$100,000). Due to the inaccessibility of overall Gator Club member demographic information, the representativeness of the pilot study sample is not known.

Full Study

A contact name and e-mail for the president or contact of each club was retrieved from the respective alumni association webpage (i.e., <http://www.ufalumni.ufl.edu/> and <http://www.ohiostatealumni.org/>). To reach a desired sample size of 250, a stratified random sample of 40 Gator Clubs (20 located in the state of Florida, 20 located outside the state of Florida) and 40 Ohio State Alumni Clubs (20 located in the state of Ohio, 20 located outside the state of Ohio) were selected. In this study, an online survey protocol adapted from Dillman's (2000) recommended contact sequence was implemented. First,

an email was sent to the president or contact of each of the 40 randomly selected Gator Clubs and each of the 40 randomly selected Ohio State Alumni clubs explaining the purpose of the study and that their voluntary input and assistance is much appreciated (Appendix C and D). Within the body of the email was a link to the survey created on the third party survey web site SurveyMonkey.com. The presidents or contacts were asked to disseminate the electronic survey to members of their respective club either via email, a link on their club website, or as a post on their club's Facebook or other social media page. In addition, an incentive was offered for anyone who participated (i.e., a chance to win one of two \$25 gift cards to the respective university's bookstore). Several e-mails generated automatic replies identifying the initial e-mail as undeliverable. In other words, several e-mail addresses of club presidents or contacts were invalid. Thus, an additional Gator Club located in the state of Florida, an additional Gator Club located outside the state of Florida, and two Ohio State Alumni Clubs located in the state of Ohio were randomly selected and contacted to replace sport fan clubs that listed e-mails found to be invalid. All initial e-mails were sent on April 17, 2013 with follow-up e-mails sent a week later on April 24, 2013 (Appendix E).

As of June 6, 2013, the desired sample size had not been reached. Therefore, an additional randomly selected 20 Gator Clubs (10 located in the state of Florida, 10 located outside the state of Florida) and 20 Ohio State Alumni Clubs (10 located in the state of Ohio, 10 located outside the state of Ohio) were contacted. Again, due to invalid e-mails, two additional randomly selected Ohio State Alumni Clubs located in the state of Ohio were contacted. A follow-up e-mail was sent on June 13, 2013, to those clubs that

had not responded. The survey was closed and all data were downloaded from SurveyMonkey.com on June 25, 2013.

A consent form was the initial page that appeared before participants took part in the survey. Within the body of the consent form, the participants were informed that upon completion of the survey, they would have the option of providing an e-mail address to be entered into a drawing for one of two \$25 gift cards to their respective university's bookstore. (A total of four gift cards were available as prizes: two for the University of Florida participants and two for The Ohio State University participants). If participants agreed to take the survey, they selected the button "Next" which took them to the survey.

After completing the survey, participants were directed to a page where they had the option of typing into a text box an e-mail address to be entered into a drawing for either one of two \$25 gift cards to the University of Florida bookstore or one of two \$25 gift cards to The Ohio State University bookstore. This page also thanked them for their time. Once data collection was complete, two e-mail addresses provided by the University of Florida survey participants and two e-mail addresses provided by The Ohio State University survey participants were randomly selected. An e-mail was sent to each of the four winners notifying that they had won the drawing and requesting an address where the gift card could be sent. Upon receiving addresses, I then mailed each gift card to the four drawing winners.

Data Analysis

After collection, the data were coded for statistical analysis. LISREL 8.8 (Jöreskog & Sörbom, 2006) was used to conduct confirmatory factor analysis on the multidimensional scales. IBM SPSS Statistics 19 was used for all other statistical

analyses including the multiple regression models. Descriptives, frequencies, means, and standard deviations were run on all items, scales, and hypothesized subscales to assess normality and overall distributional characteristics of the data with cutoffs for normal skew values of -1 and +1 and normal kurtosis values of -1 to +2. “It is unlikely that a normal distribution would ever be observed on team identification among attendees of any game featuring that team” (Madrigal, 2000, p. 22). In the pilot study with a small sample, all three identification subscales and the aggregate scale were unsurprisingly highly negatively skewed. Thus, if data were highly skewed, a transformation to the data was performed to represent a more normal distribution. Similarly, high emotional involvement is common in sports (Sutton et al., 1997). In fact, “sports may be near the anchor point for the high-involvement end of the continuum” (Underwood et al., 2001, p. 2). However, this was not seen in the pilot as only one subscale was outside the normal skew values of -1 to +1. However, the possibility did exist that the involvement subscales or aggregate scale were negatively skewed. If so, a transformation of the data was conducted so the data reflected a more normal distribution. Frequencies were also examined for out of range or implausible values. In addition, SurveyMonkey.com allows the researcher to force participants to respond with a single answer to each item. Each item on the fan motivation, team identification, involvement, and behavioral intentions to donate scale required a response from the participant. If a participant quit before completing the behavioral intention to donate scale, his or her responses were deemed unusable. In the pilot study, only one completed survey contained missing data. Thus, the loss in sample size due to forcing responses was expected to be minimal.

Confirmatory Factor Analysis

To assess the factor structure of the multidimensional constructs including spectator motivations, team identification, and involvement for the current sample, CFA was used. CFA, unlike exploratory factor analysis (EFA), allows testing of an a priori hypothesis between observed and latent variables (Jackson, Gillaspay, & Purc-Stephenson, 2009). Maximum likelihood estimation (ML) assumes multivariate normality of *continuous* endogenous variables (Kline, 2011). However, while survey data, typically Likert-type scales, are “designed to measure a theoretically continuous construct, the observed responses are discrete realizations of a small number of categories” (Flora & Curran, 2004, p. 466). In other words, an otherwise continuous variable can only be measured by constraining responses to a few categories. Thus, error is introduced due to the “imperfection of the scaling technique” (DiStefano, 2002, p. 328). While ML is not conceptually appropriate when using ordinal data, the Satorra-Bentler rescaling procedure, originally conceived to be applied to nonnormal *continuous* data, has been suggested as an alternative when the researcher is presented with nonnormal *ordinal* data (DiStefano, 2002). Therefore, in this study I used the Satorra-Bentler chi-square statistic that adjusts the chi-square statistic and the standard error estimates based on the data’s nonnormality (a polychoric correlation matrix and an asymptotic covariance matrix were analyzed).

To identify the CFA models, the first item of each latent variable on each scale was assigned a value of one (Kline, 2011). In other words, the unstandardized coefficient (or loading) for the first item on all subscales was set to one. This can be seen in Figure 1 (MSSC), Figure 2 (TIS), and Figure 3 (PCM staging tool).

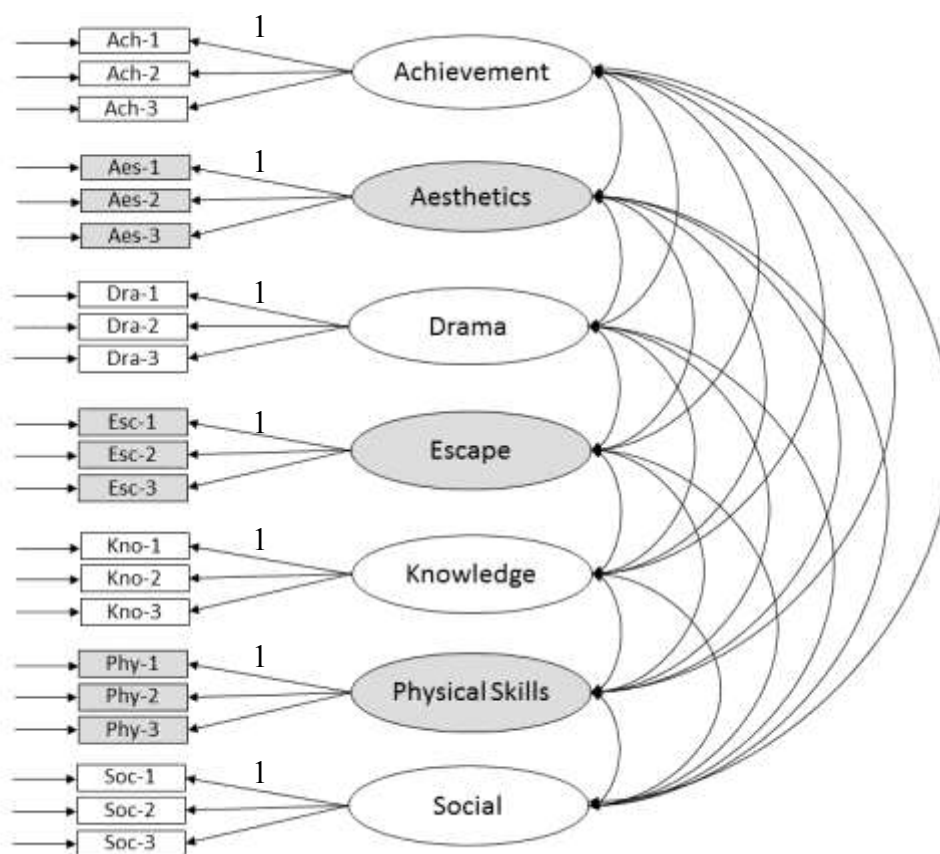


Figure 1. The MSSC seven-factor model.

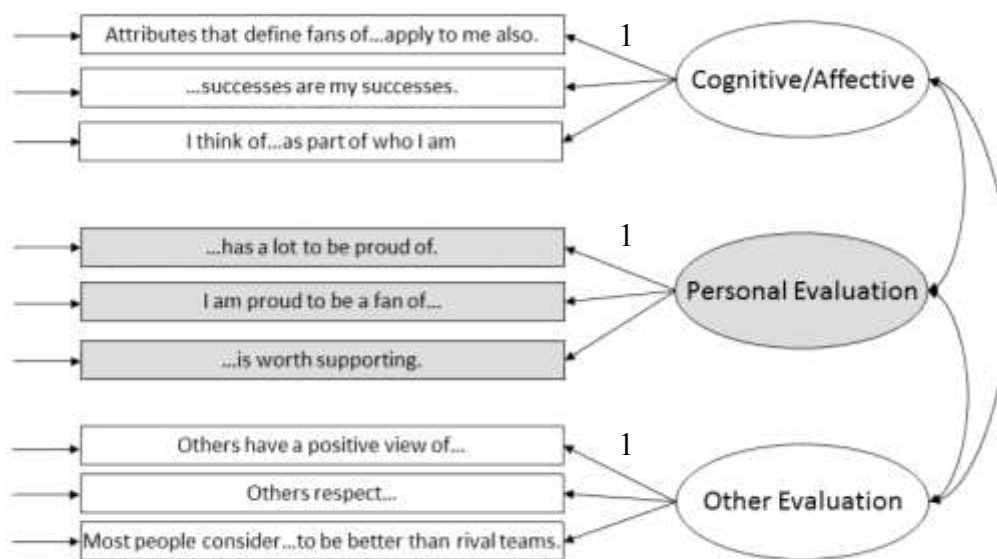


Figure 2. The TIS three-factor model.

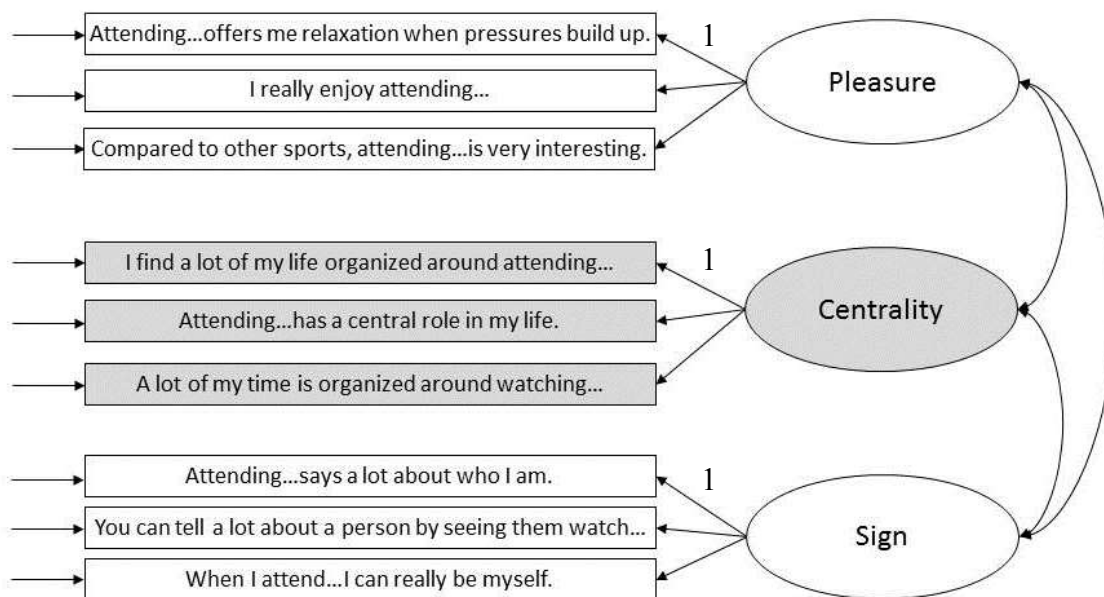


Figure 3. The PCM staging tool three-factor model.

Prior to assessing global fit (how well the data fit the model overall), component fit was examined. Component fit consists of evaluating the plausibility of the model by inspecting the range (specifically that there are no negative error variances), magnitude, direction (positive or negative align with theory), and statistical significance of the parameter estimates (t -values greater than or equal to 1.96 denotes significance at $\alpha = .05$). In addition, squared multiple correlations greater than approximately .20 indicate reliability of the indicators on their theorized latent variables.

The first step in assessing global fit was an examination of the Satorra-Bentler chi-square statistic, testing the hypothesis that the model fits the data exactly. For a model to be deemed properly specified, p -value for the model chi-square should ideally be considerably larger than .05 (Kline, 2011). However, due to several factors that can affect the observed chi-square value, most notably sample size, other fit indexes should be reported along with the model chi-square (Kline, 2011). First, the root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA) was used with values of less than .05 indicating that a model has a close fit (Browne & Cudeck, 1992) and values of less than .08 indicating an adequate fit. In addition, the 90% confidence interval was examined. A narrower range indicated additional confidence in the RMSEA value while a wider range casts doubt on the estimate. RMSEA, used with ordinal data, has been found to not be affected by sample size or model complexity (Hutchinson & Olmos, 1998). Next, Hu and Bentler (1999) recommended reporting the comparative fit index (CFI), an incremental fit index, along with the standardized root mean square residual (SRMR). CFI values of .95 and higher combined with SRMR values of .08 or lower indicate good fit (Hu & Bentler, 1999). However, these thresholds have been challenged. In fact, the distributions of fit

indices change as a result of model misspecification (Yuan, 2005). However, Yuan (2005) suggested that RMSEA is the most stable of the common fit indexes due to the square root in its equation that results in the weakening of its sensitivity. An evaluation of the complete picture of model fit and an understanding of the shortcomings of each fit index enables the researcher to most effectively evaluate model fit.

Convergent and discriminant validity was also be assessed; “the constructs represented in the assessment should rationally account for the external pattern of correlations” (Messick, 1995, p. 746). In other words, items contribute to a scale’s underlying theoretical construct. Inspection of average variance explained (AVE) for each latent variable, defined as the sum of the squared standardized factor loadings divided by the number of items, above .50 indicate that the variance explained by the latent variable is greater than variance due to measurement error, thus implying good convergent validity (Fornell & Larcker, 1981). Discriminant validity refers to sets of variables theorized to measure distinct constructs (subscales in the current study). Thus, discriminant validity was established by observing AVEs for each latent variable (i.e., subscale) that were greater than shared variance with any other latent variable (i.e., subscale) (Fornell & Larcker, 1981). In addition, an examination of the magnitude of correlations between the subscales provided evidence as to the distinctiveness of the subscales. Lastly, internal consistency was assessed for all scales and subscales by calculating Cronbach’s alpha with values greater than .90 considered excellent, values greater than .80 considered good, and values greater than .70 considered adequate (Kline, 2011).

Regression Diagnostics

Hierarchical multiple linear regression models were used to address all three research questions. Therefore, certain assumptions prior to the interpretation of regression results must be met. First, error-free measurement was assessed by Cronbach's alpha with .80 and higher considered good and .70 considered adequate for reliability estimates of scores on spectator motivation subscales, subscales of team identification, subscales of involvement in a fan club, and the behavioral intention scale (Kline, 2011). Then, linearity, the inclusion of all relevant independent variables, and random and homoscedastic residuals were assessed for each regression model through examination of residual plots for evidence of a broad horizontal band of points. A histogram and P-P plot were examined for evidence of normally distributed residuals with a mean of zero. In addition to assumptions, the potential presence of multicollinearity was assessed through examination of variance inflation factors (VIF) (greater than 10.0 indicates extreme multicollinearity – but values much smaller than this can still indicate serious collinearity problems) and tolerance values (less than .1 indicates extreme multicollinearity and values much larger than this also suggest serious collinearity). Condition indices were also examined with values greater than 15 indicating possible multicollinearity (values over 30 suggesting extreme multicollinearity). Lastly, outliers identified as cases with standardized residuals greater than + or - 3.0 were examined to determine if they were potentially influential, based on an observed Cook's D value greater than 1.0. Regardless of whether identified outliers were influential, all analyses were run without the outliers. Results of analyses with and without outliers were compared.

Analyses of Research Questions

Hierarchical multiple linear regression models were used to answer all three research questions. Control variables were entered in the first step in all models. Then, individual explanatory variables entered in the second step, were assessed for significance, and squared semi-partial correlations, representing the unique contribution of each variable above and beyond all other variables in the model, were interpreted. To compensate for an increased Type I error risk, a conservative alpha of .01 was used for all tests.

Research question one. To answer research question one, three hierarchical multiple linear regressions were used to determine which, if any, individual dimensions of team identification and/or spectator motivations explain a person's feeling of sign, pleasure, and centrality dimensions of involvement in a university-affiliated alumni sport fan club after controlling for gender. The total score on each of the three subscales of involvement (i.e., sign, pleasure, and centrality) was entered as a dependent variable, one for each regression model. Gender, a dichotomous categorical variable, was entered in the first step of each model and tested for statistical significance. Then in the second step, total scores on subscales of spectator motivations and team identification were entered as independent variables. The set of spectator motivations along with the set of the subscales of team identification were tested for significance. Then, individual subscales were examined for significance. Squared semi-partial correlations for each independent variable (subscale), representing the unique contribution of each variable above and beyond all other variables in the model, were interpreted.

Research question two. To answer research question two, a hierarchical multiple linear regression was used to determine if the three dimensions of involvement (i.e., sign, centrality, and pleasure) explain a person's behavioral intention to donate to the university after controlling for income, alumni status, and age. The total score on the behavioral intention to donate scale was entered as the dependent variable. Income, alumni status (two dichotomous categorical variables indicating whether a participant graduated from the university with an undergraduate degree and a graduate degree), and age (a continuous variable) were entered in the first step of the model and each tested for significance. In the second step, the total scores of sign, centrality, and pleasure subscales of involvement were entered and assessed for significance. Squared semi-partial correlations for each dimension of involvement were interpreted.

Research question three. Research question three addressed the extent to which geographic proximity moderated the relationships examined by research questions one and two. Geographic proximity was operationalized as a continuous variable represented by the number of miles a person's zip code is located from the respective university. Thus, geographic proximity was entered as the third step in each hierarchical regression model. Then, the products of geographic proximity and the dimensions of team identification and the product of geographic proximity and the social spectator motivation were entered as the fourth step in the first set of models and tested for significance. Similarly, the products of geographic proximity and each of the three involvement dimensions were also added as a fourth step in the second model and tested for significance. To test whether or not geographic proximity moderates the relationships, each product variable was tested for significance. Lastly, if the product variables were not

significant, geographic proximity as a main effect was tested for significance in each model.

CHAPTER IV

RESULTS

The primary purpose of this study was to examine the involvement of members of university-affiliated alumni sport fan clubs. First, antecedents to involvement including spectator motivations and team identification were investigated. Then, consumer behavioral intentions, specifically donation intentions, were examined for any relationships with the individual dimensions of involvement in a university-affiliated alumni sport fan club. Lastly, members' geographic proximity to their respective university was tested as a potential moderator in several of the above relationships.

Instruments previously found to elicit reliable and valid scores in similar samples were used to measure all latent constructs of interest. A survey was disseminated through presidents or contacts of university-affiliated alumni sport fan clubs and consisted of several sections. First, the Motivation Scale for Sport Consumption (MSSC) was used to measure the following spectator motivations: Achievement, Aesthetics, Drama, Escape, Acquisition of Knowledge, Physical Skills of the Players, and Social/Group Affiliation (Trail & James, 2001). Each MSSC subscale was comprised of three items. Then, the Team Identification Scale (TIS) measured each member's identification with his respective university's teams (Dimmock & Grove, 2006). The TIS consists of three subscales (i.e., Affective/Cognitive, Personal Evaluation, and Other Evaluation), each comprised of three items. The Psychological Continuum Model staging tool (PCM)

measured involvement (Funk, 2008). The PCM is a nine-item scale consisting of three items measuring each of the following three dimensions: Sign, Centrality, and Pleasure. Lastly, behavioral intention to donate was measured with Madrigal's (2000) 3-item semantic differential scale. The survey concluded with demographic questions including zip code (to measure geographic proximity from the university), age, gender, race/ethnicity, and affiliation or alumni status.

This chapter presents an analysis of the data. Thus, this chapter is divided into the following sections: diagnostic and preliminary analysis including results of confirmatory factor analyses of the three multidimensional scales and analysis of research questions. This chapter concludes with a summary of findings.

Diagnostics and Preliminary Analysis

Hierarchical multiple linear regression was used to address the research questions by investigating the relationships between spectator motivations, team identification, involvement in university-affiliated alumni sport fan clubs, and behavioral intentions to donate. However, prior to addressing the research questions, diagnostics and preliminary analyses were required. The following sections discuss the confirmatory factor analysis run on each of the three multidimensional scales (i.e., MSSC, TIS, PCM staging tool), multiple linear regression diagnostics, and assumptions.

Confirmatory Factor Analysis

Electronic surveys allow a researcher to force a participant to respond to each item. Thus, participants were forced to respond to each item of the survey that comprised the latent construct scales in an effort to ensure no missing data on these scales. While this may be considered restrictive, only the 22 cases (representing 6.9% of the total

sample) previously mentioned who quit the survey before completing the 3-item semantic differential donation intention scale were not included in any analysis. Thus, there were no missing data on any of the latent construct scales (i.e., MSSC, TIS, PCM staging tool, and behavioral intentions to donate).

Motivation Scale for Sport Consumption (MSSC). A number of items on the MSSC appeared negatively skewed (outside the normal ranges of -1 to +1) and leptokurtic as shown by positive kurtosis values outside the normal ranges of -1 to +2 (Table 5). However, the Satorra-Bentler (SB) chi-square statistic, used in this study, applies a scaling factor to the chi-square statistic and the standard error estimates based on the data's nonnormality. Thus, nonnormality of items did not pose an issue at this stage of the analysis.

Table 5

MSSC Item Means, Standard Deviations, Skewness, and Kurtosis

Dimension / Item	<i>M(SD)</i>	Skewness	Kurtosis
Achievement	18.4(2.6)	-1.40	2.52
I feel a personal sense of achievement when the [TEAM] do well.	5.9(1.1)	-1.62	3.52
I feel like I have won when the [TEAM] win.	6.0(1.2)	-1.63	3.07
I feel proud when the [TEAM] play well.	6.5(0.7)	-1.86	6.29
Aesthetics	17.3(3.0)	-0.85	0.89
I appreciate the beauty inherent in [TEAM] athletics.	5.9(1.1)	-1.46	3.29
I enjoy the natural beauty in [TEAM] athletics.	5.8(1.1)	-0.96	1.18
I enjoy the gracefulness associated with [TEAM] athletics.	5.6(1.1)	-0.45	-0.60
Drama	15.7(3.6)	-0.88	0.58
I enjoy the drama of close [TEAM] games.	6.0(1.3)	-1.79	3.05
I prefer watching a close [TEAM] game rather than a one-sided [TEAM].	4.8(1.5)	-0.51	-0.48
I enjoy it when the outcome of an [TEAM] game is not decided until the very end.	4.9(1.4)	-0.48	-0.36
Escape	17.3(3.6)	-1.23	1.36
[TEAM] games provide an escape for me from my day-to-day routine.	6.1(1.2)	-1.54	2.26
An [TEAM] game provides a distraction from my every day activities.	5.8(1.3)	-1.37	2.00
[TEAM] games provide a diversion from “life’s little problems” for me.	5.5(1.4)	-0.99	0.53

Note. All items were measured on a 7-point Likert-type scale ranging from 1 (*strongly disagree*) to 7 (*strongly agree*).

Table 5 (continued)

MSSC Subscale and Item Means, Standard Deviations, Skewness, and Kurtosis

Dimension / Item	<i>M(SD)</i>	Skewness	Kurtosis
Acquisition of Knowledge	16.7(3.2)	-0.79	0.75
I increase my knowledge about the sport while watching [TEAM] games.	5.7(1.2)	-1.08	1.24
I increase my understanding of the sport's strategy by watching [TEAM] games.	5.5(1.2)	-0.92	1.27
I can learn about the technical aspects of the sport by watching [TEAM] games.	5.5(1.1)	-0.52	0.06
Physical Skills of the Players	19.1(1.8)	-1.02	1.30
The athletic skills of the [TEAM] players are something I appreciate.	6.3(0.8)	-1.86	6.95
I enjoy watching a well-executed [TEAM] athletic performance.	6.5(0.7)	-1.45	3.11
I enjoy a skillful performance by the [TEAM].	6.3(0.7)	-0.89	0.60
Social/Group Affiliation	18.5(2.9)	-1.92	5.28
I enjoy interacting with other spectators while watching [TEAM] games.	6.2(1.0)	-1.99	5.53
I enjoy talking with others while watching [TEAM] games.	6.2(1.0)	-2.00	5.67
I enjoy socializing with people sitting near me while watching [TEAM] games.	6.1(1.1)	-1.81	4.47

Note. All items were measured on a 7-point Likert-type scale ranging from 1 (*strongly disagree*) to 7 (*strongly agree*).

Component fit was evaluated by inspecting the range, magnitude, direction (all parameter estimates should be positive), statistical significance at alpha of .05 (*t*-value greater than 1.96 considered significant) of the parameter estimates, and squared multiple correlations (greater than .20 considered adequate). All parameter estimates in the seven-factor model were statistically significant at alpha of .05 (the lowest *t*-value = 8.86) and

in the theorized positive direction (Table 6). In addition, all squared multiple correlations were greater than .20 indicating responses to the indicators were reliable (Table 6). As seen in Table 6, scores on the Escape ($\alpha = .90$), Acquisition of Knowledge ($\alpha = .90$), and Social/Group Affiliation ($\alpha = .93$) subscales showed excellent reliability while scores on the Aesthetics ($\alpha = .87$) and Drama ($\alpha = .80$) subscales showed good reliability (Kline, 2011). Scores on the Achievement ($\alpha = .77$) and Physical Skills of the Players ($\alpha = .78$) only showed adequate reliability (Kline, 2011). Global fit was assessed by examining the Satorra-Bentler scaled chi-square statistic along with the root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA) value and 90% confidence interval, the comparative fit index (CFI), and the standardized root mean square residual (SRMR). Globally, the seven-factor MSSC showed an overall fit that was considered good, SB scaled $\chi^2(168, N = 296) = 321.32, p < .01$, RMSEA = .056, 90% CI of RMSEA [0.046, 0.065], CFI = .99, SRMR = .074.

In addition to fit, convergent and discriminant validity was assessed. The average variance explained (AVE) of each of the seven subscales was greater than .50 (ranging from .63 for Drama to .87 for Social/Group Affiliation) suggesting convergent validity (Table 6). In addition, all seven factors were sufficiently different from each other as demonstrated by AVEs greater than the squared correlations with other factors, evidence of discriminant validity. Table 7 shows correlations among the factors obtained from the CFA ranged from .10 (Drama and Aesthetics) to .57 (Acquisition of Knowledge and Physical Skills of Players).

Table 6

Confirmatory Factor Analysis Results for the MSSC

Dimension / Item*	Unstandardized Factor Loading	<i>SE</i>	Completely Standardized Factor Loading	<i>R_{smc}</i>	AVE	α
Achievement					.66	.77
I feel a personal sense of achievement when the [TEAM] do well.	1.00	-	.67	.45		
I feel like I have won when the [TEAM] win.	1.26	0.10	.84	.71		
I feel proud when the [TEAM] play well.	1.36	0.10	.91	.83		
Aesthetics					.80	.87
I appreciate the beauty inherent in [TEAM] athletics.	1.00	-	.90	.81		
I enjoy the natural beauty in [TEAM] athletics.	1.08	0.04	.97	.94		
I enjoy the gracefulness associated with [TEAM] athletics.	0.89	0.07	.80	.65		
Drama					.63	.80
I enjoy the drama of close [TEAM] games.	1.00	-	.61	.37		
I prefer watching a close [TEAM] game rather than a one-sided [TEAM].	1.32	0.13	.80	.64		
I enjoy it when the outcome of an [TEAM] game is not decided until the very end.	1.55	0.17	.94	.88		

*All items were significant at $\alpha = .05$.

Table 6 (continued)

Confirmatory Factor Analysis Results for the MSSC

Dimension / Item*	Unstandardized Factor Loading	<i>SE</i>	Completely Standardized Factor Loading	<i>R_{smc}</i>	AVE	α
Escape					.84	.90
[TEAM] games provide an escape for me from my day-to-day routine.	1.00	-	.90	.81		
An [TEAM] game provides a distraction from my every day activities.	1.07	0.03	.96	.92		
[TEAM] games provide a diversion from “life’s little problems” for me.	0.98	0.04	.88	.77		
Acquisition of Knowledge					.81	.90
I increase my knowledge about the sport while watching [TEAM] games.	1.00	-	.88	.78		
I increase my understanding of the sport’s strategy by watching [TEAM] games.	1.05	0.04	.93	.86		
I can learn about the technical aspects of the sport by watching [TEAM] games.	1.01	0.05	.89	.79		

*All items were significant at $\alpha = .05$.

Table 6 (continued)

Confirmatory Factor Analysis Results for the MSSC

Dimension / Item*	Unstandardized Factor Loading	<i>SE</i>	Completely Standardized Factor Loading	<i>R_{smc}</i>	AVE	α
Physical Skills of the Players					.72	.78
The athletic skills of the [TEAM] players are something I appreciate.	1.00	-	.75	.56		
I enjoy watching a well-executed [TEAM] athletic performance.	1.21	0.09	.90	.82		
I enjoy a skillful performance by the [TEAM].	1.18	0.08	.88	.78		
Social/Group Affiliation					.87	.93
I enjoy interacting with other spectators while watching [TEAM] games.	1.00	-	.91	.83		
I enjoy talking with others while watching [TEAM] games.	1.07	0.04	.97	.95		
I enjoy socializing with people sitting near me while watching [TEAM] games.	1.01	0.04	.92	.84		

*All items were significant at $\alpha = .05$.

Table 7

Correlations among Motivations on the MSSC obtained from the CFA

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1. Achievement	1.00	-	-	-	-	-	-
2. Aesthetics	.56	1.00	-	-	-	-	-
3. Drama	.10	.10	1.00	-	-	-	-
4. Escape	.40	.38	.24	1.00	-	-	-
5. Acquisition of Knowledge	.48	.43	.10	.42	1.00	-	-
6. Physical Skills of Players	.56	.56	.12	.45	.57	1.00	
7. Social / Group Affiliation	.33	.33	.22	.31	.42	.41	1.00

Team Identification Scale (TIS). A number of items on the TIS appeared negatively skewed (outside the normal ranges of -1 to +1) and leptokurtic as shown by positive kurtosis values outside the normal ranges of -1 to +2 (Table 8). Again, nonnormality of items did not pose an issue at this stage of the analysis due to the use of the Satorra-Bentler chi-square statistic that adjusts the chi-square statistic and the standard error estimates based on the data's nonnormality.

Table 8

TIS Item Means, Standard Deviations, Skewness, and Kurtosis

Dimension / Item	<i>M(SD)</i>	Skewness	Kurtosis
Cognitive / Affective	16.3(3.0)	-0.84	1.14
Attributes that define fans of the [TEAM] apply to me also.	5.4(1.2)	-0.61	-0.07
The [TEAM] successes are my successes.	5.0(1.4)	-0.74	0.58
I think of the [TEAM] as part of who I am.	6.0(1.1)	-1.20	1.70
Personal Evaluation	19.9(1.5)	-1.70	3.74
The [TEAM] have a lot to be proud of.	6.6(0.6)	-1.35	1.72
I am proud to be a fan of the [TEAM].	6.7(0.5)	-2.21	5.32
The [TEAM] are worth supporting.	6.6(0.6)	-1.40	2.27
Other Evaluation	16.3(2.9)	-0.87	0.95
Others have a positive view of the [TEAM].	5.3(1.2)	-1.11	1.22
Others respect the [TEAM].	5.4(1.2)	-1.21	1.63
Most people consider the [TEAM] to be better than rival teams.	5.5(1.1)	-0.71	0.52

Note. All items were measured on a 7-point Likert-type scale ranging from 1 (*strongly disagree*) to 7 (*strongly agree*).

Identical to the MSSC, component fit was evaluated by inspecting the range, magnitude, direction (all parameter estimates should be positive), statistical significance at alpha of .05 (*t*-value greater than 1.96 considered significant) of the parameter estimates, and squared multiple correlations (greater than .20 considered adequate). All parameter estimates in the three-factor TIS model were statistically significant at alpha of .05 (the lowest *t*-value = 9.33) and in the theorized positive direction (Table 9). In addition, all squared multiple correlations were greater than .20 indicating responses to the indicators were reliable (Table 9). As seen in Table 9, scores on the Personal

Evaluation ($\alpha = .82$) subscale showed good reliability while scores on the Cognitive/Affective ($\alpha = .75$) and Other Evaluation ($\alpha = .77$) subscales showed only adequate reliability (Kline, 2011). Global fit was assessed by examining the Satorra-Bentler scaled chi-square statistic along with the RMSEA value and 90% confidence interval, the CFI, and the SRMR. Globally, the three-factor TIS showed an overall fit that was considered good, SB scaled $\chi^2(24, N = 296) = 39.87, p = .02$, RMSEA = .047, 90% CI of RMSEA [0.018, 0.073], CFI = .99, SRMR = .068.

AVEs of all three subscales were greater than .50 (ranging from .57 for Cognitive/Affective to .77 for Personal Evaluation) suggesting convergent validity (Table 9). In addition, all three factors were sufficiently different from each other as demonstrated by AVEs greater than the squared correlations with other factors, evidence of discriminant validity. Table 10 shows correlations among the factors obtained from the CFA ranged from .23 (Personal Evaluation and Other Evaluation) to .63 (Cognitive/Affective and Personal Evaluation).

Table 9

Confirmatory Factor Analysis Results for the TIS

Dimension / Item*	Unstandardized Factor Loading	<i>SE</i>	Completely Standardized Factor Loading	<i>R_{smc}</i>	AVE	α
Cognitive / Affective					.57	.75
Attributes that define fans of the [TEAM] apply to me also.	1.00	-	.67	.45		
The [TEAM] successes are my successes.	1.03	0.09	.69	.48		
I think of the [TEAM] as part of who I am.	1.32	0.10	.89	.78		
Personal Evaluation					.77	.82
The [TEAM] have a lot to be proud of.	1.00	-	.83	.68		
I am proud to be a fan of the [TEAM].	1.02	0.07	.84	.71		
The [TEAM] are worth supporting.	1.17	0.06	.96	.93		
Other Evaluation					.62	.77
Others have a positive view of the [TEAM].	1.00	-	.84	.71		
Others respect the [TEAM].	1.09	0.10	.91	.83		
Most people consider the [TEAM] to be better than rival teams.	.67	0.07	.56	.31		

*All items were significant at $\alpha = .05$.

Table 10

Correlations among Dimensions on the TIS obtained from the CFA

	1	2	3
1. Cognitive / Affective	1.00	-	-
2. Personal Evaluation	.63	1.00	-
3. Other Evaluation	.31	.23	1.00

Psychological Continuum Model (PCM) staging tool. All items on the PCM appeared normally distributed with skewness and kurtosis values within the normal ranges of -1 to +1 and -1 to + 2, respectively (Table 11). However, there was a problem with estimation of the three-factor model as indicated by a warning that the phi matrix was not positive definite. The phi matrix is the variance-covariance matrix of the latent variables. The warning may suggest the determinant of the phi matrix is zero or negative. Results of the three-factor model will be reported, but cannot be trusted.

Identical to the MSSC and the TIS, component fit was evaluated by inspecting the range, magnitude, direction (all parameter estimates should be positive), statistical significance at alpha of .05 (t -value greater than 1.96 considered significant) of the parameter estimates, and squared multiple correlations (greater than .20 considered adequate). All parameter estimates in the three-factor PCM staging tool model were statistically significant at alpha of .05 (the lowest t -value = 12.30) and in the theorized positive direction (Table 12). However, the high completely standardized factor loadings of all three items comprising the Centrality subscale (i.e., .94, .96, and .93) suggest the items are redundant, and thus, the model may be empirically under-identified. This was most likely the cause of the phi matrix that was not positive definite as the model was

attempting to estimate more parameters than it had degrees of freedom to use. All squared multiple correlations were greater than .20 indicating responses to the indicators are reliable (Table 12). As seen in Table 12, scores on the Centrality ($\alpha = .95$) subscales showed excellent reliability while scores on the Pleasure ($\alpha = .76$) and Sign ($\alpha = .78$) subscales showed only adequate reliability (Kline, 2011). Global fit was assessed by examining the Satorra-Bentler scaled chi-square statistic along with the RMSEA value and 90% confidence interval, the CFI, and the SRMR. Globally, the three-factor PCM staging tool showed an overall fit that was not considered adequate with an RMSEA that was above the recommended cutoff of .08, SB scaled $\chi^2(24, N = 296) = 76.06, p < .01$, RMSEA = .086, 90% CI of RMSEA [0.064, 0.110], CFI = .99, SRMR = .043.

AVEs of all three subscales were greater than .50 (ranging from .56 for Pleasure to .89 for Centrality) suggesting convergent validity (Table 12). However, examining evidence of discriminant validity revealed several factors were not sufficiently different from each other. The AVE for Pleasure was .56 and the AVE for Sign was .59, but the squared correlation between the dimensions of Pleasure and Sign obtained from the CFA was .62. Also, the squared correlation between Sign and Centrality obtained from the CFA was .66. Table 13 shows correlations among the factors obtained from the CFA ranged from .66 (Pleasure and Centrality) to .81 (Sign and Centrality).

Due to a higher than desired RMSEA and a lack of evidence of discriminant validity, I tested a one-factor model. Globally, the one-factor model showed an overall fit that was not considered adequate, and worse than the three-factor model, with an RMSEA that was above the recommended cutoff of .08, SB scaled $\chi^2(27, N = 296) = 163.692, p < .01$, RMSEA = .187, 90% CI of RMSEA [0.168, 0.206], CFI = .97, SRMR

= .072. However, a total involvement score, calculated by summing the total scores on the three involvement subscales (i.e., Sign, Centrality, and Pleasure) and thus ranging from nine to 63, showed excellent reliability ($\alpha = .93$). Therefore, because results of the three-factor involvement model could not be trusted due to the improper solution, all hierarchical multiple linear regression models were run with involvement as a unidimensional construct in addition to each factor as a dependent variable.

Table 11

PCM Item Means, Standard Deviations, Skewness, and Kurtosis

Dimension / Item	<i>M(SD)</i>	Skewness	Kurtosis
Pleasure	15.0(3.2)	-0.54	1.13
Attending [UNIVERSITY] Alumni Club events offers me relaxation when pressures build up.	4.9(1.4)	-0.42	-0.06
I really enjoy attending [UNIVERSITY] Alumni Club events.	5.4(1.2)	-0.92	1.44
Compared to other sports, attending [UNIVERSITY] Alumni Club events is very interesting.	4.8(1.3)	-0.35	0.16
Centrality	10.4(4.8)	0.29	-0.75
I find a lot of my life organized around attending [UNIVERSITY] Alumni Club events.	3.6(1.7)	0.27	-0.87
Attending [UNIVERSITY] Alumni Club events has a central role in my life.	3.5(1.7)	0.23	-0.86
A lot of my time is organized around attending [UNIVERSITY] Alumni Club events.	3.3(1.7)	0.38	-0.72
Sign	13.1(3.7)	-0.24	-0.26
Attending [UNIVERSITY] Alumni Club events says a lot about who I am.	4.1(1.6)	-0.21	-0.71
You can tell a lot about a person by seeing them at [UNIVERSITY] Alumni Club events.	4.0(1.5)	-0.26	-0.48
When I attend an [UNIVERSITY] Alumni Club event, I can really be myself.	5.0(1.3)	-0.79	0.50

Note. All items were measured on a 7-point Likert-type scale ranging from 1 (*strongly disagree*) to 7 (*strongly agree*).

Table 12

Confirmatory Factor Analysis Results for the PCM

Dimension / Item*	Unstandardized Factor Loading	<i>SE</i>	Completely Standardized Factor Loading	<i>R_{smc}</i>	AVE	α
Pleasure					.56	.76
Attending [TEAM] Alumni Club events offers me relaxation when pressures build up.	1.00	-	.67	.45		
I really enjoy attending [TEAM] Alumni Club events.	1.19	0.09	.80	.64		
Compared to other sports, attending [TEAM] Alumni Club events is very interesting.	1.15	0.09	.77	.60		
Centrality					.89	.95
I find a lot of my life organized around attending [TEAM] Alumni Club events.	1.00	-	.94	.88		
Attending [TEAM] Alumni Club events has a central role in my life.	1.02	0.01	.96	.91		
A lot of my time is organized around attending [TEAM] Alumni Club events.	0.99	0.02	.93	.86		

*All items were significant at $\alpha = .05$.

Table 12 (continued)

Confirmatory Factor Analysis Results for the PCM

Dimension / Item*	Unstandardized Factor Loading	<i>SE</i>	Completely Standardized Factor Loading	<i>R_{smc}</i>	AVE	α
Sign					.59	.78
Attending [TEAM] Alumni Club events says a lot about who I am.	1.00	-	.87	.76		
You can tell a lot about a person by seeing them at [TEAM] Alumni Club events.	0.82	0.04	.71	.51		
When I attend an [TEAM] Alumni Club event, I can really be myself.	0.82	0.04	.71	.51		

*All items were significant at $\alpha = .05$.

Table 13

Correlations among Dimensions on the PCM obtained from the CFA

	1	2	3
1. Pleasure	1.00	-	-
2. Centrality	.66	1.00	-
3. Sign	.79	.81	1.00

Regression Diagnostics

Hierarchical multiple linear regression models were used to address all three research questions. Due to the improper solution for the three-factor involvement model (i.e., PCM staging tool) with excessive collinearity among the Centrality items, all hierarchical multiple linear regression models were additionally run with involvement as a unidimensional construct. Prior to the interpretation of the results of the hierarchical multiple linear regression models, certain assumptions were assessed including error-free measurement and assumptions about errors including that residuals had a mean of zero and equal variance. In addition, residuals must be linear, random, and normally distributed. Lastly, processes were used to detect potential multicollinearity and/or the presence of outliers.

The assumption of error free measurement was met with reliability scores (Cronbach's alpha) of all latent construct subscales greater than or equal to .80 and .70, indicating good and adequate reliability, respectively (Kline, 2011). Residual plots for all regression models showed evidence of broad horizontal bands of points, suggesting the residuals are random, linear, and homoscedastic. In addition, all histograms and P-P plots showed evidence of normally distributed residuals with means of zero.

Initial examination of bivariate correlations revealed only one Pearson correlation between subscales greater than .60. The motivation subscale of Achievement and the team identification subscale of Cognitive/Affective had a Pearson correlation of .69. However, extreme collinearity does not appear to be an issue as no variables had variance inflation factors (VIFs) greater than 10.0, tolerance values less than .1, or condition indices greater than 15.

Three cases were identified as outliers (standardized residuals greater than three) in the regression model with the total score on the Pleasure subscale of involvement as the dependent variable. All three outliers had Cook's D values less than 1.0 (the largest Cook's D values of the outliers was .041) suggesting they were not influential. Still, the model was re-run without the three outliers. Results of these two models were compared and found not to be substantially different, and thus did not change the conclusions drawn. Therefore, only the model that includes the outliers is presented in the analysis.

Analysis of Research Questions

Hierarchical multiple linear regression models were used to answer all three research questions. Control variables were entered in the first step. Explanatory variables were entered in additional steps. To compensate for an increased Type I error risk, an alpha of .01 was used for all tests.

Research Question One

- Q1 To what extent do spectator motivations and the individual dimensions of a person's level of team identification (i.e., cognitive/affective, evaluation of self, and evaluation of others) explain the dimensions of involvement (i.e., sign, centrality, and pleasure) in a university-affiliated alumni sport fan club after controlling for gender?

Initially, three hierarchical multiple linear regression models were used to determine which, if any dimensions of team identification and/or spectator motivations explain individual dimensions of a person's involvement (i.e., Sign, Centrality, and Pleasure) in a university-affiliated alumni sport fan club. Then, a fourth model was analyzed with the three outliers removed from the model with the Pleasure subscale as the dependent variable. However, conclusions drawn from results of this model were not found to differ from the model with the outliers. Thus, results from this fourth model are

not presented. Lastly, a fifth model was analyzed with involvement treated as a unidimensional construct with total involvement score as the dependent variable. After controlling for gender in the first step, the total scores of all subscales of team identification and spectator motivations were entered in the second step and first tested as sets. Then, all explanatory subscales were assessed for significance and squared semi-partial correlations, representing the unique contribution of each variable above and beyond all other variables in the model, were interpreted.

Sign. Gender, a dichotomous categorical variable, entered at the first step was not statistically significant, $F(1, 288) = 0.43, p = .515, R^2 = .001$. Total scores on the seven subscales of spectator motivations and the three subscales of team identification added in the second step explained an additional 28.6% (R^2 change = .286) of the variance in the Sign dimension of involvement above and beyond gender and had an F change that was statistically significant, $F(10, 278) = 11.18, p < .01$. Change statistics for each step of the hierarchical regression are reported in Table 14.

Table 14

Sign Subscale - Regression Change Statistics at Step 1 and 2

Step	R^2	Adj. R^2	$S_{y.x}$	Change Statistics				
				ΔR^2	ΔF	df1	df2	p
1 ^a	.001	-.002	3.677	.001	0.425	1	288	.515
2 ^b	.288	.261	3.161	.286	11.179	10	278	< .001

^aIVs: Gender^bIVs: Achievement, Aesthetics, Drama, Escape, Acquisition of Knowledge, Physical Skills of Players, Social/Group Affiliation, Cognitive/Affective, Personal Evaluation, Other Evaluation

The set of spectator motivations was tested and found significant, $F(7, 278) = 5.18, p < .01$ (Table 15). Further investigation of the t -tests for individual spectator motivations showed that only Social/Group Affiliation was individually significant [$t(289) = 3.26, p < .01$] and had a positive relationship with Sign. Similarly, the set of the subscales of team identification was tested and found significant, $F(3, 278) = 95.95, p < .01$ (Table 16). Although, further investigation of the t -tests for individual dimensions of team identification showed that only Cognitive/Affective was individually significant [$t(289) = 5.22, p < .01$] and had a positive relationship with Sign. The squared semi-partial correlations for Social/Group Affiliation and Cognitive/Affective subscales were .037 and .089, respectively. These can be interpreted as percentages. For example, the Cognitive/Affective dimension of team identification explained 8.9% of the variance in the Sign dimension of involvement above and beyond what is explained by all other variables in the model. Regression coefficients and respective t -tests are reported in Table 16.

Table 15

Sign Subscale - Subset Tests at Step 2

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	<i>F</i>	<i>p</i>	ΔR^2
*Spectator Motivations	362.070	7	51.724	5.18	< .001	.093
*Team Identification	287.843	3	95.948	9.60	< .001	.074

*denotes significance at α of .01.

Table 16

Sign Subscale - Regression Coefficients at Step 2

	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	<i>t</i>	<i>P</i>	Correlations	
	B	SE	Beta			Zero-order	Semi-partial
(Constant)	4.980	2.952		1.69	.093		
Gender	0.461	0.381	.063	1.21	.227	.038	.061
Achievement	-0.238	0.110	-.166	-2.16	.032	.273	-.109
Aesthetics	0.100	0.084	.081	1.19	.235	.318	.060
Drama	-0.057	0.056	-.056	-1.02	.308	.042	-.052
Escape	0.142	0.065	.137	2.19	.029	.320	.111
Acquisition of Knowledge	0.185	0.078	.160	2.35	.019	.353	.119
Physical Skills of Players	-0.176	0.152	-.088	-1.16	.247	.266	-.059
*Social/Group Affiliation	0.241	0.074	.193	3.26	.001	.329	.165
*Cognitive / Affective	0.522	0.100	.428	5.22	< .001	.437	.264
Personal Evaluation	-0.202	0.169	-.082	-1.19	.234	.234	-.060
Other Evaluation	-0.012	0.072	-.010	-0.17	.863	.132	-.009

*denotes significance at α of .01.

Pleasure. Gender, a dichotomous categorical variable, entered at the first step, was not statistically significant, $F(1, 288) = 0.95$, $p = .332$. Total scores on the seven subscales of spectator motivations and the three subscales of team identification added in the second step explained an additional 27.9% (R^2 change = .279) of the variance in the

Pleasure dimension of involvement above and beyond gender and had an F change that was statistically significant, $F(10, 278) = 10.82, p < .01$. Change statistics for each step of the hierarchical regression are reported in Table 17.

Table 17

Pleasure Subscale - Regression Change Statistics at Step 1 and 2

Step	R^2	Adj. R^2	$S_{y.x}$	Change Statistics				
				ΔR^2	ΔF	df1	df2	p
1 ^a	.003	.000	3.260	.003	0.945	1	288	.332
2 ^b	.282	.254	2.815	.279	10.816	10	278	< .001

^aIVs: Gender

^bIVs: Achievement, Aesthetics, Drama, Escape, Acquisition of Knowledge, Physical Skills of Players, Social/Group Affiliation, Cognitive/Affective, Personal Evaluation, Other Evaluation

The set of spectator motivations was tested and found significant, $F(7, 278) = 8.01, p < .01$ (Table 18). Further investigation of the t -tests for individual spectator motivations showed that Escape [$t(289) = 3.22, p < .01$] and Social/Group Affiliation [$t(289) = 5.00, p < .01$] were individually significant and both had a positive relationship with Pleasure. Similarly, the set of the subscales of team identification was tested and found not significant, $F(3, 289) = 3.27, p = .022$ (Table 19). Although, further investigation of the t -tests for individual dimensions of team identification showed that Cognitive/Affective was individually significant [$t(289) = 2.68, p < .01$] and had a positive relationship with Pleasure. The squared semi-partial correlations for Escape,

Social/Group Affiliation, and Cognitive/Affective were .027, .065, and .018, respectively.

Regression coefficients and respective *t*-tests are reported in Table 19.

Table 18

Pleasure Subscale - Subset Tests at Step 2

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	<i>F</i>	<i>p</i>	ΔR^2
*Spectator Motivations	444.038	7	63.434	8.01	< .001	.145
Team Identification	77.645	3	25.882	3.27	.022	.025

*denotes significance at α of .01.

Table 19

Pleasure Subscale - Regression Coefficients at Step 2

	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	<i>t</i>	<i>P</i>	Correlations	
	B	SE	Beta			Zero-order	Semi-partial
(Constant)	3.600	2.629		1.37	.172		
Gender	0.429	0.339	.075	1.44	.150	.057	.073
Achievement	-0.120	0.098	-.094	-1.22	.222	.272	-.062
Aesthetics	0.090	0.075	.082	1.21	.228	.309	.061
Drama	-0.034	0.050	-.038	-0.69	.489	.088	-.035
*Escape	0.185	0.058	.202	3.22	.001	.362	.164
Acquisition of Knowledge	0.100	0.070	.098	1.43	.153	.328	.073
Physical Skills of Players	-0.211	0.135	-.118	-1.56	.120	.267	-.079
*Social/Group Affiliation	0.329	0.066	.297	5.00	< .001	.410	.254
*Cognitive / Affective	0.239	0.089	.221	2.68	.008	.363	.136
Personal Evaluation	0.042	0.151	.019	0.28	.783	.260	.014
Other Evaluation	0.011	0.064	.009	0.17	.868	.121	.008

*denotes significance at α of .01.

Centrality. Gender, a dichotomous categorical variable, entered at the first step, was not statistically significant, $F(1, 288) = 0.20, p = .653$. Total scores on the seven subscales of spectator motivations and the three subscales of team identification added in the second step explained an additional 23.8% (R^2 change = .238) of the variance in the

Centrality dimension of involvement above and beyond gender and had an F change that was statistically significant, $F(10, 278) = 8.67, p < .01$. Change statistics for each step of the hierarchical regression are reported in Table 20.

The set of spectator motivations was tested and found significant, $F(7, 278) = 5.28, p < .01$ (Table 21). Further investigation of the t -tests for individual spectator motivations showed that Acquisition of Knowledge [$t(289) = 2.78, p < .01$] and Social/Group Affiliation [$t(289) = 2.82, p < .01$] were individually significant and both had a positive relationship with Centrality. Similarly, the set of the subscales of team identification was tested and found significant, $F(3, 278) = 6.71, p < .01$ (Table 22). Although, further investigation of the t -tests for individual dimensions of team identification showed that only Cognitive/Affective was individually significant [$t(289) = 4.36, p < .01$] and had a positive relationship with Centrality. The squared semi-partial correlations for Acquisition of Knowledge, Social/Group Affiliation, and Cognitive/Affective were .021, .022 and .052, respectively. Regression coefficients and respective t -tests are reported in Table 22.

Table 20

Centrality Subscale - Regression Change Statistics at Step 1 and 2

Step	R^2	Adj. R^2	$S_{y,x}$	Change Statistics				
				ΔR^2	ΔF	df1	df2	p
1 ^a	.001	-.003	4.856	.001	0.203	1	288	.653
2 ^b	.238	.208	4.315	.238	8.672	10	278	< .001

^aIVs: Gender^bIVs: Achievement, Aesthetics, Drama, Escape, Acquisition of Knowledge, Physical Skills of Players, Social/Group Affiliation, Cognitive/Affective, Personal Evaluation, Other Evaluation

Table 21

Centrality Subscale - Subset Tests at Step 2

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	p	ΔR^2
*Spectator Motivations	687.864	7	98.266	5.28	< .001	.101
*Team Identification	374.505	3	124.835	6.71	< .001	.055

*denotes significance at α of .01.

Table 22

Centrality Subscale - Regression Coefficients at Step 2

	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	<i>t</i>	<i>p</i>	Correlations	
	B	SE	Beta			Zero-order	Semi-partial
(Constant)	2.673	4.030		0.66	.508		
Gender	0.520	0.520	.054	1.00	.318	.027	.052
Achievement	-0.372	0.150	-.197	-2.48	.014	.208	-.130
Aesthetics	0.169	0.114	.104	1.48	.141	.283	.077
Drama	-0.048	0.076	-.035	-0.63	.531	.053	-.033
Escape	0.195	0.088	.143	2.21	.028	.294	.116
*Acquisition of Knowledge	0.297	0.107	.195	2.78	.006	.331	.145
Physical Skills of Players	-0.356	0.207	-.135	-1.72	.086	.206	-.090
*Social/Group Affiliation	0.284	0.101	.172	2.82	.005	.293	.147
*Cognitive / Affective	0.595	0.137	.370	4.36	< .001	.365	.228
Personal Evaluation	-0.240	0.231	-.074	-1.04	.299	.184	-.054
Other Evaluation	-0.009	0.098	-.005	-0.09	.930	.119	-.005

*denotes significance at α of .01.

Total involvement score. A final model was analyzed with involvement treated as a unidimensional construct with total involvement score as the dependent variable. Gender, a dichotomous categorical variable, entered at the first step, was not statistically significant, $F(1, 288) = 0.52, p = .473$. Total scores on the seven subscales of spectator motivations and the three subscales of team identification added in the second step explained an additional 30.7% (R^2 change = .307) of the variance in the total involvement above and beyond gender and had an F change that was statistically significant, $F(10, 278) = 12.33, p < .01$. Change statistics for each step of the hierarchical regression are reported in Table 23.

Table 23

Total Involvement Score - Regression Change Statistics at Step 1 and 2

Step	R^2	Adj. R^2	$S_{y.x}$	Change Statistics				
				ΔR^2	ΔF	df1	df2	p
1 ^a	.002	-.002	10.792	.002	.516	1	288	.473
2 ^b	.309	.281	9.142	.307	12.331	10	278	< .001

^aIVs: Gender

^bIVs: Achievement, Aesthetics, Drama, Escape, Acquisition of Knowledge, Physical Skills of Players, Social/Group Affiliation, Cognitive/Affective, Personal Evaluation, Other Evaluation

The set of spectator motivations was tested and found significant, $F(7, 278) = 7.28, p < .01$ (Table 24). Further investigation of the t -tests for individual spectator motivations showed that Escape [$t(289) = 2.79, p < .01$] and Social/Group Affiliation [$t(289) = 4.00, p < .01$] were individually significant and both had a positive relationship

with Involvement. Similarly, the set of the subscales of team identification was tested and found significant, $F(3, 288) = 7.99, p < .001$ (Table 25). Although, further investigation of the t -tests for individual dimensions of team identification showed that only Cognitive/Affective was individually significant [$t(289) = 4.69, p < .01$] and had a positive relationship with Involvement. The squared semi-partial correlations for Escape, Social/Group Affiliation, and Cognitive/Affective are .019, .040, and .055, respectively. Regression coefficients and respective t -tests are reported in Table 25.

Table 24

Total Involvement Score - Subset Tests at Step 2

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	p	ΔR^2
*Spectator Motivations	4261.531	7	608.790	7.28	< .001	.127
*Team Identification	2002.020	3	667.340	7.99	< .001	.060

*denotes significance at α of .01.

Table 25

Total Involvement Score - Regression Coefficients at Step 2

	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	<i>t</i>	<i>p</i>	Correlations	
	B	SE	Beta			Zero-order	Semi-partial
(Constant)	11.253	8.539		1.32	.189		
Gender	1.470	1.101	.068	1.34	.183	.042	.067
Achievement	-0.730	0.319	-.174	-2.29	.023	.269	-.114
Aesthetics	0.359	0.242	.099	1.48	.140	.329	.074
Drama	-0.139	0.161	-.046	-0.86	.389	.065	-.043
*Escape	0.522	0.187	.172	2.79	.006	.351	.139
Acquisition of Knowledge	0.582	0.227	.172	2.57	.011	.368	.128
Physical Skills of Players	-0.743	0.438	-.126	-1.69	.091	.264	-.085
*Social/Group Affiliation	0.853	0.213	.233	4.00	< .001	.368	.199
*Cognitive / Affective	1.357	0.289	.379	4.69	< .001	.423	.234
Personal Evaluation	-0.401	0.489	-.055	-0.82	.414	.241	-.041
Other Evaluation	-0.010	0.208	-.003	-0.05	.960	.135	-.002

*denotes significance at α of .01.

Research Question Two

- Q2 To what extent are the sign, centrality, and pleasure dimensions of involvement in an alumni sport fan club related to behavioral intentions to donate to the university after controlling for income, alumni status, and age?

A hierarchical multiple linear regression was used to determine if the three dimensions of involvement (i.e., Sign, Centrality, and Pleasure) explain a person's behavioral intention to donate to the university. However, due to the poor fit of the three-dimension model of involvement and the lack of evidence of discriminant validity, a second model was analyzed with total involvement score used in place of individual subscales for the three theorized dimensions of involvement. Both models first controlled for income, alumni status, and age in the first step. Then, in the first model, the total scores of Sign, Centrality, and Pleasure subscales were entered in the second step and assessed for significance. Then, squared semi-partial correlations, representing the unique contribution of each variable above and beyond all other variables in the model, were interpreted. In the second model, the total involvement score was entered in the second step and assessed for significance. The squared semi-partial correlation was interpreted.

Individual dimensions of involvement. Income, alumni status (two dichotomous categorical variables indicating whether a participant graduated from the university with an undergraduate degree or a graduate degree), and age entered at the first step explained 13.7% ($R^2 = .137$) of the variance in a person's behavioral intention to donate to the university and was statistically significant, $F(4, 226) = 8.96, p < .01$. Further investigation of the t -tests for each control variable showed that only income was individually significant [$t(289) = 4.40, p < .01$] and had a positive relationship with behavioral intention to donate. The squared semi-partial correlation for income was .072.

Sign, Centrality, and Pleasure dimensions of involvement added in the second step explained an additional 3.0% (R^2 change = .030) of the variance in donation intention above and beyond what income, alumni status, and age explained and had an F change that was not statistically significant, $F(3, 223) = 2.68, p = .048$. Change statistics for each step of the hierarchical regression are reported in Table 26. Further investigation of the t -tests for individual dimensions of involvement showed that none of the three dimensions of involvement were individually significant (Table 27).

Table 26

Model 1 - Donation Intention Regression Change Statistics at Each Step

Step	R^2	Adj. R^2	$S_{y.x}$	Change Statistics				
				ΔR^2	ΔF	df1	df2	p
1 ^a	.137	.122	5.669	.137	8.959	4	226	< .001
2 ^b	.167	.141	5.607	.030	2.678	3	223	.048

^aIVs: Income, Alumni Status, Age

^bIVs: Sign, Centrality, Pleasure

Table 27

Model 1 - Donation Intention Regression Coefficients at Step 2

	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	<i>t</i>	<i>p</i>	Correlations	
	B	SE	Beta			Zero-order	Semi-partial
(Constant)	6.528	2.932		2.23	.027		
*Income	0.741	0.168	.292	4.40	< .001	.327	.269
Graduated – Undergraduate	-1.320	0.940	-.087	-1.40	.162	-.085	-.086
Graduated - Graduate	0.350	0.864	.025	0.41	.686	.016	.025
Age	0.065	0.028	.152	2.32	.021	.249	.142
Pleasure	-0.224	0.189	-.124	-1.18	.238	.048	-.072
Centrality	0.097	0.130	.080	0.75	.455	.112	.046
Sign	0.298	0.207	.189	1.45	.150	.121	.088

*denotes significance at α of .01.

Total involvement score. Identical to the previous model, income, alumni status, and age entered at the first step explained 13.7% ($R^2 = .137$) of the variance in a person's behavioral intention to donate to the university and was statistically significant, $F(4, 226) = 8.96, p < .01$. The total involvement score added in the second step explained an additional 2.0% ($R^2 \text{ change} = .020$) of the variance in donation intention above and beyond what income, alumni status, and age explained and had an F change that was not statistically significant, $F(1, 225) = 5.29, p = .021$. Change statistics for the each step of the hierarchical regression are reported in Table 28.

Table 28

Model 2 - Donation Intention Regression Change Statistics at Each Step

Step	R^2	Adj. R^2	$S_{y.x}$	Change Statistics				
				ΔR^2	ΔF	df1	df2	p
1 ^a	.137	.122	5.669	.137	8.959	4	226	< .001
2 ^b	.157	.138	5.615	.020	5.388	1	225	.021

^aIVs: Income, Alumni Status, Age

^bIVs: Total Involvement Score

Research Question Three

- Q3 To what extent does geographic proximity moderate the relationships between spectator motivations, team identification, dimensions of involvement with an alumni sport fan club, and behavioral intentions to donate to the university?

Several hierarchical multiple linear regressions were used to determine if geographic proximity to the university moderates any of the previously examined relationships. Again, due to the poor fit of the three-dimension model of involvement and the lack of evidence of discriminant validity, additional models were analyzed with total involvement score used in place of the three theorized dimensions of involvement. The following sections describe in detail each model.

Geographic proximity was entered as the third step in each hierarchical regression model examined for research question one. Then, the products of geographic proximity and the dimensions of team identification and the product of geographic proximity and the Social/Group Affiliation spectator motivation were entered as the fourth step. In each model, this fourth step had an F change that was not statistically significant. As shown in

Tables 29-32, no product variables or the main effect of geographic proximity were found significant at an alpha of .01.

Table 29

Sign – Product Variable and Geographic Proximity Main Effect t-Tests at Step 4

	<i>t</i>	<i>P</i>
Geographic Proximity	0.41	.682
Geographic Proximity X Cognitive/Affective	1.57	.118
Geographic Proximity X Personal Evaluation	-1.11	.269
Geographic Proximity X Other Evaluation	-1.41	.161
Geographic Proximity X Social/Group Affiliation	1.47	.142

Table 30

Centrality – Product Variable and Geographic Proximity Main Effect t-Tests at Step 4

	<i>t</i>	<i>P</i>
Geographic Proximity	-1.72	.087
Geographic Proximity X Cognitive/Affective	1.55	.122
Geographic Proximity X Personal Evaluation	0.56	.577
Geographic Proximity X Other Evaluation	-0.35	.729
Geographic Proximity X Social/Group Affiliation	2.23	.026

Table 31

Pleasure – Product Variable and Geographic Proximity Main Effect t-Tests at Step 4

	<i>t</i>	<i>P</i>
Geographic Proximity	0.89	.929
Geographic Proximity X Cognitive/Affective	1.96	.051
Geographic Proximity X Personal Evaluation	-0.59	.555
Geographic Proximity X Other Evaluation	-1.14	.254
Geographic Proximity X Social/Group Affiliation	0.42	.676

Table 32

Total Involvement Score – Product Variable and Geographic Proximity Main Effect t-Tests at Step 4

	<i>t</i>	<i>P</i>
Geographic Proximity	-.637	.524
Geographic Proximity X Cognitive/Affective	1.89	.061
Geographic Proximity X Personal Evaluation	-0.31	.759
Geographic Proximity X Other Evaluation	-1.01	.315
Geographic Proximity X Social/Group Affiliation	1.69	.092

Geographic proximity was entered as the third step in each hierarchical regression model examined for research question two. Then, the products of geographic proximity and each of the three involvement dimensions were added as a fourth step in the first model and had an *F* change that was not statistically significant, $F(3, 219) = 0.47, p = .705$. As shown in Table 33, no product variables or the main effect of geographic proximity were found significant at an alpha of .01 for the first model. The product of

geographic proximity and total involvement was added as a fourth step in the second model and was also found not significant, $F(1,223) = 1.653, p = .200$.

Table 33

*Donation Intention - Product Variable and Geographic Proximity Main Effects
t-Tests at Step 4*

	<i>t</i>	<i>p</i>
Geographic Proximity	-0.84	.402
Geographic Proximity X Pleasure	-0.10	.917
Geographic Proximity X Centrality	0.16	.871
Geographic Proximity X Sign	0.45	.654

Summary of Results

Presented below is an overview and summary of the findings. First, a brief discussion of the preliminary analysis and regression diagnostics is presented. Then, a summary of results from the series of regressions analyzed to address the research questions follows.

Confirmatory Factor Analysis

To measure latent constructs of interest, scales were used that had previously elicited reliable and valid scores in similar samples. However, prior to investigating relationships among variables, the reliability and validity of scores on these scales in this sample were assessed. Confirmatory factor analysis was used to assess the factor structure of the multidimensional constructs including spectator motivations, team identification, and involvement.

While several items on the MSSC, the TIS, and the PCM appeared nonnormal with skewness and kurtosis values outside the normal ranges of -1 to +1 and -1 to +2, respectively, the Satorra-Bentler chi-square statistic was used that applies a scaling factor to the chi-square statistic and the standard error estimates based on the data's nonnormality. The seven-factor MSSC and the three-factor TIS showed a good fit globally. In addition, each subscale of the MSSC and TIS showed adequate to excellent reliability and statistically significant parameter estimates. Responses to indicators were reliable as well. Lastly, evidence of convergent and discriminant validity was found in both the MSSC and TIS.

While the PCM's parameter estimates were statistically significant and reliability for each subscale was considered adequate to excellent, issues arose with respect to proper estimation of the model as well as global fit. The RMSEA was above the recommended cutoff of .08. In addition, investigating AVEs of Sign, Centrality, and Pleasure indicated a lack of distinct constructs. Specifically, the AVEs suggested Sign was not distinct from either Pleasure or Centrality. Of greater concern was the improper solution most likely due to empirical under-identification. Thus, because results of the three-factor involvement model could not be trusted, all further analysis included individual subscales of involvement (i.e., Sign, Centrality, and Pleasure) as well as a total score for involvement that combined scores on each subscale.

Regression Diagnostics

The reliability estimates of all aggregate scales and subscales were considered adequate to good. In addition, evidence suggested residuals for all regression models were random, linear, homoscedastic, and normal with means of zero. Collinearity also did not appear to be an issue. Three outliers were identified in one regression model with the

Pleasure subscale of involvement as the dependent variable. Even though none were considered influential with Cook's D values less than 1.0, a model was run with the outliers removed. However, the conclusions drawn from the results did not differ from the model that included the outliers. Therefore, only models that included the outliers are reported.

Research Question One

The first research question investigated the extent to which spectator motivations and individual dimensions of a person's level of team identification explain the dimensions of involvement (i.e., Sign, Centrality, and Pleasure) in a university-affiliated alumni sport fan club after controlling for gender. However, due to the aforementioned problems obtaining a proper solution for the three-factor CFA model of involvement, in addition to individual regression models with each subscale of involvement as the dependent variable, a model was analyzed with an aggregate involvement score as the dependent variable. All models first controlled for gender, which was not statistically significant in any of the models.

For all models, the set of spectator motivation subscales and the set of team identification subscales were significant with the exception of the set of team identification subscales in the model with Pleasure as the dependent variable ($p = .022$). As seen in Table 34, the Social/Group Affiliation spectator motivation and the Cognitive/Affective dimension of team identification were significant for all dimensions of involvement and the model with total involvement score as the dependent variable. The Cognitive/Affective dimension of team identification had the strongest relationship with the Sign and Centrality dimensions of involvement. Social/Group Affiliation had the

strongest relationship with Pleasure. In addition, the Escape spectator motivation was only significant with the Pleasure dimension of involvement and Acquisition of Knowledge spectator motivation was only significant with the Centrality dimension of involvement.

Table 34

Squared Semi-Partial Correlations for Significant Explanatory Variables

Dependent Variable	Spectator Motivations			Team Identification
	Acquisition of Knowledge	Escape	Social/Group Affiliation	Cognitive/Affective
Sign	-	-	.037	.089
Pleasure	-	.027	.065	.018
Centrality	.021	-	.022	.052
Total Involvement Score	-	.019	.040	.055

Research Question Two

The second research question investigated the extent to which Sign, Centrality, and Pleasure dimensions of involvement in an alumni sport fan club were related to behavioral intentions to donate to the university after controlling for income, alumni status, and age. Again, due to the improper solution of the three-dimensional theorized model of involvement, a second model was analyzed with total involvement score as an independent variable in place of the Pleasure, Sign, and Centrality subscales. After controlling for income, alumni status, and age, neither the individual dimensions of

involvement nor the total involvement score explained a significant amount of variance in donation intentions.

Research Question Three

The third research question investigated the extent to which geographic proximity moderates the relationships between spectator motivations, team identification, dimensions of involvement with an alumni sport fan club, and behavioral intentions to donate to the university. Specifically, the relationships between the spectator motivation of Social/Group Affiliation, Cognitive/Affective, Personal Evaluation, and Other Evaluation and the dimensions of involvement (as well as total involvement) were examined for moderator effects of geographic proximity. In addition, geographic proximity moderator effects were investigated in the relationship between involvement dimensions (and total involvement) and donation intentions. Geographic proximity (operationalized by miles from the participant's respective university) was not found to moderate any of the relationships of interest.

CHAPTER V

DISCUSSION

This chapter is divided into the following sections: (1) summary, (2) conclusions, (3) discussion, and (4) recommendations for future study. The summary section provides a brief overview of the study. The next section presents conclusions drawn from the findings presented in Chapter IV. A discussion section follows that includes my interpretation and explanation for the findings. Finally, several recommendations are offered for future study.

Summary

Numerous motivations for spectating sport have been studied and found to be significant including drama, achievement, escape, aesthetics, group affiliation, acquisition of knowledge, the physical skills and attractiveness of the athletes, and the opportunity to spend time with family (e.g., Trail et al., 2000; Trail & James, 2001; Wann, 1995, etc.). Higher levels of spectator motivations have been found to be consistent with higher involvement levels of fans (Wann, 1995). In addition, many people are connected to a community through their identification with a sports team. Interestingly, this association requires no special skills, just a desire to be involved and identified with those who share the same passion for one or more sport teams. Identification is an important construct due to its influence on a consumer's emotions and behaviors. Beyond improved psychological health and self-esteem (Wann, 2006b),

enhancing customers' identification is believed to benefit sport organizations directly by decreasing sensitivity to price and performance (Sutton et al., 1997) and increasing consumption behavior (Fisher & Wakefield, 1998; Theodorakis et al., 2010).

University-affiliated alumni sport fan clubs are one community that sport consumers may join. These fan clubs provide the opportunity for alumni and spectators alike to not only maintain a connection to the university and the university's athletic teams, but to perhaps strengthen a spectator or alumnus identification with the university's athletic teams. These clubs provide a range of opportunities for alumni and spectators to interact including game viewing parties, outreach programs, young alumni meetings, and other social gatherings. It could be argued that several motivations identified above drive spectators to watch any team. However, university-affiliated alumni sport fan club members are a subset of spectators that have made a conscious decision to join the club's community. Thus, motivations for involvement in a university-affiliated alumni sport fan club may differ from those associated with sport spectating generally.

As with any university-affiliated alumni sport fan club, involvement varies widely among members. A simple count of the number of events a member attends is not considered a valid proxy for involvement. Instead, the construct of involvement has been operationalized in sport and leisure research by measuring the following three distinct dimensions: sign, centrality, and pleasure (Funk, 2008; Havitz & Dimanche, 1997; Kyle & Mowen, 2005). Sign involves creating favorable perceptions through the "unspoken statements that purchase or participation conveys about the person" (Iwasaki & Havitz, 2004, p. 49). In the current study, membership in the university-affiliated alumni sport

fan club is an indicator of the sign dimension of involvement. Centrality refers to the extent that a person's life is organized around a particular activity. For example, members of university-affiliated alumni sport fan clubs may demonstrate higher levels of the centrality dimension of involvement through the arranging of social opportunities or commitments around their planned attendance at club events. Lastly, pleasure is the "enjoyment derived from the activity" (Beaton et al., 2011, p. 129), or simply the fun a member has while attending club events.

Sign, centrality, and pleasure may be differentially related to behavioral outcomes (Funk et al., 2004). Certain consumer behaviors are salient to any NCAA Division I university athletic program. The most obvious behavior, and the most frequently studied, is attendance. Of course, myriad variables affect attendance. Relevant to the current study, perhaps someone would attend a game if not for the lack of proximity to the university and game venue. For example, the Rocky Mountain Gator Club is located in Denver, Colorado. Yet, members of this club live in excess of 1,700 miles from the University of Florida, making travel to the game expensive and, for many, prohibitive. However, this lack of proximity does not prevent other supportive consumer behaviors such as financial donations. Therefore, the behavioral outcome of interest in this study was the intention to financially donate to the university, a behavioral outcome that is particularly relevant to college athletic departments. Virtually all institutions of higher education rely to a varying degree on alumni donations. Yet, no previous studies were found that examined the *intention* to financially donate to the institution as an outcome variable. In addition, geographic proximity was tested as a possible moderator in the relationship between involvement in a university-affiliated alumni sport fan club and

donation intention. In other words, does the distance from a university impact the relationship between fans' involvement in the club and their intention to donate to the university (i.e., "the University of Florida" or "The Ohio State University")?

Thus, the purpose of this study was to examine several relationships. First, the relationship between sport spectator motivations, as well as team identification, and involvement in a university-affiliated alumni sport fan club was tested, after controlling for gender. Then, the relationship between involvement and donation intention was examined after controlling for income, alumni status, and age. Lastly, geographic proximity was tested as a moderator in several of the relationships studied.

An online survey was disseminated through presidents, utilizing a stratified random sample of Gator Clubs (the University of Florida) and Ohio State Alumni Clubs (The Ohio State University). Presidents' e-mail addresses were retrieved from listings of Gator Clubs and Ohio State Alumni Clubs on alumni association webpages ("UF Alumni Association," 2013; "The Ohio State University," 2013). E-mails were sent to the president of 20 randomly selected clubs in the home state of each university, and 20 randomly selected clubs outside the home state of each university. Presidents were asked to disseminate the survey to members of their club via e-mail, website post, or through social media. An adequate sample size for planned statistical analysis was not reached during this initial phase. Therefore, an additional 10 clubs in each of the four strata (i.e., Ohio State Alumni Clubs in Ohio, Ohio State Alumni Clubs outside Ohio, Gator Clubs in Florida, and Gator Clubs outside Florida) were randomly selected and e-mails were sent to the respective club presidents. Replacement clubs were randomly selected for any club whose president's contact e-mail was deemed invalid in both rounds of data collection.

A 53-item survey consisting of five sections was distributed. The five sections were the 21-item Motivation Scale for Sport Consumption (Trail & James, 2001), the 9-item Team Identification Scale (Dimmock & Grove, 2006), the 9-item Psychological Continuum Model staging tool (Funk, 2008), Madrigal's (2000) 3-item semantic differential scale to measure intentions, and a 10-item demographic section. Two versions of the survey were created. The first titled "Go Gators!" had "Florida Gators" or "Gator Club" inserted in the text of individual items where appropriate. The second titled "Go Buckeyes!" had "Ohio State Buckeyes" or "Ohio State Alumni Club" inserted in the text where appropriate.

A final sample of 296 was analyzed after listwise deletion removed 22 cases. While the sample size exceeded the minimum sample size required by the statistical tests employed, there was an unequal representation by school. Over 200 ($n = 208$) of the analyzed responses were members of Gator Clubs. While Gator Club members tended to be a bit younger with a mean age of 42.5 (as compared to a mean age of 51.5 for Ohio State Alumni Club members), the respondents appeared relatively similar across several of the other demographic variables. In general, about half of all respondents were male with approximately two-thirds reporting they were "now married." In addition, over 80% of all participants graduated with a bachelor's degree and just over 25% graduated with a graduate degree from their respective university.

Prior to analyzing the relationships of interest, confirmatory factor analysis was performed on several multidimensional scales including the Motivation Scale for Sport Consumption (MSSC), Team Identification Scale (TIS), and the Psychological Continuum Model (PCM) staging tool (measures involvement). Although a number of

items on the MSSC and TIS appeared negatively skewed and leptokurtic, the Satorra-Bentler (SB) chi-square statistic, used in this study, applies a scaling factor to the chi-square statistic and the standard error estimates based on the data's nonnormality.

Component fit was assessed by inspecting the range, magnitude, direction, statistical significance of the parameter estimates, and squared multiple correlations. Then, global fit was evaluated. The seven-factor MSSC showed an overall fit that was considered good, SB scaled $\chi^2(168) = 321.32, p < .01$, RMSEA = .056, 90% CI [0.046, 0.065], CFI = .99, SRMR = .074. The three-factor TIS showed an overall fit that was considered good, SB scaled $\chi^2(24) = 39.87, p = .02$, RMSEA = .047, 90% CI [0.018, 0.073], CFI = .99, SRMR = .068. Globally, the three-factor PCM staging tool showed an overall fit that was not considered adequate with an RMSEA that was above the recommended cutoff of .08, SB scaled $\chi^2(24) = 76.06, p < .01$, RMSEA = .086, 90% CI [0.064, 0.110], CFI = .99, SRMR = .043. In addition, the phi matrix was not positive definite, likely caused by empirical under-identification caused by high completely standardized factor loadings of all three items comprising the Centrality subscale. Because the results of the three-factor involvement model could not be trusted, all further analysis was conducted using the individual dimensions of involvement as well as a total involvement score. The total involvement scale showed excellent reliability in the current sample ($\alpha = .93$).

Certain assumptions were assessed prior to the interpretation of results from the hierarchical multiple linear regression models. Reliability scores (Cronbach's alpha) of all latent construct subscales greater than or equal to .80 (good) and .70 (adequate) suggest the assumption of error free measurement was met. Residual plots for all regression models showed evidence of broad horizontal bands of points, suggesting the residuals are random,

linear, and homoscedastic. An examination of histograms and P-P plots suggested residuals appeared normally distributed with means of zero. Extreme collinearity did not appear to be an issue as no variables had variance inflation factors (VIFs) greater than 10.0, tolerance values less than .1, or condition indices greater than 15.

In one regression model (with the pleasure subscale of involvement as the dependent variable), three cases were identified as outliers (standardized residuals greater than three). Even though all three outliers had Cook's D values less than 1.0 (the largest Cook's D values of the outliers was .041) suggesting they were not influential, the model was re-run without the three outliers. There was no change in conclusions drawn from the results. Thus, only the model that included the outliers was presented.

Three regression models were run to determine the extent to which spectator motivations and individual dimensions of a person's level of team identification explain the dimensions of involvement (i.e., sign, centrality, and pleasure) in a university-affiliated alumni sport fan club. Due to the problems obtaining a proper solution for the three-factor CFA model of involvement, a fourth regression model was analyzed with a total involvement score as the dependent variable. After controlling for gender (not found significant in any model), several statistically significant relationships emerged. While the set of spectator motivation subscales and the set of team identification subscales explained significant amounts of variance in the dimensions of involvement (with the exception of the model with pleasure as a dependent variable) and a total involvement score, only a few individual subscales were statistically significant. The spectator motivation of social/group affiliation and the cognitive/affective dimension of team identification were significant for all dimensions of involvement and the model with total

involvement score as the dependent variable. While the cognitive/affective dimension of team identification had the strongest relationship with the sign and centrality dimensions of involvement, social/group affiliation had the strongest relationship with pleasure. In addition, the escape spectator motivation was significant with the pleasure dimension of involvement and the acquisition of knowledge spectator motivation was significant with the centrality dimension of involvement.

The second research question investigated the extent to which sign, centrality, and pleasure dimensions of involvement in an alumni sport fan club were related to behavioral intentions to donate to the university after controlling for income, alumni status, and age. In addition, a second model was analyzed with total involvement score as an independent variable in place of the pleasure, sign, and centrality subscales due to the improper solution of the three-factor model of involvement. After controlling for income, alumni status, and age, neither the individual dimensions of involvement nor the total involvement score explained a significant amount of variance in donation intentions.

Lastly, the relationships between the spectator motivation of social/group affiliation and the dimensions of involvement (as well as total involvement) were examined for geographic proximity moderator effects. The relationships between the dimensions of team identification (i.e., cognitive/affective, personal evaluation, and other evaluation) and the dimensions of involvement (as well as total involvement) were also examined for moderator effects of geographic proximity. In addition, geographic proximity moderator effects were investigated in the relationship between involvement dimensions (and total involvement) and donation intentions. Geographic proximity,

operationalized by miles from the participant's respective university, was not found to moderate any of the relationships of interest.

Conclusions

Tajfel (1978) defined social identity as “that part of an individual's self-concept which derives from his knowledge of his membership in a social group (or groups) together with the value and emotional significance attached to that membership” (p. 63). A group has been described as “a collection of individuals who perceive themselves to be members of the same social category, share some emotional involvement in this common definition of themselves, and achieve some degree of social consensus about the evaluation of their group and of their membership in it” (Tajfel & Turner, 1986, p. 15) that is “meaningful to the individual at a particular point of time” (Tajfel, 1978, 62). The current study sought to investigate the value and emotional significance of a specific social group; university-affiliated alumni sport fan clubs.

First, relationships between the significance of membership in these clubs, measured by the multidimensional construct of involvement, and antecedents to membership (i.e., spectator motivations and team identification) were studied. Social identity theory supports the notion that group membership primarily dictates a person's behavior, rather than individual characteristics (Tajfel, 1982; Tajfel & Turner, 1986). Thus, I tested for a relationship between involvement in a university-affiliated alumni sport fan club and a specific behavioral outcome, the intention to financially donate to the university. While no studies were found that addressed this relationship, one might predict that highly involved members of university-affiliated alumni sport fan clubs would have higher levels of group supportive behavioral outcomes including financial

donations. Lastly, due to researchers suggesting that a sense of belonging or attachment may be reduced or erased for fans who are not geographically close to a team (Branscombe & Wann, 1991), geographic proximity was tested as a moderator.

Research Question One

- Q1 To what extent do spectator motivations and the individual dimensions of a person's level of team identification explain the dimensions of involvement (i.e., sign, centrality, and pleasure) in a university-affiliated alumni sport fan club after controlling for gender?

In several previous studies, gender differences have been found in spectator motivations (Dietz-Uhler et al., 2000; Fink et al., 2002; James & Ridinger, 2002; Robinson & Trail, 2005; Wann, 1995; Wann et al., 1999). Though, because previous findings have been inconsistent, gender was used as a control variable and entered first into all regression models. However, gender did not explain a significant amount of variance in any of the dimensions of involvement or in total involvement.

This may be at least partially due to the specific context of the clubs. University-affiliated alumni sport fan clubs are organized with the primary purpose of gathering *alumni* to cheer on *their* university's athletic teams. College sport is distinct from professional sport in that supporting the university's athletic teams are, in many cases, a significant portion of an alumnus' social life while attending the university, regardless of an individual's interest in sports. Thus attendance at club events may simply be an extension of this social experience, and thus blind to gender.

The set of spectator motivations explained significant amounts of variance in sign, centrality, pleasure, and total involvement. However, only a few individual motivations explained significant amounts of variance. These findings and a brief discussion of conclusions drawn are presented below each re-stated hypothesis.

- H1.1 The need for achievement will be significant and have the strongest positive relationship of all the spectator motivations with each dimension of involvement in a university-affiliated alumni sport fan club.

Hypothesis 1.1 was not supported. The need for achievement was not significantly related to any of the dimensions of involvement. In addition, the need for achievement was not significantly related to the total involvement score.

The need for achievement, or self-esteem, can include a variety of benefits including team success, organizational characteristics, and image including history, tradition, and rituals (Sutton et al., 1997; Underwood et al., 2001; Wann, 2006a). The need for achievement, or self-esteem, has previously been found to be a positively, and in some studies the most highly, correlated motivation with identification (Fink et al., 2002; Sloan, 1989; Wann, 1994). In this study, the need for achievement and the cognitive/affective dimension of team identification were correlated ($r = .697$). Although diagnostics did not suggest that collinearity, an overlap of these two variables, was an issue, cognitive/affective was found to be a significant explanatory variable and may have in fact masked or downwardly biased the relationship between need for achievement and involvement.

The lack of a relationship between need for achievement and involvement is somewhat surprising. Sport managers tend to stress the importance of winning to cultivate an involved consumer base. However, in the context of college athletics, this may not be the case. Achievement of the team may not be related to a fan's involvement with the college sport product, in this case a university-affiliated alumni sport fan club. In other words, winning on the field or court is not related to the pleasure a fan derives from being surrounded by like others, the choice or membership in a club, or the importance of

that club in a person's life. Distinct from professional sport where fans may perceive more of an ability to choose their allegiances, fans of college sport teams tend to support the teams of their alma mater, rather than selecting another university's teams. Thus, regardless of the team's performance on the field or court, membership in a university-affiliated alumni sport fan club remains central to a college sport fan's life due to the continued pleasure derived from being around other alumni.

H1.2 Social interaction, drama, and escape will be significant and positively related to each dimension of involvement in a university-affiliated alumni sport fan club. However, social interaction, drama, and escape will be more strongly related to the pleasure dimension than to the sign and centrality dimensions.

Hypothesis 1.2 was partially supported. Drama was not found to be significantly related to any of the individual dimensions of involvement or total involvement, even though some previous research has shown a positive relationship between drama and involvement (Fink et al., 2002; Wann, 1995). In the current study, participants' levels of involvement with a university-affiliated alumni sport fan *club* were measured, rather than involvement with a sport or team. While the core activity of these clubs is watch parties where members gather to cheer on their team, these clubs also provide members with other social opportunities and activities. Thus, involvement in these clubs for many may represent involvement at events in addition to watch parties, and thus the impact of drama attenuated. In addition, fans motivated by drama could watch the game in another environment; watching the game with the club would not add to or subtract from the drama the fan seeks.

However, some support was found for the motivations of social interaction and escape. Specifically, escape, defined as "a diversion from work and everyday activity"

(Trail et al., 2000, p. 163), was found to be significantly and positively related to the pleasure dimension of involvement. Wann (1995) found the escape motivation to be unrelated to violent sports such as hockey, wrestling, and boxing. Football, which could be considered a violent sport, is the primary athletic revenue producer and thus the primary focus of university-affiliated alumni sport fan club watch parties at both the University of Florida and The Ohio State University. By breaking down involvement into sign, centrality, and pleasure, the specific relationship between escape and the pleasure dimension was revealed.

Again, the context of *alumni* supporting *their* university's sport teams may explain this finding. Membership in a club does not provide a fan with an escape; rather, membership in a club (i.e., sign) is an integral part (i.e., central) of a member's life. However, members looking to find an outlet to escape from their typical routines may seek the added pleasure club events provide. In addition, the pleasure that was found to be related to escape likely has more to do with the pleasure derived from the environment in which the game is watched, than pleasure derived directly from watching the violent sport. This may explain the difference between Wann's (1995) finding and the findings in the current study.

Also, social interaction was significantly and positively related to all dimensions of involvement as well as the total involvement score. In fact, social interaction was the strongest explanatory spectator motivation, consistent with previous findings (Branscombe & Wann, 1991; Wann, 1995; Wann et al., 1996). Many spectators are socialized through sport by family and friends (Funk & James, 2001; Trail & James, 2001; Wann et al., 1996). The social affiliation motivation is demonstrated in several

ways. First, members share a background. Over 80% of participants in the current study graduated from their respective university with an undergraduate degree. Second, members share symbols. For example, alumni members of Gator Clubs learned traditions such as the Gator “chomp” and “We are the Boys,” sung between the third and fourth quarter of Florida Gator football games while swaying with arms wrapped around each other. These clubs provide the opportunity for these members to continue to share these symbols. Similarly, members of Ohio State alumni clubs share cheers such as the “O-H-I-O” and a passion for Script Ohio. Attending Ohio State Alumni Club events allows members an opportunity to continue to share these symbols with other alumni. Lastly, these clubs provide an opportunity for members to share history about their respective university’s athletic programs through reliving shared experiences as alumni.

H1.3 Acquisition of knowledge will be significant and positively related with all three dimensions of involvement in a university-affiliated alumni sport fan club. However, the relationships between acquisition of knowledge and the three dimensions of involvement will be weaker than the need for achievement, social interaction, drama, and escape.

Hypothesis 1.3 was only partially supported. Acquisition of knowledge was only significantly and positively related to the centrality dimension of involvement. In addition, acquisition of knowledge (2.1%) and social interaction (2.2%) appeared to be similar in the amount of unique explained variance of the centrality dimension of involvement. Fink et al. (2002) noted that increased levels of knowledge would lead to higher identification. In fact, in the current study, acquisition of knowledge seemed to explain significant variance in how central the clubs activities are to a member.

As alumni progress through life, it is likely that fewer people in their social circles possess a similar level of interest in their respective university’s athletic teams. Members

of university-affiliated alumni sport fan clubs who are motivated by acquiring knowledge about their university's athletic teams consider the club to be more central to their lives.

Although in the technological age, resources abound that can provide access to this knowledge, sports fans may prefer sharing their knowledge and acquiring knowledge with people who have a shared sports passion (e.g., are fans of the same team).

Membership in a university-affiliated alumni sport fan club provides exposure to other people with similar interests and opportunities for a member to acquire knowledge in this way. However, acquisition of knowledge was not related to the sign of or pleasure derived from membership in a club. Whereas people seeking knowledge about a team are more likely to hold their membership in a club as a more central component to their lives, acquiring knowledge is less crucial to simply being a member of a club (i.e., sign), or to enjoy club events (i.e., pleasure).

H1.4 The spectator motivations of aesthetics and physical skills will be correlated with other spectator motivations; however, they will not be significantly related to any of the three dimensions of involvement in a university-affiliated alumni sport fan club.

Hypothesis 1.4 was supported. While aesthetics and physical skills were correlated with other spectator motivations, they were not significantly related to any of the three dimensions of involvement or to the total involvement score. This was contrary to other studies that have found aesthetics, or the "excellence, beauty, and creativity in an athlete's performance" (Smith, 1988, p. 58), to be significantly related to involvement (Wann, 1995). (Although, Wann's study asked participants about sports in general, not about any particular sport or team.) Similar to findings by Fink et al. (2002) in the context of college basketball, aesthetics was correlated with team identification, specifically the cognitive/affective dimension ($r = .556$). The physical skill of the athletes has been found

to impact the initial development of team identification (Fisher & Wakefield, 1998; Sutton et al., 1997; Wann et al., 1996). However, the findings from this study suggest that the physical skill of the athletes contributes little to explaining involvement in the clubs.

Members of university-affiliated alumni sport fan clubs have already developed their identification with the university's athletic teams. Thus, the physical skill of the athletes may no longer play a role. Another potential explanation for this finding is that both The Ohio State University and the University of Florida consistently are successful in recruiting many of the highest rated high school football players. Thus, members may hold an expectation that the athletes demonstrate high levels of skill. The findings may differ at a school that traditionally is not able to recruit elite high school players. In fact, motivations to watch a highly skilled player at one of these other schools may be more strongly related to dimensions of an alumni's involvement with a university-affiliated alumni sport fan club.

H1.5 The cognitive/affective dimension of team identification will have the strongest positive relationship with each dimension of a fan's involvement in an alumni sport fan club.

Hypothesis 1.5 was partially supported. The cognitive/affective dimension of team identification was positively and significantly related to each dimension of involvement as well as total involvement. In fact, the cognitive/affective dimension of team identification was the strongest explanatory variable for sign and centrality, but not as strong as the motivation of social interaction or escape for the pleasure dimension.

The cognitive/affective dimension of team identification describes the perception of oneself as a member of a group and the emotional commitment of that membership. When a product choice (e.g., membership in a university-affiliated alumni sport fan club)

is perceived as a sign of oneself, involvement is said to be present (Laurent & Kapferer, 1985). Thus, the expression of a fan's choice to join a club and commitment to that club (cognitive/affective) allows that fan to express (sign) the central role membership plays in his life (centrality). For example, joining a club requires a fan to seek out the club, attend a club event (perhaps at the expense of another activity or social commitment), and then choose to join the club by providing an e-mail address or participating in the club's social media. This allows a member to demonstrate the significance of his allegiance to the university's athletic teams through his membership with the club and is evident immediately upon walking into a club watch party. A member shows his allegiance through the wearing of his university's apparel and his shared knowledge of team-specific cheers and traditions. In addition, the joining of a club demonstrates that desire for the club to take a central place in his life. The centrality of the club to members is also evident at club events through the conspicuous notification of future club events via announcements and newsletters. This notification allows a member to plan other commitments around club events, thus demonstrating the centrality of club membership.

H1.6 Evaluation of self and perceived evaluation of others will be significantly related to all three dimensions of involvement in an alumni sport fan club.

Hypothesis 1.6 was not supported. In fact, evaluation of self and perceived evaluation of others was not found to significantly explain the variance in any of the dimensions of involvement or in total involvement. Increased self-esteem has been found to be closely related to evaluative factors (Dimmock et al., 2005). However, perhaps due to high levels of self-esteem, a product of high identification (Branscombe & Wann, 1991) in members of university-affiliated alumni sport fan clubs, the importance of

evaluation of their involvement in the club is diminished. In addition, evaluation may be rooted in the team's performance. However, as mentioned previously, a person's identification, once securely established (e.g., becoming a member of a university-affiliated alumni sport fan club), has been found to be unrelated to a team's success or record (Branscombe & Wann, 1991; Wann & Schrader, 1996).

Research Question Two

- Q2 To what extent are the sign, centrality, and pleasure dimensions of involvement in an alumni sport fan club related to behavioral intentions to donate to the university after controlling for income, alumni status, and age?

Prior to assessing the relationship between involvement in university-affiliated alumni sport fan clubs and intentions to donate, several control variables were used. Income, alumni status, and age were entered in the first step of the hierarchical regression model. Alumni status was measured with two items where participants indicated whether they had graduated with an undergraduate degree and whether they had graduated with a graduate degree from the respective university. As a set, these four control variables explained a significant amount of variance in a club member's intention to donate (13.7%). Income alone had a squared semi-partial correlation of .072 or 7.2% (the unique contribution to explained variance above and beyond all other variables in the model). This was not surprising as members with higher incomes would be more likely capable of donating, thus have a higher intention to donate. Then, the three dimensions of involvement were added in the second step, tested as a set, and then tested for unique contributions to explained variance. In addition, a second model was tested with total involvement score entered in the second step. A brief discussion of the findings of each model is presented below the re-stated hypotheses.

- H2.1 Both sign and centrality will be significant and have a positive relationship with behavioral intentions to donate to the university.
- H2.2 Pleasure, while significant, will have a smaller positive relationship with behavioral intentions to donate to the university than sign and centrality.

Hypotheses 2.1 and 2.2 were not supported. As a set, the three dimensions of involvement were not found to be significant at the conservative alpha of .01. In addition, none of the three individual dimensions was found to uniquely contribute to the explained variance in donation intention. Similarly, total involvement score did not explain a significant amount of variance in donation intention at an alpha of .01.

“[Involvement] is a causal or motivating variable with a number of consequences on the consumer’s purchase and communication behavior” (Laurent & Kapferer, 1985, p. 42). Specifically, prior research suggested that more highly identified or involved fans have tended to demonstrate stronger group supportive behaviors including a willingness to invest greater amounts of money (Fisher & Wakefield, 1998; Havitz & Dimanche, 1999; McGehee, Yoon, & Cardenas, 2003; Wann & Branscombe, 1993; Wann & Pierce, 2003). Thus, though hypothesized that there would be a relationship between involvement in a university-affiliated alumni sport fan club and donation intentions, this relationship was not supported in the current study. While a relationship between involvement in a club and donation intentions was not found, future research may reveal involvement in these clubs impacts other group supportive behaviors such as increased wearing of university apparel or enhancing the brand image of the university through positive word of mouth that could affect both athlete and general student body recruitment.

Research Question Three

- Q3 To what extent does geographic proximity moderate the relationships between spectator motivations, team identification, dimensions of involvement with an alumni sport fan club, and behavioral intentions to donate to the university?

Gator Clubs and Ohio State Alumni Clubs are located in over 100 cities nationwide ranging in proximity to the respective university from a few miles to nearly 3,000 miles. In addition, a fan's geographic proximity to a team has been suggested as a factor impacting the sense of belonging or attachment (Branscombe & Wann, 1991; Wann et al., 1996). Thus, geographic proximity was tested as a moderator variable. First, geographic proximity was entered as the third step in each hierarchical regression model. Then, the products of geographic proximity and the dimensions of team identification and the product of geographic proximity and the Social/Group Affiliation spectator motivation was entered as the fourth step in the first set of models and tested for significance. The products of geographic proximity and each of the three involvement dimensions were also added as a fourth step in the second model and tested for significance. A brief discussion of the findings of each model is presented below the restated hypotheses.

- H3.1 Geographic proximity will moderate the relationship between the spectator motivation of social interaction and the three dimensions of involvement. Fans who live in closer proximity to the university will be less motivated by social interaction than fans who live farther away.
- H3.2 Geographic proximity will moderate the relationship between all three dimensions of team identification and all three dimensions of involvement. The relationships between all three dimensions of team identification and all three dimensions of involvement will be weaker for fans who live in closer proximity to the university.

- H3.3 Geographic proximity will moderate the relationship between sign and centrality dimensions of involvement and behavioral intentions to donate. The relationship between sign and centrality dimensions of involvement and behavioral intentions to donate will be weaker for fans who live in closer proximity to the university.
- H3.4 Geographic proximity will not moderate the relationship between pleasure dimension of involvement and behavioral intentions to donate.

Hypotheses 3.1, 3.2, and 3.3 were not supported. Hypothesis 3.4 was supported. Geographic proximity did not moderate any of the relationships of interest. Although it was hypothesized that involvement of fans who lived farther away would be more motivated by social interaction, this was not the case. Similarly, the distance fans lived from their respective universities did not have any impact on the relationship between team identification, involvement in university-affiliated alumni sport fan clubs, and donation intentions.

Gator Clubs and Ohio State Alumni Clubs, in many ways, replicate the environment the alumni would experience at their home stadium or in the hometown of their respective university. These clubs accomplish this through several strategies including streaming commentary and sounds from the home stadium into the sound system of the location of the watch party, leading team cheers, and continuing other traditions that alumni could typically only experience at a game. Perhaps, this replication creates similar enough experiences for alumni that there is little to no geographic proximity effect. Members of all clubs, regardless of whether they are in the hometown of the university or at a club watch party 1,000 miles away, demonstrate a relationship between being motivated to socially interact and involvement with their respective clubs. In addition, as previously mentioned, membership in the clubs involves more than just

watch parties. Perhaps the geographic proximity to the club is more important than the geographic proximity to the university as this study investigated members' involvement with their respective clubs, not the university.

Discussion

In all kinds of weather, we'll all stick together...for F-L-O-R-I-D-A. The closing line in "We are the Boys from Old Florida" epitomizes the importance of sport organizations catering to fans who are both highly identified with a team and highly involved in team-related activities. Organizations strive to maximize revenue through building and maintaining positive relationships with these highly involved consumers. Previous studies have shown these highly involved fans to be more likely to attend games, consume team-related media, and purchase team-related merchandise (Funk & James, 2001).

"In general, the stronger the relationship between an organization and its members, the greater the willingness of individual members to engage in behaviors that support the group" (Fisher & Wakefield, 1998, p. 24). The purpose of this study was to examine relationships between spectator motivations, as well as team identification, and involvement in a university-affiliated alumni sport fan club. Then, the relationship between involvement and donation intention was investigated. With a better understanding of these relationships, sport managers at the collegiate level may more effectively focus campaigns on relevant motivations to encourage involvement in university-affiliated alumni sport fan clubs.

In addition to the solicitation of donations, enhancing the relationship between alumni and their respective university through increased involvement in these clubs may

result in other supportive behaviors. As consumers live and operate in an increasingly cluttered world, “Gator Nation” and “Buckeye Nation” may help to maintain strong brand awareness through extensive word of mouth. Higher involvement in Gator Clubs and Ohio State alumni clubs can only enhance the position of their respective universities at the forefront of alumni’s minds. Positive word of mouth, either through spoken word, social media, or the wearing of university apparel, may continue to benefit athlete recruitment as well as general student recruitment. Athletes desire to play at a university that has consistently shown high levels of recognition and exposure. Further positive word of mouth can only aid in the efforts of the athletic department in their recruitment of elite athletes. In addition, positive word of mouth may enhance the recruitment of the general student body by leveraging high school students’ desire to be part of an extensive network.

None of the subscales of involvement, nor a total involvement score, was found to explain a statistically significant amount of variance in donation intentions. However, as stated previously, I encountered problems obtaining a proper solution for the three-factor CFA model of involvement. Thus, the results cannot be trusted and the true relationship between involvement and donation intentions may not be represented in the current study. In addition, many university-affiliated alumni sport fan clubs require members to be paying members of the university’s alumni association, either on an annual or lifetime basis. It is unknown whether participants interpreted this alumni association fee as a donation. Even so, while there may be a relationship between involvement and donation intention, much of the variance in donation intention is left unexplained. Income did explain a significant amount of variance in donation intention. Thus, unsurprisingly,

participants with higher incomes were more likely to intend to donate to their respective university. Sport managers at the respective universities may benefit from continuing to identify and track income levels of members of university-affiliated alumni sport fan clubs to differentially target groups of members for donations based on income levels. For example, sport managers within athletic departments may personally contact or design specific “asks” for alumni club members with a pre-specified level of income.

By simply observing participant response means to items measuring spectator motivations, it appears physical skills of the players would be a significant variable in explaining involvement. However, the results of the current study do not support this conclusion. In other words, while members were motivated to watch games due to the physical skills of the players, this motivation did not explain differences in a levels of involvement in the university-affiliated alumni sport fan clubs. This would suggest that sport managers charged with strengthening the alumni fan base through further development of these alumni fan clubs may be more successful by focusing on other aspects of the experience, rather than focusing on the talent of the players.

Instead, the spectator motivation of Social/Group Affiliation emerged as significant to all dimensions of involvement as well as total involvement. Thus, sport managers for these respective universities may be more effective in impacting involvement levels of members by focusing on the social opportunities made available through their membership in a club. Strategies to promote social opportunities and group affiliation through club membership are endless and can range from simple (e.g., adapting promotional materials) to complex (e.g., implementing a business referral network). Printed and electronic materials used to promote the club may be more

effective if they contain images of groups of people enjoying club events, rather than an action shot of a player during a game. In addition, clubs could encourage group affiliation to extend beyond club events. For example, clubs could formalize a system to communicate internally information on businesses owned and operated by other alumni (i.e., club members) in the area.

Similarly, while participants were highly motivated by achievement and aesthetics to watch their team compete, neither of these spectator motivations was found to significantly explain variance in involvement in the clubs. Involvement in the club appears to have little relationship with the product on the field or court, but rather with the opportunities to socialize with other alumni. While fans may be more likely to watch a game if the team is successful, this is not related to involvement with a university-affiliated alumni sport fan club. This finding demonstrates the importance of offering a variety of events beyond just watch parties to fulfill members' social and group affiliation motivations.

In addition, Acquisition of Knowledge was found to significantly explain variance in the central place that a club exists in a member's life. Thus, sport managers could consult with presidents of these clubs to provide resources to be employed at the club level that would provide opportunities for members to acquire knowledge about the team, thus encouraging the club to be more central to a member's life. Examples of these resources may include access to exclusive interviews with coaches, chat sessions with coaches as they are recruiting high school athletes, and behind-the-scenes video tours of university athletic facilities.

Similarly, escape was found to significantly explain variance in the pleasure dimension of involvement. Thus, to enhance a member's pleasure, sport managers could advice presidents to focus member recruitment efforts on the opportunity to become involved in a club to escape the daily stress and routine of everyday work and life. This could simply be accomplished by emphasizing the social aspects through consistent use of imagery in promotional materials that displays groups of members wearing university apparel having fun at club events.

Prior research has supported the existence of a positive relationship between identification and consumption behavior (e.g., Fisher & Wakefield, 1998; Madrigal, 2000). However, in the current study, neither personal evaluation nor other evaluation (i.e., perceived evaluation of others) dimensions of team identification significantly explained variance in involvement. The cognitive/affective dimension of team identification did explain involvement in a university-affiliated alumni sport fan club. Thus, strategies to strengthen or build this dimension of team identification could only benefit in encouraging involvement in the clubs. Again, strategies may range from simple (e.g., extensive use of the word "we" when describe club events) to complex (e.g., membership cards with rewards or benefits). Clubs could strengthen the cognitive/affective dimension of team identification simply by using the word "we" in all promotional messages. "We" signifies to the member that they are an integral part of the whole. A more in-depth strategy could involve the use of member cards that provide members with benefits (e.g., free university athletic apparel) when shown at businesses owned or operated by fellow alumni.

No previous study was found that focused on this population. Thus, this study provides a first step to understanding not only the antecedents to involvement in university-affiliated alumni sport fan clubs, but also the behavior that can result from that involvement. Though many of the hypotheses were unsupported in the current study, the difficulties encountered with the measurement of involvement and unequal representation of club members may have affected the conclusions drawn. Even so, several intriguing relationships did emerge that may help sport managers at university athletic departments more effectively build and maintain highly involved consumers that may lead to a stronger connection between alumni and their respective university as well as and maximization of revenue through higher consumption behaviors.

Recommendations for Future Study

First, researchers are encouraged to replicate this study with samples of club members representing other schools at the Division I FBS level and at other levels of college athletic competition. Members of clubs affiliated with fundamentally different institutions may or may not look like participants in this study. In addition, due to the difficulties in obtaining a proper solution for the three-factor CFA model of involvement, researchers are encouraged to identify other strategies to measure involvement. Specifically, the involvement dimension of Centrality was problematic, possible due to a ceiling effect. This may be partially attributed to the sample used in this study (i.e., members of a university-affiliated alumni sport fan club). The act of joining a club may demonstrate the member's desire for a club to be a central activity in his or her life, thus representing an inflated Centrality dimension. Perhaps in similar samples, a two-factor model of involvement (i.e., sign and pleasure) may be more appropriate.

Several characteristics of the data may deserve attention in future studies. The coefficient for Achievement, in all four models used to address research question one, while not significant with an alpha of .01, was negative. This suggests that members motivated by achievement would have lower levels of Sign, Centrality, Pleasure, and total involvement. In addition, not surprisingly, income played the largest role as an explanatory variable for donation intention, but only explained 7.2% of the variance in donation intention above and beyond all other variables in the model. Obviously, there are other variables that could help explain donation intention. Researchers are encouraged to identify and test other variables that may contribute to explaining variance in donation intention.

Lastly, the current study only examined direct relationships between the variables of interest. While several variables were found significant, the explained variance was relatively small. Thus, perhaps many of the relationships identified in the current study may be more appropriately examined through the use of a model that would allow testing of indirect relationships.

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APPENDIX A
PILOT STUDY SURVEY E-MAIL

Dear [PRESIDENT'S NAME],

My name is Craig Schmitt; I am a Gator alumnus (Business Administration, '03) and am currently working on a Ph.D. in Sport Administration from the University of Northern Colorado. I need your help!

I am working on my dissertation looking at perceptions of college sport fan club members (e.g., Gator Clubs) and team-related behaviors. As a Gator Club President, I would truly appreciate your help getting the word out about the study.

Would it be possible for you to send out the following link to a survey to your [NAME OF GATOR CLUB] members either through e-mail, a website link, or on Facebook? The survey should take no more than 5-10 minutes to complete. I appreciate your taking the time to help me out, and any feedback is welcome.

<https://www.surveymonkey.com/s/OrangeBlue>

Thanks and GO GATORS!!

Craig

Craig Schmitt

Doctoral Student, Sport Administration
Graduate Research Assistant, Sport Marketing Research Institute
School of Sport and Exercise Science

University of Northern Colorado
Campus Box 39
Gunter Hall 1770
Greeley, CO 80639
Office: [970-351-1491](tel:970-351-1491)
www.unco.edu/nhs/ses

APPENDIX B

PILOT STUDY SURVEY FOLLOW-UP E-MAIL

Dear [PRESIDENT'S NAME],

I sent you the following e-mail last week and wanted to follow-up to see if you had received it. It would be a tremendous help to me if you could participate in my survey, then pass it along to the rest of the [NAME OF GATOR CLUB].

Thank you and please let me know if you have any questions.

Craig

APPENDIX C

INTRODUCTORY E-MAIL FOR GATOR CLUBS

Dear [PRESIDENT'S NAME],

My name is Craig Schmitt; I am a **Gator alumnus** (Business Administration, '03) and am currently working on a Ph.D. in Sport Administration from the University of Northern Colorado. I need your help!

I am working on my dissertation looking at perceptions of college sport fan club members (e.g., Gator Clubs) and team-related behaviors. As a Gator Club President, I would truly appreciate your help getting the word out about the study.

Would it be possible for you to send out the following link to a survey to your [NAME OF GATOR CLUB] members through e-mail, a website link, and/or on Facebook? The survey should take no more than 5-10 minutes to complete. I appreciate you taking the time to help me out!

(LINK TO SURVEY HERE)

Anyone who completes the survey will have the option of providing their e-mail address for a chance to win 1 of 2 \$25 gift cards to the University of Florida Bookstore (redeemable either in-store or online).

If you have any questions, please feel free to contact me at craig.schmitt@unco.edu or my research advisor, Dr. Dianna Gray, at dianna.gray@unco.edu.

Thanks and GO GATORS!!

Craig

Craig Schmitt

Doctoral Student, Sport Administration
Graduate Research Assistant, Sport Marketing Research Institute
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APPENDIX D

INTRODUCTORY E-MAIL FOR OHIO STATE ALUMNI CLUBS

Dear [PRESIDENT'S NAME],

My name is Craig Schmitt; I am currently working on a Ph.D. in Sport Administration from the University of Northern Colorado under the supervision of my research advisor, Dr. Dianna Gray, an **Ohio State alumna** ('80 M.A. & '85 Ph.D., Sport Management). I need your help!

I am working on my dissertation looking at perceptions of college sport fan club members (e.g., Ohio State Alumni Clubs) and team-related behaviors. As an Ohio State Alumni Club President, I would truly appreciate your help getting the word out about the study.

Would it be possible for you to send out the following link to a survey to your [NAME OF OHIO STATE ALUMNI CLUB] members through e-mail, a website link, and/or on Facebook? The survey should take no more than 5-10 minutes to complete. I appreciate you taking the time to help me out!

(LINK TO SURVEY HERE)

Anyone who completes the survey will have the option of providing their e-mail address for a chance to win 1 of 2 \$25 gift cards to Barnes & Noble redeemable at The Ohio State University Bookstore (in-store or online).

If you have any questions, please feel free to contact me at craig.schmitt@unco.edu or my research advisor, Dr. Dianna Gray, at dianna.gray@unco.edu.

Thanks and GO BUCKEYES!!

Craig

Craig Schmitt

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APPENDIX E
SURVEY FOLLOW-UP E-MAIL

Dear [PRESIDENT'S NAME],

I sent you the following e-mail last week and just wanted to quickly follow-up to see if you had received it. It would be a tremendous help to me if you could participate in my survey, then pass it along to the rest of the [NAME OF GATOR OR OHIO STATE ALUMNI CLUB].

Thank you and please let me know if you have any questions.

Craig

APPENDIX F
UNIVERSITY OF FLORIDA SURVEY



CONSENT FORM FOR HUMAN PARTICIPANTS IN RESEARCH
UNIVERSITY OF NORTHERN COLORADO

Project Title: An Investigation of Involvement in University-Affiliated Alumni Sport Fan Clubs

Researcher: Craig D. Schmitt, Sport & Exercise Science

Phone: 970-351-1491; E-mail: craig.schmitt@unco.edu

Advisor: Dianna Gray, Sport & Exercise Science

Phone: 970-351-1725; E-mail: dianna.gray@unco.edu

Thank you for taking the time to complete this survey. The purpose of this study is to investigate perceptions of college sport fan clubs and team-related behaviors. As a participant in this research, you will be asked to complete a survey that addresses various elements of this relationship. For example, you'll be asked to rate your level of agreement with statements such as "The Florida Gators are worth supporting." You will also be asked to provide background (or demographic) information such as your age, gender, and affiliation with the University of Florida. The survey should only take approximately 5-10 minutes to complete.

You will not need to provide your name. Due to the nature of electronic surveys, your confidentiality cannot be guaranteed. However, results of this study will only be reported in aggregate form and all original data will be kept solely on the researcher's password-protected computer. The researcher will strive to protect the anonymity and confidentiality of your responses.

There are no foreseeable risks to participate in this survey. The information you provide may further our understanding of the role college sport fan clubs play in a fan's attachment to a team and influence on team-related purchase decisions. In addition, you will have the option of providing your e-mail address for a chance to win one of two \$25 gift cards to the University of Florida Bookstore (redeemable in-store or online).

Participation is voluntary. You may decide not to participate in this study and if you begin participation you may still decide to stop and withdraw at any time. Your decision will be respected and will not result in loss of benefits to which you are otherwise entitled. Having read the above, please complete the survey if you would like to participate in this research. By completing the questionnaire, you are giving permission for your participation. You may keep this form for future reference. If you have any concerns about your selection or treatment as a research participant, please contact the Office of Sponsored Programs, Kepner Hall, University of Northern Colorado, Greeley, CO 80639; 970-351-2161.

Please rate your level of agreement with the following statements using the guide below:

	Strongly Disagree		Neither Disagree Nor Agree			Strongly Agree	
I feel a personal sense of achievement when the Florida Gators do well.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I appreciate the beauty inherent in Florida Gators' athletics.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I enjoy the drama of close Florida Gators' games.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Florida Gators' games provide an escape for me from my day-to-day routine.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I increase my knowledge about the sport while watching Florida Gators' games.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
The athletic skills of the Florida Gators' players are something I appreciate.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I enjoy interacting with other spectators while watching Florida Gators' games.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I feel like I have won when the Florida Gators win.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I enjoy the natural beauty in Florida Gators' athletics.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I prefer watching a close Florida Gators' game rather than a one-sided Florida Gators' game.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

	Strongly Disagree		Neither Disagree Nor Agree		Strongly Agree		
A Florida Gators' game provides a distraction from my every day activities.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I increase my understanding of the sport's strategy by watching Florida Gators' games.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I enjoy watching a well-executed Florida Gator athletic performance.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I enjoy talking with others at Florida Gators' games.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I feel proud when the Florida Gators play well.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I enjoy the gracefulness associated with Florida Gators' athletics.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I enjoy it when the outcome of a Florida Gators' game is not decided until the very end.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Florida Gators' games provide a diversion from "life's little problems" for me.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I can learn about the technical aspects of the sport by watching Florida Gators' games.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I enjoy a skillful performance by the Florida Gators.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I enjoy socializing with people sitting near me while watching Florida Gators' games.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Please rate your level of agreement with the following statements using the guide below:

	Strongly Disagree		Neither Disagree Nor Agree			Strongly Agree	
Attributes that define fans of the Florida Gators apply to me also.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
The Florida Gators have a lot to be proud of.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Others have a positive view of the Florida Gators.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
The Florida Gators' successes are my successes.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I am proud to be a fan of the Florida Gators.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Others respect the Florida Gators	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I think of the Florida Gators as part of who I am.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
The Florida Gators are worth supporting.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Most people consider the Florida Gators to be better than rival teams.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Please rate your level of agreement with the following statements using the guide below:

	Strongly Disagree		Neither Disagree Nor Agree			Strongly Agree	
Attending Gator Club events offers me relaxation when pressures build up.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I find a lot of my life organized around attending Gator Club events.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Attending Gator Club events says a lot about who I am.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Attending Gator Club events has a central role in my life.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
You can tell a lot about a person by seeing them at Gator Club events.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I really enjoy attending Gator Club events.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
When I attend a Gator Club event, I can really be myself.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Compared to other sports, attending Gator Club events is very interesting.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
A lot of my time is organized around attending Gator Club events	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

To take this measure, we need you to judge the strength of your intention against a series of descriptive scales.

If you feel that your intention is *very closely related* to one end of the scale, you should place your check mark as follows:

Not Probably X : _____ : _____ : _____ : _____ : _____ : _____ Probably

Not Probably _____ : _____ : _____ : _____ : _____ : _____ : X Probably

If you feel that your intention is *quite closely related* to one end of the scale (but not extremely), you should place your check mark as follows:

Not Probably _____ : X : _____ : _____ : _____ : _____ : _____ Probably

Not Probably _____ : _____ : _____ : _____ : _____ : X : _____ Probably

If you feel that your intention is *only slightly related* (but not really neutral) to one end of the scale, you should place your check mark as follows:

Not Probably _____ : _____ : X : _____ : _____ : _____ : _____ Probably

Not Probably _____ : _____ : _____ : _____ : X : _____ : _____ Probably

Do you intend to make a financial donation to the University of Florida over the next 12 months?

Extremely likely	_____ : _____ : _____ : _____ : _____ : _____ : _____	Extremely unlikely
Not probable	_____ : _____ : _____ : _____ : _____ : _____ : _____	Probable
Certain chance	_____ : _____ : _____ : _____ : _____ : _____ : _____	No chance

What is the total amount (in dollars) you expect to *financially donate* to the University of Florida over the next 12 months? _____

In what ZIP code is your home located? (enter 5-digit ZIP code; for example, 00544 or 94305) _____

What is your current age (in years): _____

Gender (Circle one) *Male* or *Female*

Marital Status (Circle one) Now Married / Divorced / Never Married / Widow/widower

Which race/ethnicity best describes you? (Please choose only one)

American Indian or Alaskan Native

Asian / Pacific Islander

Black or African American

Hispanic America

White / Caucasian

Multiple ethnicity

Other (please specify)

Did you...

attend the University of Florida as an undergraduate student? *Yes or No*

graduate from the University of Florida with a bachelor's degree? *Yes or No*

attend the University of Florida as a graduate student? *Yes or No*

graduate from the University of Florida with a graduate degree? *Yes or No*

What is your approximate average household income? (Circle one)

\$0 - \$24,999

\$125,000 - \$149,999

\$25,000 - \$49,999

\$150,000 - \$174,999

\$50,000 - \$74,999

\$175,000 - \$199,999

\$75,000 - \$99,999

\$200,000 and up

\$100,000 - \$124,999

Optional – Please provide your e-mail address if you would like to be entered into the drawing for 1 of 2 \$25 gift cards for the University of Florida Bookstore (redeemable in-store or online).

APPENDIX G
THE OHIO STATE UNIVERSITY SURVEY



CONSENT FORM FOR HUMAN PARTICIPANTS IN RESEARCH
UNIVERSITY OF NORTHERN COLORADO

Project Title: An Investigation of Involvement in University-Affiliated Alumni Sport Fan Clubs

Researcher: Craig D. Schmitt, Sport & Exercise Science

Phone: 970-351-1491; E-mail: craig.schmitt@unco.edu

Advisor: Dianna Gray, Sport & Exercise Science

Phone: 970-351-1725; E-mail: dianna.gray@unco.edu

Thank you for taking the time to complete this survey. The purpose of this study is to investigate perceptions of college sport fan clubs and team-related behaviors. As a participant in this research, you will be asked to complete a survey that addresses various elements of this relationship. For example, you'll be asked to rate your level of agreement with statements such as "The Ohio State Buckeyes are worth supporting." You will also be asked to provide background (or demographic) information such as your age, gender, and affiliation with The Ohio State University. The survey should only take approximately 5-10 minutes to complete.

You will not need to provide your name. Due to the nature of electronic surveys, your confidentiality cannot be guaranteed. However, results of this study will only be reported in aggregate form and all original data will be kept solely on the researcher's password-protected computer. The researcher will strive to protect the anonymity and confidentiality of your responses.

There are no foreseeable risks to participate in this survey. The information you provide may further our understanding of the role college sport fan clubs play in a fan's attachment to a team and influence on team-related purchase decisions. In addition, you will have the option of providing your e-mail address for a chance to win one of two \$25 gift cards to Barnes & Noble redeemable at The Ohio State University Bookstore (in-store or online).

Participation is voluntary. You may decide not to participate in this study and if you begin participation you may still decide to stop and withdraw at any time. Your decision will be respected and will not result in loss of benefits to which you are otherwise entitled. Having read the above, please complete the survey if you would like to participate in this research. By completing the questionnaire, you are giving permission for your participation. You may keep this form for future reference. If you have any concerns about your selection or treatment as a research participant, please contact the Office of Sponsored Programs, Kepner Hall, University of Northern Colorado, Greeley, CO 80639; 970-351-2161.

Please rate your level of agreement with the following statements using the guide below:

	Strongly Disagree		Neither Disagree Nor Agree			Strongly Agree	
I feel a personal sense of achievement when the Ohio State Buckeyes do well.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I appreciate the beauty inherent in Ohio State Buckeyes' athletics.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I enjoy the drama of close Ohio State Buckeyes' games.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Ohio State Buckeyes' games provide an escape for me from my day-to-day routine.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I increase my knowledge about the sport while watching Ohio State Buckeyes' games.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
The athletic skills of the Ohio State Buckeyes' players are something I appreciate.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I enjoy interacting with other spectators while watching Ohio State Buckeyes' games.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I feel like I have won when the Ohio State Buckeyes win.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I enjoy the natural beauty in Ohio State Buckeyes' athletics.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I prefer watching a close Ohio State Buckeye game rather than a one-sided Ohio State Buckeye game.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

	Strongly Disagree		Neither Disagree Nor Agree		Strongly Agree		
An Ohio State Buckeyes' game provides a distraction from my every day activities.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I increase my understanding of the sport's strategy by watching Ohio State Buckeyes' games.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I enjoy watching a well-executed Ohio State Buckeye athletic performance.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I enjoy talking with others while watching Ohio State Buckeyes' games.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I feel proud when the Ohio State Buckeyes play well.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I enjoy the gracefulness associated with Ohio State Buckeyes' athletics.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I enjoy it when the outcome of an Ohio State Buckeyes' game is not decided until the very end.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Ohio State Buckeyes' games provide a diversion from "life's little problems" for me.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I can learn about the technical aspects of the sport by watching Ohio State Buckeyes' games.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I enjoy a skillful performance by the Ohio State Buckeyes.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I enjoy socializing with people sitting near me while watching Ohio State Buckeyes' games.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Please rate your level of agreement with the following statements using the guide below:

	Strongly Disagree		Neither Disagree Nor Agree			Strongly Agree	
Attributes that define fans of the Ohio State Buckeyes apply to me also.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
The Ohio State Buckeyes have a lot to be proud of.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Others have a positive view of the Ohio State Buckeyes.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
The Ohio State Buckeyes' successes are my successes.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I am proud to be a fan of the Ohio State Buckeyes.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Others respect the Ohio State Buckeyes.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I think of the Ohio State Buckeyes as part of who I am.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
The Ohio State Buckeyes are worth supporting.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Most people consider the Ohio State Buckeyes to be better than rival teams.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Please rate your level of agreement with the following statements using the guide below:

	Strongly Disagree			Neither Disagree Nor Agree			Strongly Agree
Attending Ohio State Alumni Club events offers me relaxation when pressures build up.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I find a lot of my life organized around attending Ohio State Alumni Club events.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Attending Ohio State Alumni Club events says a lot about who I am.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Attending Ohio State Alumni Club events has a central role in my life.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
You can tell a lot about a person by seeing them at Ohio State Alumni Club events.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I really enjoy attending Ohio State Alumni Club events.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
When I attend an Ohio State Alumni Club event, I can really be myself.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Compared to other sports, attending Ohio State Alumni Club events is very interesting.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
A lot of my time is organized around attending Ohio State Alumni Club events.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

To take this measure, we need you to judge the strength of your intention against a series of descriptive scales.

If you feel that your intention is *very closely related* to one end of the scale, you should place your check mark as follows:

Not Probably X : _____ : _____ : _____ : _____ : _____ : _____ Probably

Not Probably _____ : _____ : _____ : _____ : _____ : _____ : X Probably

If you feel that your intention is *quite closely related* to one end of the scale (but not extremely), you should place your check mark as follows:

Not Probably _____ : X : _____ : _____ : _____ : _____ : _____ Probably

Not Probably _____ : _____ : _____ : _____ : _____ : X : _____ Probably

If you feel that your intention is *only slightly related* (but not really neutral) to one end of the scale, you should place your check mark as follows:

Not Probably _____ : _____ : X : _____ : _____ : _____ : _____ Probably

Not Probably _____ : _____ : _____ : _____ : X : _____ : _____ Probably

Do you intend to make a financial donation to The Ohio State University over the next 12 months?

Extremely likely	_____ : _____ : _____ : _____ : _____ : _____ : _____	Extremely unlikely
Not probable	_____ : _____ : _____ : _____ : _____ : _____ : _____	Probable
Certain chance	_____ : _____ : _____ : _____ : _____ : _____ : _____	No chance

What is the total amount (in dollars) you expect to *financially donate* to The Ohio State University over the next 12 months? _____

In what ZIP code is your home located? (enter 5-digit ZIP code; for example, 00544 or 94305) _____

What is your current age (in years): _____

Gender (Circle one) *Male* or *Female*

Marital Status (Circle one) Now Married / Divorced / Never Married / Widow/widower

Which race/ethnicity best describes you? (Please choose only one)

American Indian or Alaskan Native

Asian / Pacific Islander

Black or African American

Hispanic America

White / Caucasian

Multiple ethnicity

Other (please specify)

Did you...

attend The Ohio State University as an undergraduate student? *Yes or No*

graduate from The Ohio State University with a bachelor's degree? *Yes or No*

attend The Ohio State University as a graduate student? *Yes or No*

graduate from The Ohio State University with a graduate degree? *Yes or No*

What is your approximate average household income? (Circle one)

\$0 - \$24,999

\$125,000 - \$149,999

\$25,000 - \$49,999

\$150,000 - \$174,999

\$50,000 - \$74,999

\$175,000 - \$199,999

\$75,000 - \$99,999

\$200,000 and up

\$100,000 - \$124,999

Optional – Please provide your e-mail address if you would like to be entered into the drawing for 1 of 2 \$25 gift cards for Barnes & Noble redeemable at The Ohio State University Bookstore (in-store or online).

APPENDIX H
IRB APPROVAL

UNIVERSITY of
NORTHERN COLORADO



Institutional Review Board

DATE: April 9, 2013

TO: Craig Schmitt
FROM: University of Northern Colorado (UNCO) IRB

PROJECT TITLE: [442987-2] An Investigation of Involvement in University-Affiliated Alumni
Sport Fan Clubs
SUBMISSION TYPE: Amendment/Modification

ACTION: APPROVAL/VERIFICATION OF EXEMPT STATUS
DECISION DATE: April 8, 2013

Thank you for your submission of Amendment/Modification materials for this project. The University of Northern Colorado (UNCO) IRB approves this project and verifies its status as EXEMPT according to federal IRB regulations.

We will retain a copy of this correspondence within our records for a duration of 4 years.

If you have any questions, please contact Sherry May at 970-351-1910 or Sherry.May@unco.edu. Please include your project title and reference number in all correspondence with this committee.

This letter has been electronically signed in accordance with all applicable regulations, and a copy is retained within University of Northern Colorado (UNCO) IRB's records.