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Spectator loyalty towards sport organisations : the creation of truly new fan relationship management

Paul Huiszoon

To cite this version:

Paul Huiszoon. Spectator loyalty towards sport organisations : the creation of truly new fan relationship management. Education. Université de Lyon, 2019. English. NNT : 2019LYSE1061 . tel-02301791

HAL Id: tel-02301791

https://theses.hal.science/tel-02301791

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N° d'ordre NNT : 2019LYSE1061

THÈSE de DOCTORAT DE L'UNIVERSITÉ DE LYON

opérée au sein de

l'Université Claude Bernard Lyon 1

École Doctorale : EPIC 485

Éducation, Psychologie, Information et Communication

Spécialité de doctorat : Sciences et Techniques des Activités Physiques et Sportives

Soutenue publiquement le 04/06/2019, par :

PAUL HUISZOON

LA FIDELITE DES SPECTATEURS ENVERS LES ORGANISATIONS SPORTIVES – LA CREATION D'UN NOUVEAU SYSTEME DE GESTION DES RELATIONS AVEC LES SPECTATEURS

Devant le jury composé de :

BOUCHET, Patrick	Professeur, Université de Bourgogne Franche-Comté	Rapporteur
FERRAND, Alain	Professeur Émerite, Université de Poitiers	Rapporteur
GUILLET-DESCAS, Emma	Maître de Conférences – HDR, Université de Lyon 1	Examinatrice
MANOLI, Elisavet Argyro	Professeure Associée, Université de Loughborough	Examinatrice
BODET, Guillaume	Professeur, Université de Lyon 1	Directeur de thèse
MARTINENT, Guillaume	Maître de Conférences, Université de Lyon 1	Co-directeur de thèse

My goodness, don't you remember when you went first to school?
You went to kindergarten.
And in kindergarten, the idea was to push along so that you could get into first grade.
And then push along so that you could get into second grade, third grade, and so on,
Going up and up and then you went to high school and this was a great transition in life.
And now the pressure is being put on, you must get ahead.
You must go up the grades and finally be good enough to get to college.
And then when you get to college, you're still going step by step, step by step, up to the great moment in which you're ready to go out into the world.

And then when you get out into this famous world,
Comes the struggle for success in profession or business.
And again, there seems to be a ladder before you,
Something for which you're reaching for all the time.
And then, suddenly, when you're about forty or forty-five years old, in the middle of life,
You wake up one day and say "huh? I've arrived, and, by Joe, I feel pretty much the same as I've always felt. In fact, I'm not so sure that I don't feel a little bit cheated."

Because, you see, you were fooled.
You were always living for somewhere where you aren't.
And while, as I said, it is of tremendous use for us
To be able to look ahead in this way and to plan.
There is no use planning for a future,
Which when you get to it and it becomes the present you won't be there.
You'll be living in some other future which hasn't yet arrived.

And so, in this way, one is never able actually to inherit and enjoy the fruits of one’s actions.

You can't live at all unless you can live fully now.

Alan Watts – Live Fully Now

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

I would first like to thank my thesis supervisor Professor Guillaume Bodet. During my Master in the UK, he showed me the sunny-side of research and confirmed my wish to pursue a PhD. I never regretted to follow him to the University of Lyon. Without exception, I could rely on him, his advice, expertise and patience. It has been quite a journey, and I am deeply thankful for his guidance.

In the same way, I would like to thank my second supervisor Doctor Guillaume Martinent. His passion for statistics was intoxicating. Through him, I learned and enjoyed advanced quantitative research. His constant availability and strong expertise helped me through many coding- and interpretation crises.

Furthermore, I would like to express my gratitude to the Professors Alain Ferrand and Patrick Bouchet for being the rapporteurs on the jury of this thesis. Equally, I would like to thank the Doctors Elisavet Argyro Manoli and Emma Guillet-Descas for their participation in the jury as examiners. I also would like to thank all colleagues at the Laboratory of Vulnerabilities and Innovation in Sport for their help from day one.

For their invaluable help in translating my questionnaire, I would like to thank my fellow PhD students from L-ViS and LIBM. In particular, Bruno Louzada, Emmanuelle Charrin, Elodie Saruco, Noémie Lienhart, Pauline Mury, Sarah Skinner, and Thiago Kanthack. Also, I would like to express my gratitude for the support of the kind people running the Twitter account @cahiersdufoot.

Finally, I sincerely thank my beloved Anna, parents, brothers, family and friends for their constant encouragement and unlimited support.

L-VIS

Laboratoire sur les Vulnérabilités et l'Innovation dans le Sport (EA 7428)
Département Management du Sport

Université Claude Bernard Lyon 1, Bâtiment Raphaël Dubois, 8 Rue R. Dubois, 69622 Villeurbanne, France

Résumé

La raison d'être de l'étude est d'élargir les connaissances sur les relations du spectateur sportif contemporain avec les équipes sportives et les instances dirigeantes du sport. En incluant le spectateur, l'équipe et l'organe directeur dans un modèle holistique de gestion des relations avec les supporters, cette étude donne un aperçu de la formation de la fidélité au sein de la triade spectateur-équipe-organisation sportive. Une approche de modélisation par équation structurelle est utilisée pour tester, affiner et valider le modèle parmi des échantillons de quatre cent cinquante-cinq et cinq cent cinq spectateurs de football en France et en Allemagne. De plus, une analyse du profil latent est mise en œuvre pour découvrir des profils de spectateurs basés sur une conceptualisation bidimensionnelle de la fidélité. Des analyses de profils latents supplémentaires avec des covariables du modèle permettent d'identifier les variables qui définissent l'appartenance au profil. Le modèle final a révélé d'importantes différences propres à chaque pays dans les relations au sein de la triade spectateur-équipe-organisation sportive. Dans les deux échantillons, nous avons trouvé des spectateurs non fidèles, fidèles à l'état latent et fidèles. Pour la France, cependant, la satisfaction et la confiance ne contribuent pas à la fidélité, ce qui est une contradiction notable avec la littérature marketing. Cette étude est utile pour apprécier le rôle d'une instance dirigeante sportive dans la relation spectateur-équipe. De plus, il offre de nouvelles perspectives sur le profil des spectateurs et encourage la mise en place d'une variable de crédibilité dans l'étude de la gestion des relations dans le sport. Dans l'ensemble, l'approche holistique de l'étude dans l'analyse des relations et de la fidélité est unique dans la littérature scientifique sur le marketing sportif.

Les mots clés

Gestion des relations; gestion des relations avec les fans; organisation sportive; organe de gouvernance du sport; spectateurs de sport; fidélité; profils de spectateurs; SEM; LPA

SPECTATOR LOYALTY TOWARDS SPORT ORGANISATIONS – THE CREATION OF TRULY NEW FAN RELATIONSHIP MANAGEMENT

Abstract

The rationale of the study is to broaden the knowledge on the contemporary sport spectator's relationships with sports teams and sport governing bodies. By including the spectator, the team, and the governing body in a holistic Fan-Relationship-Management-Model, this study gives insights in the formation of loyalty within the spectator-team-governing body-triad. A structural equation modelling approach is used to test, refine and validate the model among samples of four hundred fifty-five and five hundred five football spectators from France and Germany. Further, a latent profile analysis is implemented to uncover spectator profiles based on a two-dimensional loyalty conceptualisation. Additional latent profile analyses with covariates from the model, allow identifying variables that facilitate profile belongingness. The final model revealed major country-specific differences in the relationships within the spectator-team-governing body-triad. In both samples we found non-loyal, latent loyal, and loyal spectators. For France, however, satisfaction and trust do not contribute to loyalty; a notable contradiction to the established marketing literature. This study is useful to appreciate a sport governing body's role in the spectator-team relationship. Also, it offers new perspectives on spectator profiles and encourages the implementation of a credibility variable when investigating relationship management in sports. Overall, the study's holistic approach in analysing relationships and loyalty is unique in the sport marketing literature.

Keywords

Relationship management; fan relationship management; sport organisation; sport governing body; sport spectators; loyalty; spectator profiles; SEM; LPA

OUTLINE

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GENERAL INTRODUCTION

Throughout the 20th century, facets of culture became increasingly commodified, turning also sports into a profitable entertainment industry and a symbol of the contemporary consumer culture (Horne, 2006). In this way, sport has lost its initial non-utilitarian form and content as marketing and profit generation entered it (Sewart, 1987). In order to serve and attract as many spectators as possible, sport clubs rationalised their offering which – slowly but surely – turned the act of attending a match into a controlled and billable service (Bryman, 1999; Ritzer, 2011). The transformation of sport into an entertainment industry and the accompanying marketing to increase customer numbers have attracted new sport consumers that redefined the "principles of support for a club" (A. J. Walsh & Giulianotti, 2001, p. 59). Originally, supporting a sport club rooted deeply in identification with the local community (Giulianotti, 1999; R. Holt, 1989). Today, this might be true for some spectator groups, but reasons why a particular club is supported, or a match is watched, have become highly diverse (Bourgeon & Bouchet, 2001; Giulianotti, 2002). Furthermore, authors have described the contemporary sport consumer as elusive, having a chameleon-like nature that is the manifestation of an abundance and contrariness of behaviours, wants and expectations (Bodet, 2009b).

However, what the diverse and chameleon-like sport consumers have in common is the postmodern consumer's hunger for "fantasies, feelings, and fun" (Holbrook & Hirschman, 1982, p. 132). Therefore, sport matches are marketed as extraordinary experiences; occurrences that have the power to dazzle the senses, touch the heart and stimulate the mind (Schmitt, 1999). Whether this reaction is evoked and to what extent, depends on how the service is "received by consciousness" (Bodet, 2016; Bruner, 1986, p. 4). Overall, a professional sport match, with all its peripheral

services, is an economic offering created to satisfy the rational *and* emotional human (Schmitt, 1999).

It is precisely this postmodern sport consumer, who emancipated from the hegemony of purpose, meta narrative, and self-justification (Bodet, 2009b), that needs to be understood better if managers of profit- and performance-oriented sport organisations pursue the retention or maximisation of profit and prestige through a large following and high audience figures. An advanced understanding of the postmodern sport consumer could be the basis for marketing approaches that win and retain customers more successfully. The need for improved marketing intelligence has been stressed by sport marketing scholars, as they identified five contemporary challenges to customer acquisition and retention in sports:

1. High demand for enchanted experiences despite growing rationalisation (Bodet, 2016),
2. negative customer attitudes due to willful misconduct by sport governing bodies (Huiszoon, Martinent, & Bodet, 2018),
3. complex relational expectations of customers (Bodet, Kenyon, & Ferrand, 2017),
4. a plethora of entertainment alternatives (Bodet, 2009a), and
5. an absence of high media exposure or sporting success (Bodet, 2013).

The aim of this study is to drive the understanding of sport spectators by investigating the interplay of their attitudes and behaviours within a Fan Relationship Management Model (FRM Model; Adamson, Jones, & Tapp, 2006) and characterising different spectator profiles. Admittingly, the attitudes and behaviours of sport spectators have been subject to numerous publications. SportDiscus, a bibliographic database dedicated to sports, listed 1285 academic publications on sport spectators and sport consumers in 2017 and 2018 alone. A broader search, using Google Scholar, yielded about 9750 results for the same search terms and timeframe. However,

research on attitudes and behaviours in relational ecosystems — instead of isolated dyads — is scarce (Bodet et al., 2017; Ferrand & McCarthy, 2008).

That is to say, while most research investigated a sport spectator's relationship with a sports team, or more generally with a sport organisation, we aim to describe and predict, how the spectator's relationships with a sports team *and* its superordinate sport governing body affect loyalty towards the team. Thereby, we broaden the perspective on which relationships might influence a sport spectator's loyalty. Loyalty is an excellent concept to understand the quality of a relationship. It can be used as an indicator and predictor for an organisation's business success. It does not just measure customer retention but also indicates the retention's value (Reichheld & Teal, 1996). Additionally, we plan to establish sport spectator profiles based on an extended conceptualisation of loyalty. Accordingly, we pose two research questions:

How and to what extent is the loyalty towards a sports team determined by a sport spectator's relationship with the sports team and its sport governing body?

By using a refined conceptualisation of loyalty, which spectator profiles can be identified?

The research environment in which we tackle the research questions is football, "the only truly global sport" (p. 53) and textbook example for sport's intense commodification, commercialisation, or even "hyper-commodification" (A. J. Walsh & Giulianotti, 2001, p. 55). Overall, the study consists of four chapters divided into two parts. In Part I, we set the study's scene. In Part II, we perform the quantitative research, present and discuss its outcomes and implications.

Part I is subdivided into Chapters I and II. Firstly, we present supply and demand in the European football industry including relationship marketing. Secondly, we develop our conceptualisation of loyalty and develop the FRM Model with ten

independent variables. In the writings on the supply side we will portray sport's characteristics, its ethos and social meaning, and how commodification impacted them. Ensuing, we analyse in detail the hyper-commodification and the globalisation of football and football's omnipresence in Europe on the club- and national-level. In the presentation of the demand side of football – the sport spectator – we start with an introduction to sport consumption behaviour in postmodernity and continue with an in-depth overview of the diversity of sport consumers.

Chapter II and the development of the FRM Model start with an extensive, systematic derivation of our two-dimensional loyalty conceptualisation. Starting with loyalty in general, we explore this concept increasingly specific. First its conceptualisations in sport and then finally in football. Subsequently, we explore and define the model's ten independent variables and lastly justify their relation to loyalty which includes the study's hypotheses. The presentation of the FRM Model marks the end of Chapter II.

Part II is subdivided in Chapter III and IV. In Chapter III we present the study's methodological approach and techniques used to test the hypotheses of the FRM Model. Furthermore, we establish the measurements of the variables. Finally, we give descriptive answers to the two research questions. Chapter IV, the last chapter of our study, is concerned with the discussion of the findings, the conclusion, limitations and research perspectives.

Part I – Supply, demand and relationship management within the European football industry: An analysis of sport as a spectator service in postmodernity

CHAPTER I – SUPPLY AND DEMAND IN THE EUROPEAN FOOTBALL INDUSTRY AND RELATIONSHIP MARKETING IN SPORT

In the first chapter, we set the scene for our empirical study on sports spectators and their relationship quality with and loyalty towards national football teams and national football associations. The chapter offers a broad entry into sport as a spectator service, its supply, demand, and commercial marketing. Subdivided into three sections, we first explore sport as a service, its commercialisation and rationalisation, secondly emphasise the diversity of sports spectators in postmodernity, and thirdly examine relationship management practices in sport and advance a holistic approach to assessing a sports consumer's relationship quality with a sports organisation.

Section One – The supply side

The study's first section starts with a brief introduction to contemporary sports. The roots of sport's social meaning and ethos are discussed and contrasted to the commodification and commercialisation of it as sport became part of the service industry. Rationalisation of sport as a spectator service is explored through McDonaldization and Disneyization and particularly by examples of the magnitude of football's hyper-commodification and the forces behind football's globalisation process. This exploration introduces football in general and European football on national-level in particular as the study's research environment. Finally, we present five ongoing challenges of the football industry that have been identified in the sports marketing literature.

1 CONTEMPORARY SPORT

The way sports are practised, perceived, marketed and sold in the consumer society often contradicts the historical meaning of sport, sports clubs, and its ethos which manifests sport's transformation into a commodity within hedonistic consumption spheres (Fromm, 1955). In what follows, we discuss aspects of sport's rationalisation, sport's conversion into a service, and the service's standardisation.

1.1 Characteristics of sport

Sport, a term so widely used but without a global definition (IOC, 2002). The International Olympic Committee argued that one commonly accepted aspect is the "physical exertion in the conduct of competition" (IOC, 2002, p. 8). Other definitions added to physical exertion and competition another ingredient: entertainment. Thus, these approaches define sport as "an activity involving physical exertion and skill in which an individual or team competes against another or others for entertainment" (Oxford Dictionaries, 2017d). Wider definitions of sport are put forward by the Council of Europe (1993) and the United Nations (2003). Both highlighted that sport "are all forms of physical activity that contribute to physical fitness, mental well-being and social interaction" (United Nations, 2003, p. v) and may be directed towards "obtaining results in competition at all levels" (Council of Europe, 1993, Art. 2). We agree with the Council of Europe's definition that goes as follows:

> 'Sport' means all forms of physical activity which, through casual or organised participation, aim at expressing or improving physical fitness and mental well-being, forming social relationships or obtaining results in competition at all levels. (Council of Europe, 1993, Art. 2)

Referring to sport as a competitive physical activity, Hargreaves (1986) suggested six distinctive characteristics of sport. Twenty years later, Horne (2006, p. 4) emphasised that these characteristics are still adequate to describe the "distinctive (or autonomous) culture" of sport that make it "much more than just another industry" (p. 3). He cited Hargreaves (1986) and concluded that sport:

1. consists of play,
2. is governed by "'very elaborate codes and statutes'",
3. through its uncertainty of outcome creates attendant tension, lending "a unique excitement to them",
4. provides drama and "'regular public occasions for discourse on some of the basic themes of social life'",
5. through its "rule-governed behaviour of a symbolic character 'draws the attention of its participants to objects of thought and feeling which are held to be of special significance', and provides much of its ritual quality", and
6. is linked to the body, which is "'the most striking symbol as well as the material core of sporting activity'". (Hargreaves, 1986, cited in Horne, 2006, p. 4)

1.2 Bygone times, sport's ethos and social meaning

Sport, like any other social practice, has been subject to change. At some point sport's virtues were its non-utilitarian form and content (Sewart, 1987). Yet, it has evolved to being a multimillion-Euro industry and an essential part of contemporary consumer culture (Horne, 2006). However, before discussing sport as an industry, we briefly broach what sport was by the end of the 19th and the beginning of the 20th century and contour its ethos and social meaning to highlight the contrasting form it has taken.

The emergence of professional sports clubs, whether amateur or professional, were traditionally characterised by a close bond with their neighbouring communities. Often, the clubs were specifically established to provide the local people with recreational opportunities. Additionally, charitable clubs have been founded to enable sports for all. Particularly successful clubs transformed into limited liability companies and began to recruit professional players (A. J. Walsh & Giulianotti, 2001). At this time, and in the case of football clubs, the work of the directors was unpaid, and dividends were limited to five per cent (Horne, 2006). Intensive ties between locals and their amateur sports club facilitated and fostered strong attachment to the, by now, professional one. In this manner, the locals' regular club support rooted deeply in the identification with it as it symbolised their local community (Giulianotti, 1999; R. Holt, 1989, pp. 159-163, both referred to by Walsh & Giulianotti, 2001, p. 61). To a certain extent, the exercised sport was autonomous and driven by intrinsic qualities like athletic skill and creativity. Mainly because it was "free from the immediate context of use and exchange", i.e. marketing and profit generation (Sewart, 1987, p. 185).

1.2.1 Ethos

D'Agostino (1981) defined the ethos of games in relation to formal game rules. He argued that formal rules exist to distinguish between game behaviour that is allowed and disallowed. However, the ethos of a game goes beyond that. The ethos differentiates between allowed, disallowed but acceptable and unacceptable game behaviours. In this way, an athlete's behaviour can be "either in accordance with the formal rules of the game or [it] violates those rules only in a way which, according to the ethos of that game, does not require the invocation of penalties" (D'Agostino, 1981, p. 15). The interpretation of basketball's formal rules, which describe it as a non-contact sport, is an example, as body contact in a strategical element of the game (D'Agostino, 1981).

In our understanding of ethos, we follow a broader and more sociological approach (A. J. Walsh & Giulianotti, 2001). They defined sport's ethos as:

> [T]he pursuit of victory, in competitive good faith, though social action that is both rule-following and aesthetically sanctioned by the practicing community (the 'practice-community') of that sport. (Walsh & Giulianotti, 2001, p. 60, referring to W. J. Morgan, 1993)

Additionally, sport's ideals and virtues are embodied by the Olympic movement. It values the "pure motives of the amateur" and promotes "the development of skills, competing at one's best, and sportsmanship", while in the spirit of Baron Pierre De Coubertin, "the act of competing and struggling to excel is more worthy than victory itself" (A. J. Walsh & Giulianotti, 2001, p. 61). This statement emphasises the "liberal ideals of individual growth and creative expression" in sport (Sewart, 1987, p. 182).

1.2.2 Social meaning

The United Nations' definition of sport explicitly includes social interaction as an element of physical activities (United Nations, 2003, p. v). Sewart (1987) stressed that sport should be valued as a context-providing entity that can empower authenticity, the self, and society. In this vein:

> [S]port has long been valorized as an important medium enabling social actors to 'practice' and 'learn' a sense of fair play, justice, conflict and dispute resolution, sublimating egoistic desires to group needs, as well as generating sociability, solidarity and communal effort. (Sewart, 1987, p. 172)

Amongst other functions, sport is considered to facilitate the generation of social capital (bonding, bridging and linking), the creation of a sense of belonging, and personal development (De Knop & Hoyng, 1998). Personal development and self-fulfilment have been highlighted in this context since sport embodies an antithesis to the utilitarian and mechanic dimension of life (Sewart, 1987). Furthermore, it is believed that sport has a democratising effect, being "one of the few spheres of social life where rational meritocratic values are truly operational. Subjective factors, family connections, or political influence are of no consequence on the playing field or in the

arena" (De Knop & Hoyng, 1998; Sewart, 1987, p. 176). In football, it has been the emergence of clubs from within a community that established an authentic cultural heritage, empowered the working-class, and offered an entity that is "larger" than the community to identify with (Duke, 2002; Hognestad, 2012).

1.2.3 National teams and national feelings

Sport's power to create or enforce community and identity has been of interests to political leaders and governments around the world and led to an increasing politicisation of sport during the last century (Meier & Mutz, 2018). It was simple to interweave international, high-performance sport with the concept of nation "because international sporting competitions function so effortlessly as metaphor for the state of the nation at the popular political level" (Rowe, 2003, p. 285, cited in Meier & Mutz, 2018, p. 2). In that way, governments used high-performance sport to "aid the state and its objectives of legitimacy, territorial integrity, and citizen commitment" (Houlihan, 1997, p. 113). Similarly, achievements of national teams and athletes are vehicles to convey national strength (Krüger, 1995). Overall, "teams and athletes have become national icons and symbols of the nation itself" (Meier & Mutz, 2018, p. 2) or in other words:

> What has made sport so uniquely effective a medium for inculcating national feelings, at all events for males, is the ease with which even the least political or public individuals can identify with the nation as symbolized by young persons excelling at what practically every man wants, or at one time in life has wanted, to be good at. The imagined community of millions seems more real as a team of eleven named people. The individual, even the one who only cheers, becomes a symbol of his nation himself. (Hobsbawm, 1990, p. 143, cited in Meier & Mutz, 2018, pp. 2-3)

1.3 Commodification and commercialisation of sport

Commodification and commercialisation are two related but distinct concepts. A commodified good or service is one that *was free erstwhile* and has been turned into something that must be paid for, i.e. it gained exchange-value (Moor, 2007; A. J. Walsh

& Giulianotti, 2001). Moreover, commodification describes a process in which the social meaning of a practice or an object is transformed into merely financial terms (A. J. Walsh & Giulianotti, 2001). Thus, commercial activities of professional sports clubs, like introducing club-branded beverages or financial services and using the club's image for advertising and merchandise sales, are not per se indications of commodification (for a detailed analysis see Moor, 2007, pp. 132-134). However, we do not intend to "engage in a form of academic carping" (Moor, 2007, p. 134). Therefore, in the following, we refer to processes and phenomena signifying sport's intense commodification and commercialisation as "hyper-commodification" (A. J. Walsh & Giulianotti, 2001, p. 55). In a nutshell, it labels the invasion of market-centred principles into sport (Giulianotti, 2005; Moor, 2007; Sewart, 1987; A. J. Walsh & Giulianotti, 2001). In close reference to Williams (2005, p. 14), we define the hyper-commodification of sport as an intense process in which sport itself, and related goods and services, are "produced and delivered by capitalist firms for monetised exchange for the purpose of profit", whereby sport is, in many cases, emptied of its initial social meaning and non-utilitarian form.

Similarly more than a decade ago, A. J. Walsh and Giulianotti (2001) stressed that the corporatisation of clubs resulted in "the prioritizing on profitability within the sport enterprise over its historical, cultural, social, or aesthetic dimensions" (p. 55), including ignorance of the traditional grass roots level interests (Duke, 2002). Going back in time even further, three decades ago, Sewart (1987) already criticised the "reduction of athletic skill, competition and contest to a commodified spectacle sold in the market for mass entertainment" (p. 182), whereby the "structure and practice of sport are increasingly shaped by market rationality", turning sport into "just another item to be trafficked as a commodity" (p. 172). A highly apparent symptom of hyper-commodification is that profit margins dictate which sport is broadcasted; turning athletic contests into television events which accidentally involve athletes (Sewart, 1987). In this sense, broadcasting networks became the paymasters (Duke, 2002).

The violation of sport's original meaning through hyper-commodification has been an inevitable process, since "no social practice is immune from the corrosive impact of commodification" (Sewart, 1987, p. 182). Particularly, turning humans and their (sportive) expressions into "manufactured products", which can be processed and marketed, unavoidably leads to the debauchery of both, sports and its athletes (Sewart, 1987).

1.3.1 Marketing in professional sport

Many regarded the entrance of market and marketing rhetoric into sport as a breach of its traditional norms and ethos (Sewart, 1987; A. J. Walsh & Giulianotti, 2001). Nonetheless, fanned by hyper-commodification, marketing has become an integral part of the sports industry. It has become a necessary evil for many professional sports clubs to stay competitive and triumphant for the overall goal: revenue. To the delight of investors and sponsors, and fans' displeasure (Harris & Ogbonna, 2008).

The current, complete presence of marketing within sport becomes most clearly by looking at recent commercial trends and topics of interest for sports marketing research. An annual sports consultancy report listed the sports industry's ten most critical commercial trends in 2017. Amongst others, it listed the increased investment in data and customer relationship management (CRM) to optimise fan relationships (Nielsen Sports, 2017). In academia, Funk, Alexandris, and McDonald (2016) put forward a catalogue with topics of interest in sports marketing research. Besides others, the topics include (1) segmentation of sports consumers on the grounds of various variables, (2) use of social media to segment, motivate, or educate (prospect) sports consumers, (3) the development of specific sports marketing strategies for different race and ethnicity groups, and (4) defining marketing and communication strategies to target cognitive or affective components of consumer attitudes (cf. Funk et al., 2016, pp. 319-321). The total of 52 topic suggestions seems to be dominated by the terms "segmentation" (7 mentions), as well as "marketing and communication strategies" (10 mentions). The short listing and overlap between the trends and topics

signify a tendency to focus on understanding diverse consumer segments and how to market goods and services to them.

1.3.2 Rationalisation

The process of turning away from sports' non-utilitarian form – and turning towards rational market principles – is a key characteristic of sport's hyper-commodification (Sewart, 1987). In this vein, **sport's rationalisation** is a faithful companion of hyper-commodification. Specifically, **sport's supply, delivery, and consumption** had to be made **efficient, calculable, and (in parts) predictable** (Ritzer, 2011), to render it into a commodity that can be traded profitably. The experience of sport, whether active or passive, has become a controlled and billable service.

1.3.2.1 Sport as a service

A service industry is defined as an industry that is "classified within the service sector whose core product is a service" (Zeithaml, Bitner, & Gremler, 2009, p. 4). We argue the core product of the sports industry are services, i.e. "*deeds, processes, and performances* provided or coproduced by one entity or person for another entity or person" (Zeithaml et al., 2009, p. 4, emphasis in original).

Classically, services have been differentiated from goods by attributing services four unique characteristics: intangibility, heterogeneity, inseparability, and perishability (Lovelock & Gummesson, 2004). Compared to goods, services:

- "cannot be readily displayed or communicated" (intangibility),
- "service delivery and customer satisfaction depend on employee and customer actions" (heterogeneity),
- "customers participate in and affect the transaction" (inseparability),
- and "services cannot be returned or resold" (perishability; Zeithaml et al., 2009, p. 20).

Scholars have criticised this classical view on services, saying that these characteristics are not universally applicable for all services (Lovelock & Gummesson, 2004; see also Shostack, 1977; Vargo & Lusch, 2004). This criticism led to a more moderate language like "differences between goods and services are not black and white by any means" (Zeithaml et al., 2009, p. 20).

Shostack (1977) offered a nuanced approach to the nature of services. She placed market entities on a continuum ranging from tangible dominant to intangible dominant, determining its positions by the "level of tangibility within its existence" (Harness & Harness, 2007, p. 162). Thereby theorising and visualising that distinctions between products and services are not clear-cut (cf. Figure I-1) or as she put it:

> Market entities are, in reality, *combinations of discrete elements* which are linked together in molecule-like wholes. Elements can be either a tangible or intangible. The entity may have either a tangible or intangible nucleus. But the whole can only be described as having a certain dominance. (Shostack, 1977, p. 74, emphasis in original)

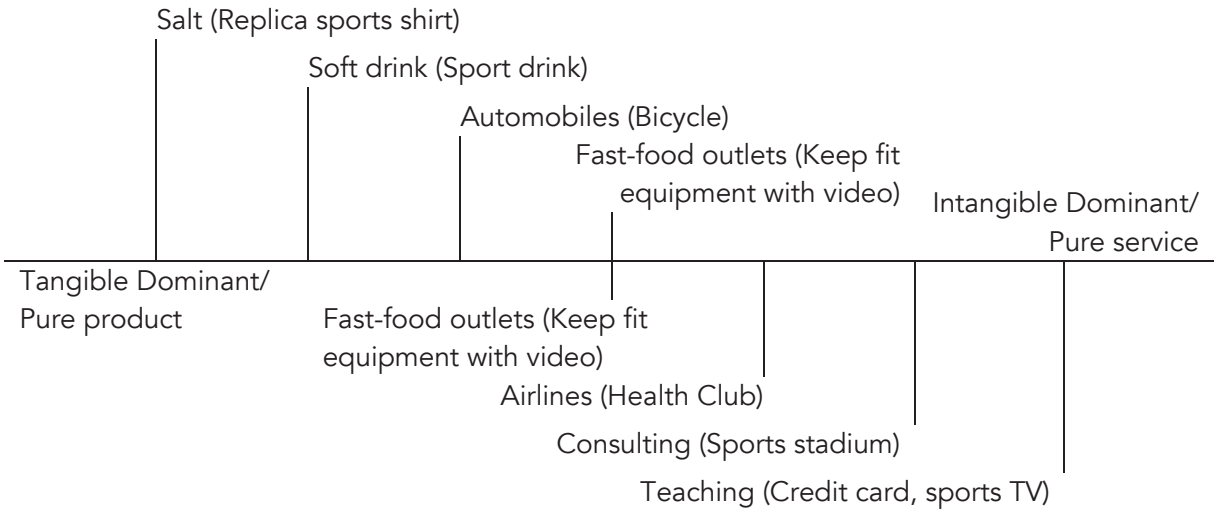

Figure I-1. Product/service continuum

Note. Adopted form Shostack (1977, p. 77) and in parenthesis sport examples from Harness and Harness (2007, p. 162).

An excellent example of market entities that combine discrete intangible and tangible elements are the services offered in the sports industry. The core element, i.e.

the nucleus, of a sports service is intangible. Hence, its utilisation or experience is often transitory and does not result in ownership of any production factors. Whereas the utilisation or experience is facilitated or supported through physical goods, i.e. tangible elements (cf. definition of service by Lovelock & Gummesson, 2004, p. 26; Lovelock & Wirtz, 2004, p. 9). Therefore, and looking at sport quite dispassionately, it is "just" another service industry.

A sports service might be offered by the public/state, private/commercial, or voluntary sector (Robinson, Chelladurai, Bodet, & Downward, 2012). Regardless of the sector, sports services may be distinguished into sport participation services and sport spectator services. Individuals either use a sports service provider's skills, facility and/or physical goods to do something with or to their bodies. Alternatively, individuals use watching/attending a sports performance to experience nonphysical acts to their minds. These characteristics place the services in the two left-hand sections of Lovelock's (1983) service classifications[1] (cf. Figure I-2).

	Who or what is the direct recipient of the service?	
	Individuals	Things
What is the nature of the service act?	Physical acts to customers' bodies:	Physical acts to owned objects:
Tangible actions	▪ passenger transportation ▪ health care ▪ lodging ▪ beauty salons	▪ freight transportation ▪ repair/maintenance ▪ warehousing ▪ laundry
Intangible actions	Nonphysical acts to customers' minds: ▪ entertainment ▪ news ▪ education ▪ consulting	Processing of information: ▪ internet banking ▪ insurance ▪ accounting ▪ research

Figure I-2. Understanding the nature of the service act

Note: Adopted from Lovelock (1983, p. 12) and Lovelock and Gummesson (2004, p. 31).

[1] Services directed towards physical goods that are used for certain sports are excluded from our further discussion (e.g. restringing a racket, fitting of golf clubs, waxing skis; residing in the upper right section of Figure I-2).

1.3.2.2 Sport participation service

The core element of sport participation services are physical acts to the participant's body and/or the enablement of a sports activity. The physical acts to the body can be induced by service personnel, machines, the participant him/herself, or a hybrid form of the above. The minimum requirement for the individual is to be physically present where the service can be received, or the physical service environment can be utilised. So to speak, one "must enter the service 'factory'" and "spend time there while the service is performed" (Lovelock, 1983, p. 12). Moreover, the individual him or herself uses equipment within the service factory. Examples are health clubs, electric muscle stimulation training centres, swimming baths, football/volleyball/basketball halls. Besides services clearly related to sport participation, sport participation service providers often offer peripheral services (e.g. tanning beds in health clubs).

Successful service delivery can be influenced by the interactions customers "have with service personnel, the nature of the service facilities and also perhaps by the characteristics of other customers using the same service" (Lovelock, 1983, p. 13).

1.3.2.3 Sport spectator service

The core element of sport spectator services is a nonphysical act to an individual's mind (cf. Figure I-2). Thus, the service is not the observed sports performance – it is whatever an individual derives from watching and interpreting it (Horne, 2006; Koppett, 1994).

From of the uncertainty of outcome, unique excitement arises as soon as one cares about the outcome and cherishes the illusion that the result matters (Hargreaves, 1986; Horne, 2006; Koppett, 1994). For some this is entertainment only, for others it is "the serious life" (Giulianotti & Robertson, 2004, p. 546, in reference to Durkheim; Horne, 2006; Koppett, 1994). Either way, it is a sport spectator service. Sport spectators might refuse to call it that way since they might separate (a) sport's hyper-commodification with all its overt symptoms from (b) the sport performance itself.

However, this is an illusion. A sport's public exertion by professional athletes has become a profit-seeking spectacle with countless peripheral offers. The spectators are not an integral part of it – it is organised *for* them – justifying the label sport spectator *service* (Debord, 1967/2014, referred to in Ritzer, 2010, pp. 96-97).

To experience the service, spectators do not necessarily have to be at the "service factory", i.e. the location where the sport activity is performed. Broadcasts enable individuals to receive the service, without being physically present at the venue. To what extent live (being physically present at the venue) versus broadcasted consumption alters the service, shall be left undecided here.

Like sport participation services, interactions with service personnel, other customers and the nature of the venue can affect service delivery and experience (Lovelock, 1983). The production of a sport spectator service is facilitated or supported through physical structures, like venues that supply a standardised environment (e.g. football or athletics stadium).

1.3.3 McDonaldization

McDonaldization is a contemporary term for **rationalisation** coined by George Ritzer in his same-titled book *The McDonaldization of Society* (Ritzer, 2011). He introduced his work as an "amplification and extension of Weber's theory of rationalization, especially into the realm of consumption" (Ritzer, 2011, p. 25).

McDonaldization encompasses four principles: **efficiency, calculability, predictability, and control**. These dimensions guarantee the success of the fast-food franchise McDonald's, mostly because the four dimensions are alluring to customers, workers, and managers. Ritzer (2011) applied this set of principles to society as a whole and how these are used to produce, deliver, and present goods/services. He defined McDonaldization as:

> [T]he process by which the principles of the fast-food restaurant are coming to dominate more and more sectors of American society as well as of the rest of the world. (Ritzer, 2011, p. 1)

Efficiency is "choosing the optimum means to a given end" (p. 55). For fast-food customers, a drive-through offers an efficient way to satisfy one's hunger. For workers to function efficiently, organisations instruct them to follow production steps in a predesigned process (Ritzer, 2011).

Calculability signifies the emphasis on quantitative instead of qualitative aspects of goods and services. It is all about calculating, counting, and quantifying (Ritzer, 2011) and "encapsulates the American bigger is better syndrome, with quality providing the illusion of quality" (Duke, 2002, p. 7).

Predictability means "to know what to expect in most settings and at most times" (p. 97). For fast-food customers, this implies that they can rely on the fact that their Big Mac tastes the same always, independent from time and place. Workers follow the rules and processes how to do their work. Scripts that specify a worker's behaviours and even words spoken, make service interactions highly predictable (Ritzer, 2011).

Control in McDonaldized systems signifies an "increased control of humans through the utilization of nonhuman technology" (p. 117). For example, video surveillance to control customers and workers or the utilisation of "precut, presliced, and 'pre-prepared'" (p. 119) ingredients from which workers at McDonaldized restaurants prepare food (Ritzer, 2011).

1.3.3.1 McDonaldization and sports

McDonaldization does not spare sports. To be more **efficient**, clubs and federations have built new and relocated stadiums. It facilitates more efficient methods to move consumers to and in the stadiums (Duke, 2002; Ritzer, 2011).

Calculability in sports is well exemplified by time-outs and altered match days to suit the TV audience, obeying the overall objective to increase earnings from advertisements (Duke, 2002; Ritzer, 2011). Furthermore, the demand for more speed and higher scores was met in basketball with the introduction of the 24-second rule (Ritzer, 2011). Similarly, from the FIFA World Cup 2026, 48 instead of 32 national

teams will compete in the final round (FIFA, 2017b). An indicator of an increase in matches' quantity, instead of quality.

To make tennis matches more suitable for TV the length of the match had to be more **predictable**; hence the tiebreaker has been introduced. The predictability of racehorse training has been tackled as well. Training stables have been standardised, so racehorses do not have to adjust to a new condition when shipped to another race track (Ritzer, 2011). Finally, athletic stadiums with a roof and artificial turf have made match conditions more predictable (Duke, 2002).

Sport consumers are under enhanced **control** through increased stewarding and all seated stadiums. At the same time, consumers can exert more control. For example, attending a football match in an executive box allows the consumers to control the volume of the crowd noise inside their glassed box. "They can select high, medium or low atmosphere in which to consume their football" (Duke, 2002, p. 14).

1.3.3.2 Disenchantment and sports

In the process of discussing the McDonaldization (i.e. rationalisation) of society, Ritzer (2011) highlighted one of its consequences: disenchantment. In his book *Enchanting a Disenchanted World,* he emphasised that rationalisation, by definition, leads to disenchantment. It is unavoidable, since societies streamlined for rationalisation, eliminate the magical, the mysterious, the fantastic, and the dreamy (Ritzer, 2010, 2011). He summarised rationalisation's legacy as:

> Although we undoubtedly have gained much from the rationalization of society in general, and from the rationalization of consumption settings in particular, we also have lost something great, if hard to define, value. (Ritzer, 2010, p. 89)

Amongst the four principles of rationalisation – efficiency, calculability, predictability, and control – **the archenemy of enchantment is predictability**. In other words "nothing would destroy an enchanted experience more easily than having it become predictable" (Ritzer, 2010, p. 91). However, in specific cases predictability of

experiences and events is necessary. For instance, broadcasters need predictability, i.e. they need to know when matches start and end.

Whole industries are dedicated to the mass, i.e. efficient, production of enchantment. For example, the movie industry creates highly predictable worlds and "hits" them with a highly unpredictable event (e.g. E.T., Poltergeist; Ritzer, 2011). However, Ritzer did not consider mass-produced enchantment as true enchantment. He argued:

> '[T]rue' enchantment is difficult, if not impossible, to produce in settings designed to deliver large quantities of goods and services frequently and over great geographic spaces. (Ritzer, 2011, p. 149)

A domain that has better preconditions to (a) satisfy the desire for unpredictability in a rationalised world and to (b) create true enchantment in large quantities, frequently, and over great geographic space might be sport. First and foremost because of its uncertainty of outcome (unpredictability) and the excitement associated with it (Horne, 2006). Moreover, it might not just be its uncertainty of the overall outcome, but also the unpredictability of the athletes' actions and its instant outcomes. Enchantment through sports can be offered frequently, depending on which kind of sport one follows. Football, for example, can be watched almost every week. Additionally, broadcasts enable to receive the service in great geographic spaces. In this way, sport spectator services offer a unique combination of a McDonaldized environment (e.g. athletic stadium) and nonphysical acts to customers' minds that ought to be enchanting.

Nonetheless, the unpredictability of the core service is offered in a highly predictive manner within a "comparatively stable, familiar, and safe environment" (Ritzer, 2011, p. 21). Furthermore, for sport spectators, it is utmost predictive when to expect unpredictability. Whether this is or leads to true enchantment is questionable. However, it might be just the **McDonaldized enchantment** consumers are looking for in a "rapidly changing, unfamiliar, and seemingly hostile world" (Ritzer, 2011, p. 21). For this, they accept – consciously or unconsciously – "pseudo interactions" with

athletes (Ritzer, 2011, p. 102) and the "commercialization of 'fun'" (Ritzer, 2010, p. 3). In this vein, weaving a little enchantment and magic into rationalised environments make them just more tolerable and conceal its disenchanted core (Ritzer, 2010, 2011).

1.3.4 Disneyization

With Disneyization, Bryman (1999) created a complementary conception to Ritzer's (2011) McDonaldization. Both concepts provide a framework to increase the appeal of goods and services. Whereby, **McDonaldization** deals primarily with the **production** of goods and services and **Disneyization** with their **staging** (Bryman, 2014). In this way, they "represent important templates for the *production* of goods and services and their *exhibition for sale*" (Bryman, 2014, p. 161; emphasis added). Disneyization is defined as:

> [T]he process by which *the principles* of the Disney theme parks are coming to dominate more and more sectors of American society as well as the rest of the world. (Bryman, 2014, p. 1; emphasis in original)

This process has four dimensions: **theming, hybrid consumption, merchandising, and performative labour**. Theming is the act of "clothing institutions or objects in a narrative that is largely unrelated to the institution or object to which it is applied" (Bryman, 2014, p. 2). For example a casino or restaurant with a Wild West narrative (Bryman, 2014), or fitness gyms designed like old industrial factories.

Hybrid consumption describes the trend that it has become difficult to distinguish between different kinds of consumption (Duke, 2002). More precisely, goods and services from diverse consumption spheres are clustered spatially, blurring their separating characteristics; to ultimately enclose the consumer in an omnipresent and "de-differentiated" consumption-rat race (Bryman, 1999, 2014). Additionally, often theming is used to create a faked coherence in the spatially clustered consumption spheres. Examples are Disney parks, where shopping, eating, hotel accommodation, visiting the park and experiencing its rides are inseparably interwoven (Bryman, 1999).

The merchandising dimension is defined as the "promotion and sale of goods in the form of or bearing copyright images/or logos, including such products made under licence" (Bryman, 2014, p. 2). In order to "extracting further revenue from an image that has already attracted people", moreover it "keeps the images in people's minds and acts as a constant advertisement for existing and forthcoming spin-offs" (Bryman, 2014, p. 80). The *Hard Rock Cafe* t-shirt that shows the logo of the franchise and the location where the shirt was bought exemplifies a manifestation of this dimension (Bryman, 1999).

Performative labour describes the "growing tendency for frontline service work to be viewed as a performance, especially one in which the deliberate display of a certain mood is seen as part of the labour involved in the service work" (Bryman, 2014, p. 2). Similarly, Ashforth and Humphrey (1993) defied emotional labour as the "act of expressing socially desired emotions during service encounters" (Ashforth and Humphrey, 1993, cited in Bryman, 1999, p. 39). Performative labour is highly practised by shop workers, airline cabin crews (Bryman, 2014), and hosts in holiday resorts.

1.3.4.1 Disneyization and sports

Disneyization infiltrated sports as well. Signs of **theming** in the 1990s have been the renaming of new leagues, renaming of clubs, and the introduction of mascots (Duke, 2002). For home grounds of sports teams, the club brand forms a theme in itself (i.e. brand narrative; Bryman, 2014). Additionally, clubs use and exaggerate the inherent features of the home ground to emphasise their theme. Bryman (2014) termed this theming "intrinsic narratives of place" (p. 46). In this way, the home team's sports arena is an overstated theme in its own right. It differentiates it from other locations and creates an artificial coherent context that facilitates hybrid consumption.

Hybrid consumption is the extension of a longstanding tendency to turn "places into destinations where visitors will stay longer" (Bryman, 2014, p. 91). Specifically, sport stadiums offer a variety of forms of consumption and combine various consumption elements: "shopping malls, food courts, beer gardens and bars, video games arcades, museums, some amusement park attractions, and banking

facilities" (Bryman, 2014, p. 68, in reference to Ritzer & Stillmann, 2001). And, after all, opportunities to buy merchandise.

Not only, but particularly in sports, the development and selling of **merchandise** have become a goal in its own right (Bryman, 2014). Be it franchised products, replica shirts, or the sale of stadium names (Duke, 2002).

Emotional labour in sports is highly present in the stadium's executive boxes and excessive cheerfulness and friendliness of staff within the stadium (Duke, 2002). Also, the behaviour of players and coaches before and after matches can be considered emotional labour. Not only their pseudo-interactions with supporters but especially their ever-consistent responses in interviews.

Overall, one might compare professional sports to amusement parks; it is all about "spectacularization" (Andrews, 2006, p. 95). Sport spectacles – like amusement parks – are a vehicle to sell goods and services (Bryman, 1999; Davis, 1996; Ritzer, 2010). Regular sport spectacles (e.g. Premier League matches) reinforce advertisements for a club/athlete brand since the matches act as "an endless round of self-referential co-advertisements" (Fjellman, 1992, p. 157, cited in Bryman, 1999, p. 38). Additionally, the distinguishing features of sport, favour the fact that a "lack of consistent on-field success does not necessarily imply poor merchandise sales" (Bryman, 2014, p. 97).

Conclusively, **at the heart of Disneyization lies consumption**. It is a set strategy to veil consumption and mask an (sport-) organisation's commercialism (Bryman, 2014). All in all, Disneyization manifests the "commodification of culture" (Wasko, Phillips, & Purdie, 1993, p. 271).

Both processes, McDonaldization and Disneyization, have been used here to emphasise the practices in place that embed professional sport firmly in the service industry. The concrete examples highlight in what way sport's ideals and virtues are constantly undermined and how the hyper-commodification of sport is a multi-layered, ongoing process. Particularly evident is hyper-commodification in the football industry on club- *and* national-level. Being aware of McDonaldization and Disneyization helps to interpret the challenges the industry currently faces.

2 THE FOOTBALL INDUSTRY

Association football, football, or in some regions called soccer, is "the only truly global sport" (A. J. Walsh & Giulianotti, 2001, p. 53). In 2006, the world governing body of association football, the *Fédération Internationale de Football Association* (FIFA; International Federation of Association Football) estimated that 265 million people play football (FIFA, 2007). More recent estimations claim that 46% of the world's population is interested in football and 20% participate[2] in it (Repucom, 2014). For the FIFA World Cup 2014 in Rio de Janeiro, Brazil more than 11 million people applied for tickets (FIFA, 2014). The final was watched[3] by 1.013 billion people in 207 territories (FIFA, 2015).

In 2015/2016, the 20 highest earning football clubs generated a total revenue of € 7.4 billion. Whereby commercial, broadcast, and matchday revenue accounted for 43%, 39%, and 18% of it (Deloitte, 2017). On 28th May 2016, the day of UEFA Champions League final (Real Madrid versus Atletico Madrid) the term "football" was mentioned 3.97 million times online. Making it "football's biggest day online during 2016" (Nielsen Sports, 2016, p. 4).

2.1 Magnitude of football's hyper-commodification

Football's hyper-commodification involved (a) greater professionalization of players, (b) global migration of players, (c) corporatisation of clubs, (d) spread of merchandise, (e) rule-changes to draw in new customers, and (f) redefinition of the competitive structures and ethos of sport (A. J. Walsh & Giulianotti, 2001). Noticeable economic phenomena that indicate the hyper-commodification's processes can be distinguished into football's value itself (e.g. market value of top clubs and top players) and economic activities involving football's non-play aspects (e.g. club

[2] "Based on those who participate in sport a least once a week" (Repucom, 2014, p. 7).
[3] In-home and Out-of-home audience reach (watching for at least one minute).

merchandising, television contracts with clubs, and off-field earnings of players; A. J. Walsh & Giulianotti, 2001).

Ensuing, the magnitude of football's hyper-commodification is illustrated. In 2016, the world's most valuable football club was Manchester United FC with an estimated brand value[4] of € 1.077 billion, followed by Real Madrid CF and FC Barcelona with estimated brand values of € 1.077 billion and € 914 million respectively (Brand Finance, 2016). Besides a club's brand value, other statistics like KPMG's (2016) enterprise value[5] proposed greater figures. According to their calculations, the enterprise values of both clubs, Real Madrid CF and Manchester United FC, are close to € 3.0 billion. They are closely followed by FC Barcelona and FC Bayern Munich with € 2.785 and € 2.153 billion respectively (KPMG, 2016).

In season 2015/2016, the revenue from commercial activities[6] accounted for 43% of the overall revenue of Europe's 20 highest earning clubs (Deloitte, 2017). Manchester United FC ranked first regarding the commercial revenue in 2015/2016, with a total of € 363.8 million (Deloitte, 2017). Overall, the revenue evolutions of European top-clubs in last two decades, have been remarkable (cf. Figure I-3).

[4] "Brand Finance calculates the values of the brands in its league tables using the 'Royalty Relief approach'. This approach involves estimating the likely future sales that are attributable to a brand and calculating a royalty rate that would be charged for the use of the brand, i.e. what the owner would have to pay for the use of the brand if it were not already owned" (Brand Finance, 2016, p. 17).

[5] "The enterprise value (EV) of a company is calculated as the sum of the market value of the owners' equity, plus total debt, less cash and cash equivalents. It indicates what the business is worth regardless of the capital structure used to finance its operations" (KPMG, 2016, p. 9).

[6] "Commercial revenue includes sponsorship, merchandising and revenue from other commercial operations" (Deloitte, 2017, p. 41).

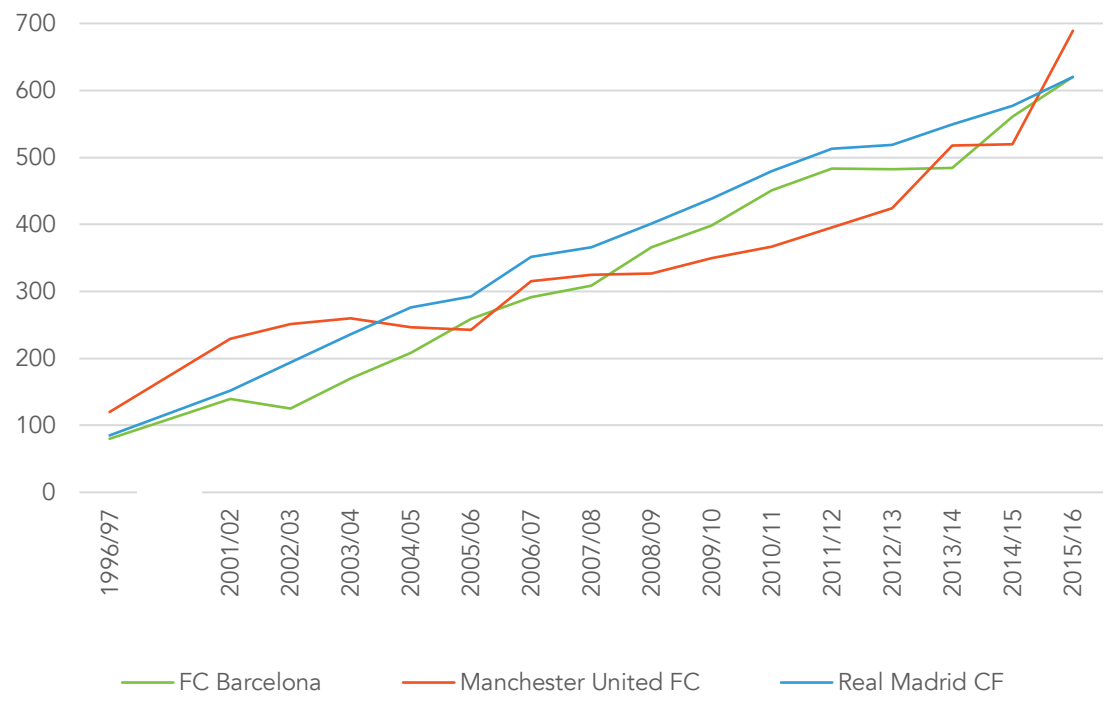

Figure I-3. Revenue evolution of FC Barcelona, Manchester United FC and Real Madrid CF

Note. Revenue in € million (Deloitte, 2017, p. 4).

In national competitions, the revenue from commercial rights[7] generated by UEFA during the EURO 2016 was at € 483.3 million. In comparison, during the EURO 1992, when just eight instead of 24 national associations participated in the tournament, the revenue from commercial rights was at € 9.7 million (UEFA, 2017a). The revenue generated from broadcasting rights is another phenomenon illustrating football's hyper-commodification. This holds for both, the acquisition of broadcasting rights from national football leagues (e.g. Rupert Murdoch's BskyB network and the English Premier League in 1988; Hill, Vincent, & Curtner-Smith, 2014) and the sell-out of broadcasting rights for national team competitions. The revenue from broadcasting rights[8] for the EURO 2016 was at € 1.024 billion, accounting for 53% of the total revenue generated during the EURO 2016 (UEFA, 2017a). Since 1992, the revenue from broadcasting and commercial rights and ticket sales during the European tournament of national teams increased steadily (cf. Figure I-4).

[7] Commercial rights include sponsorship, licensing, and value-in-kind (UEFA, 2017b).

[8] "Broadcasting rights (€1,024.2m) included predominantly sales of media rights and, to a lesser extent, unilateral services to broadcasters" (UEFA, 2017a, p. 23).

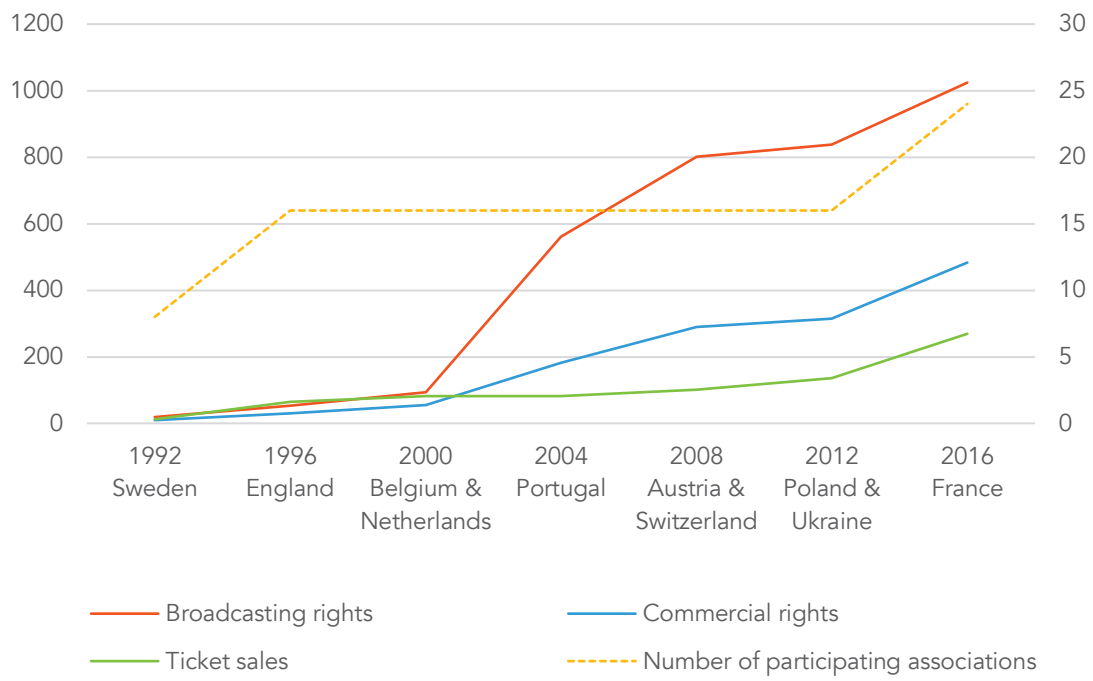

Figure I-4. Revenue evolution of the UEFA EURO

Note. Revenue evolution in EURO in € million (first y-axis) and number of participating associations (secondary y-axis; UEFA, 2017a).

In 2017 the three football players with the highest transfer values[9] were Júnior Neymar (FC Barcelona), Lionel Messi (FC Barcelona), and Paul Pogba (Manchester United FC), with estimated transfer values of € 246.8, € 170.5, and € 155.3 million respectively (CIES Football Observatory, 2017). In the ranking of the 100 most valuable football players, ten players have an estimated value of more than € 100 million (CIES Football Observatory, 2017). It is a different picture for a player's brand value[10] instead of transfer value. Here is was Cristiano Ronaldo (Real Madrid CF) with an estimated brand value of € 17.9 million who ranked first among football players (6th of all sports athlete brands), but far behind the first ranked sports athlete brand; tennis player Roger Federer with an brand value of € 33.9 million (Forbes, 2016). These brand values

[9] "The statistical model through which fair prices are calculated includes multiple variables on player performance (minutes, goal, etc.) and characteristics (age, contract, etc.), as well as data on employer clubs and potential recruiting ones" (CIES Football Observatory, 2017, p. 2).

[10] "Athlete brand values are the amount by which endorsement income exceeds the average endorsement income earned by the top 10 earning athletes in the same sport during the past year"(Forbes, 2016).

of football players might give an idea of the players' off-field earnings. A further indication of the players' off-field earnings give the private sponsorship deals of football players. Although exact numbers on private sponsorship deals between top football players and sport apparel companies are rarely made public, it is estimated that Cristiano Ronaldo's "lifetime deal" with *Nike* is worth around one billion US Dollar (€ 942 million; Forbes, 2017). Measures of social and digital media value for brands state that in 2016 Ronaldo generated € 471 million in media value for *Nike*. His Instagram post after Portugal won the UEFA EURO 2016 in France, received 1.7 million "likes" and 13.000 comments, accumulating to a media value of € 5.5 million for *Nike* (Forbes, 2017). An illustration of how sport apparel companies fight for sponsorship deals is embodied by the statement of Chris Bate, *Under Armour's* Vice President Europe. Asked about the company's plans to strengthen their engagement in Europe via football club and football player sponsorships, he stated: "Market share is borrowed – not owned. And we're happy to steal it at some point" (Bate, 2017).

2.2 Globalisation of football

The commodification and commercialisation of football are inevitably interwoven with football's globalisation process. In addition to the fruitful foundation of football's "unparalleled cross-cultural appeal" (Giulianotti & Robertson, 2004, p. 545), business-like management practices that found their way into football accelerated a globalisation process (A. J. Walsh & Giulianotti, 2001). Thus, globalisation has not been "externally imposed upon the game", it is rather a manifestation of it (Giulianotti & Robertson, 2004, p. 546). In the following, we will illustrate the magnitude of football's globalisation from a non-economical point of view.

In reference to Bale (2003) and his writings on globalising tendencies in sport, Hill et al. (2014) stated six forces that transformed football into the global sport it is today. These six forces are (1) **global media**, (2) **international division of labour**, (3) **international sport organisations**, (4) **international sport management firms**, (5)

promotional strategies of individuals and teams, and (6) **growth of professionalism** (Hill et al., 2014, pp. 16-18). The relatedness of these forces to the processes that involved football's hyper-commodification is undeniable.

Global media has been a critical driver for the globalisation of football. Technologies like satellite transmission made professional football matches accessible to a global audience (Hill et al., 2014). The EURO 2016 was screened by nearly 200 channels in 230 territories worldwide (UEFA, 2017a, p. 23). Today, streaming platforms like *DAZN*[11] and club-owned video platforms like Paris Saint-Germain's *PSGTV*[12], are starting to make football available everywhere and anytime. It is estimated that during the FIFA World Cup 2014, approximately 280 million people viewed matches online or on mobile devices (FIFA, 2015).

The **international division of labour** in football is, for instance, closely connected to the European Union's 1995 "Bosman Ruling" or the "Cotonou Agreement" between the European Union and 79 countries from the African, Caribbean and Pacific Group of States (European Commission, 2000). The Bosman Ruling enabled free transfers of players after their contract had expired, increasing the player mobility within and from outside Europe (Hill et al., 2014). In brief, the Cotonou Agreement has been the foundation to change the European football governing bodies' regulation that prohibited the fielding of more than three non-EU players per match (Reeves, 2007; World Sports Advocate, 2008). Evidence can be found in the percentage of foreign players in the football leagues around the world. In the "big-5" European leagues[13] the percentage of foreign players rose from 18.6% in 1996/1996 to 35.6% in 2000/2001. In December 2015 the percentage of foreign players in these leagues was at 46.7% (CIES Football Observatory, 2016). Overall, the highest percentage of foreign

[11] DAZN is a live sports streaming platform. For a monthly fee, it allows to watch the best European football leagues on computers, tablets, smartphones, and consoles. It is available in Japan, Germany, Austria, and Switzerland.

[12] PSGTV offers video content featuring the football club Paris Saint-Germain. It includes live broadcasts, highlight videos, full match replays, post-match reactions, etc.

[13] The big-5 European leagues are Premier League (England), Ligue 1 (France), Bundesliga (Germany), Serie A (Italy), and La Liga (Spain).

players are in England (66.4%), the lowest percentage have France (33.9%) and Ukraine (20.1%; CIES Football Observatory, 2016). Globally the picture is as follows (cf. Figure I-5). Besides the mobility of players, the global movement of football managers and coaches, as well as club ownership by foreign investors add to the picture of a globalised football industry (Hill et al., 2014).

Figure I-5. Percentage of foreign football players by geographical area

Note. MLS = Major League Soccer and represents teams form the United States and Canada; Data retrieved from (CIES Football Observatory, 2016, p. 2).

Football's **international organisation** is its world governing body FIFA, that continues to contribute to football's globalisation. By hosting the FIFA World Cup not just in football-affine countries (France in 1998, Germany, in 2006, and Brazil in 2014), FIFA promoted football in other regions like the USA in 1994, South Kora and Japan in 2002, and South Africa in 2010 (Hill et al., 2014). In the future "football's premier event" (Hill et al., 2014, p. 17) will be held in Russia in 2018 and Qatar in 2022.

Football's increasing global diffusion and visibility made it a promotional tool used by **international firms** (Hill & Vincent, 2006). Sport equipment companies like *Adidas* and *Nike* are just as present as the global companies from the finance (e.g. MasterCard, VISA), automotive (Hyundai, Kia), fast-food (McDonald's), gaming (Sony PlayStation) or brewing (Anheuser-Busch) industries.

Promotional strategies of individuals and teams are another force behind football's globalisation. "Outstanding individuals and teams promote the game and spread excitement" (Hill et al., 2014, p. 18) and with social media that is faster, more convenient, and receivable globally. Barcelona's Lionel Messi alone has 152 million followers on Instagram and Facebook. His top promoted post in 2016 generated 2.5

million "likes" and 38.000 comments (Forbes, 2017). What David Beckham was in the early 2000s, who "extended his football appeal into fashion and Hollywood to become the archetypal working class metrosexual icon" (Hill et al., 2014, p. 18), is Real Madrid's Cristiano Ronaldo today. He has the globally highest number of Facebook followers (120 million), and all his social media accounts combined count 260 million followers. (Forbes, 2017).

Finally, it was the **growing professionalism** in football that contributed to football's global appeal. Through the decades since the 1870s, professionalism added quality to football by offering incentives for player excellence, that in turn upgraded football to a global spectacle (Hill et al., 2014).

2.3 Omnipresence of football in Europe

European association football is governed by the *Union Européenne de Football Association* (UEFA; Union of European Football Associations). It was founded on 15 June 1954 in Basel, Switzerland and is based today in Nyon, Switzerland. Initially being the governing body of 31 national associations, today UEFA consists of 55 national association members (UEFA, 2017g) and has 946 employees (as at 30 June 2016; UEFA, 2017a). Its latest member is the football federation of Kosovo, which got affiliated with UEFA in 2016 (UEFA, 2017d). UEFA describes itself as the guardian of football in Europe with the objective to:

> [P]romote, protect and nurture the sport at all levels, from the elite and its stars to the millions who play the game as a hobby. (UEFA, 2017h)

In 2014, estimations were that 57% of Europe's population has an interest in football. This was twice as much as in North America and the Caribbean (28%) and 19% less than in Africa (76%; Repucom, 2014). Furthermore, in 2014, participation rates for 11 European countries (including Russia as part of UEFA) lay between 33% and 11% (cf. Figure I-6).

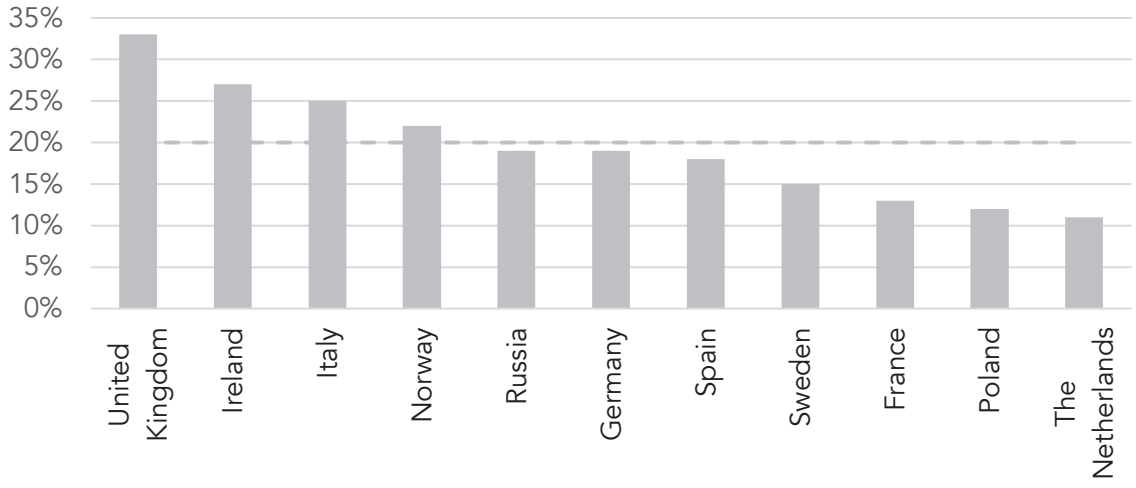

Figure I-6. Participation in football per country

Note. Numbers based on those who participate in sport at least once a week. Table adopted from Repucom (2014, p. 7).

Besides interest and participation in football within Europe, the average live attendance of football matches adds another facet to the characterisation of Europe's footballing landscape. The worldwide top 10 football events according to the highest average live attendance are dominated by European events (cf. Table I-1, highlighted in grey).

Table I-1

The top 10 worldwide events by average attendance

League/event	Competition type (Year)	Area (Country)	Average attendance
FIFA World Cup	Tournament (2014)	South America (Brazil)	53.592
UEFA EURO 2012 finals	Tournament (2012)	Europe (Ukraine/Poland)	46.481
Bundesliga	League (2015/16)	Europe (Germany)	43.300
CONCACAF Gold Cup	Tournament (2015)	North America (US/Canada)	41.938
UEFA CL	Tournament (2015/16)	Europe (various)	40.997
Premier League	League (2015/16)	Europe (England)	36.461
La Liga	League (2015/16)	Europe (Spain)	28.568
Indian Super League	League (2015)	Asia (India)	26.376
Liga MX	League (2015/16)	South America (Mexico)	26.263
FIFA Women's World Cup	Tournament (2015)	North America (Canada)	26.029

Note. UEFA CL = UEFA Champions League. Table adopted from UEFA (2017c, p. 41).

2.3.1 Football in Europe on club-level

Despite the intra-European competitions (the best European clubs compete against each other; e.g. UEFA Champions League, Europa League, or Super Cup), the European clubs participate in domestic competitions (leagues and league cups). The domestic leagues are governed by the country's football governing body or affiliated organisations.

Every UEFA member, except Liechtenstein, has its league in which between six (e.g. Armenian Premier League) and twenty clubs (e.g. French Ligue 1) compete. Football clubs from Liechtenstein compete in the Swiss pyramid. In season 2016/2017, 711 clubs played in the 54 premier divisions (aggregate by authours, association specific details retrieved from UEFA, 2017e). Additionally, the national football governing bodies stage a league cup and 48 out of the 55 associations have an affiliated Futsal[14] league (aggregate by authours, association specific details retrieved from UEFA, 2017e).

In women's football, the league system is a little smaller. In total, 48 out of the total 55 European football associations have a first division football league. In the women's first division football leagues compete between six (e.g. Faroese Women's First Division) and sixteen clubs (e.g. Spanish Women's Primera División). In season 2014/2015[15], 446 clubs played in 48 premier divisions (aggregate by authours, association specific details retrieved from UEFA, 2017e).

2.3.2 Football in Europe on national-level

In 2012, around 299 million people worldwide watched the UEFA EURO final Spain-Italy. It is estimated that 2016's final in Paris, France (France-Portugal) will surpass this number (Broadband TV News, 2016). The European champions 2012 (Spain) received € 23 million, and the winner of the EURO 2016 (Portugal) received € 25.5 million for their victory (UEFA, 2017a). The EURO 2020 will be a trans-European,

[14] Latest update on Futsal leagues dates back to 04.11.2014 (UEFA, 2017e).
[15] Information on Cypriot Women's First Division and Greek Women's First League date back to season 2013/14. The Dutch and Belgian women's first division had a joint league till 2015.

with matches played in 13 countries[16]. The final and semi-finals will be held in Wembley Stadium in London, England (UEFA, 2016).

Every national football association in UEFA has a male senior national team, often referred to as "national team". Besides a senior team, most associations have a U17, U19, and U21 team (except Kosovo: no U17, 19, 21 and Gibraltar: no U21.) Moreover, 48 of all 55 associations have a Futsal national team (aggregate by authours, association specific details retrieved from UEFA, 2017f). National female teams are subdivided in senior, WU17, and WU19. From all 55 associations, 48 have a senior, 46 a WU17, and 48 a WU19 national team (aggregate by authours, association specific details retrieved from UEFA, 2017f).

[16] Azerbaijan, Belgium, Denmark, England, Germany, Hungary, Republic of Ireland, Italy, Netherlands, Romania, Russia, Scotland, and Spain (UEFA, 2016).

3 CHALLENGES OF THE FOOTBALL INDUSTRY

The football industry's globalisation and hyper-commodification include diverse challenges that threaten the goals of profit- and performance-oriented sport organisations: profit maximisation and prestige (i.e. top performance and large following). Ensuing, we elaborate on five challenges that have been identified by sport marketing scholars. We believe these are not unique to football on club-level as they are also "fully applicable and potentially amplified in the context of National Football Associations due to the importance of national identity" (Bodet, 2013, p. 7). Overall, the common theme of these challenges is that they all might lead to declining spectator figures, an outcome directly connected to low profitability and loss of prestige.

3.1 Plethora of entertainment alternatives

For football managers, it is necessary to compete for consumers within several markets to allay the industry's hunger for pay-TV viewers and sold-out stadiums. These several markets are: the professional football market, the professional sports market, and the recreation and entertainment market (Bodet, 2009a; Euchner, 1994; Mason, 1999). This is by no means unique for the marketing of football but represents very well a challenge. Hence, we recognise the great diversity of possibilities to spend one's recreational time as a challenge for the football industry. This can be professional football leagues and clubs (e.g. the globalisation of the Spanish El Clásico[17]), other sport leagues that vary according to countries (e.g. the French rugby top 14, NBA[18]/NFL[19] in London), as well as non-sportive entertainment and recreational

[17] The classic match between FC Barcelona and Real Madrid CF is staged on 29 July 2017 in Miami, Florida during Barcelona's pre-season preparations in the United States (Barcelona, 2017).
[18] The National Basketball Association (NBA) stages matches outside of the US and Canada to provide fans with an "authentic NBA experience" (NBA, 2013, 2015).
[19] The National Football Association (NFL) has staged 23 international series matches in Wembley, London (as at May 2017; "List of National Football League games played outside the United States," 2017) and singed a ten-year partnership with Tottenham Hotspur to play at least two matches per year in their new Stadium in London (NFL, 2015).

activities (Bodet, Kenyon, & Ferrand, 2015). In this context, a distinction should be made between televised consumption and match attendance.

Live, televised consumption of football at home is usually[20] linked to a subscription to a broadcaster that has bought the rights to air the matches (e.g. Sky, BT Sport, beIN Sports). Buying a subscription to a broadcaster is an investment that the fans, who are calculative in their support, might not be ready to make, i.e. the costs outweigh the benefits/interest. Hence, spending their disposable income on other activities and services.

Attending a football match inevitably means entering a "cathedral of consumption": the athletic stadium (Ritzer, 2010, p. 7). For many, attending a match might be just one option in the plethora of cathedrals of consumption that offer entertainment (e.g. amusement parks). Moreover, families might prefer a more regulated and saver entertainment environment, where "'undesirables'" are kept out (Ritzer, 2010, p. 3). Furthermore, and leading over to the next challenge, for an annual stadium visit other sports might be more appealing since they put on a better show or are perceived to offer a better value for money (Bodet, 2009a; Chanavat & Bodet, 2014).

3.2 Demand for enchanted experiences despite growing rationalisation

Football clubs and their home grounds are often marketed as enchanted and sacred. To promote this image, clubs' original mystic and magic have been systematised, ready to be recreated and deployed efficiently. However, as functional as this may be, systematising enchantment – rationalising it – slowly but steadily eliminates it (Ritzer, 2010). Firstly, constant recreation is counterproductive, since "enchantment tends to be something that declines over time for consumers as the novelty wears off" (Ritzer, 2010, p. 8). Secondly, a systematically enchanted experience comes with an artificial flavour. Nonetheless, clubs are in a dilemma to radiate enchantment constantly to lure consumers. Therefore, we argue the football industry

[20] Matches of national teams must be free-to-air by law, since they are considered events of national interest (cf. for the UK: Ofcom, 1996).

is challenged to maintain enchantment despite increasing rationalisation exemplified through McDonaldization and Disneyization (Bodet, 2016).

A magazine article about the German national football team summarises the challenge's topicality and the issue with over-engineered enchantment: "For the fan, the stadium's visit is staged as a thoroughly styled experience. Including precise instructions how one should act during the pre-match choreography. The German national football association breeds its own Event-Fans" (Linner, 2016).

3.3 Negative customer attitudes due to wilful misconduct

Frequently football governing bodies, clubs, or players are accused or convicted of (wilful) misconduct. For instance, bribery/corruption (BBC Sport, 2017a), domestic violence (R. Sanchez, 2014), doping (BBC Sport, 2017b), misappropriation of funds (News.com.au Football, 2017), modern slavery (Rafizadeh, 2017), racism (BBC Sport, 2011), soliciting sex from under-age prostitute (Audi, 2010), and tax fraud (Wood, 2017). For certain segments of fans and spectators, this wrongdoing (i.e. unethical and illegal conduct) might affect their identification and attachment towards team (Huiszoon et al., 2018) or the sport itself. Therefore, besides the mission to tackle the issues and enhance transparency, it is a constant challenge to control the uncontrollable actions of individuals or groups of individuals and rebuild or maintain the fans' identification and attachment.

3.4 Absence of high media exposure or sporting success

The FIFA World Cup and the UEFA EURO are the two most important tournaments for European national football teams. For participating national football associations, it can be a catalyst for an increase in audience numbers and merchandise sales (UEFA, 2017a).

In the history of both tournaments, the number of participating countries have been extended and have been[21] or will be increased further[22]. Nevertheless, some countries never made it to the final round, i.e. just played qualifying matches (e.g. Malta). Hence, there are national teams that never or rarely have the chance to play on the world or European stage. In this sense, it is a competitive challenge for non- or rarely-participating countries to market their national team under these more difficult conditions (absence of high media exposure and/or sporting success).

National teams that participated in a FIFA World Cup and a UEFA EURO are facing a challenge afterwards. Namely, how to turn a biennial marketing-boost into long-term growth. More specifically, the challenge is to convert "Big Eventers" (Repucom, 2014, p. 5; individuals that follow their national team during FIFA World Cup and/or UEFA EURO only) to become more regular consumers.

The two years between the tournaments are filled with opportunities to engage with the national team (e.g. charity, friendly, and qualifying matches). However, even successful teams are struggling to fill stadiums. In this context, Reinhard Grindel, president of the German national football association, announced that: "In the future, we want to stage our international fixtures in regions in which we have not been since a long time. Thus, we are planning to come off the condition that a stadium must have a capacity of at least 40.000" (Boßmann, 2017).

[21] As from the UEFA EURO 2016 (France), 24 instead of 16 UEFA national teams compete in UEFA EURO's final round (UEFA, 2008).

[22] Since the FIFA World Cup in 1998 (France) a total of 32 national teams (13-15 UEFA national teams) compete in the final round (Chandler, 2017). Starting from 2026 (host country/ies to be announced), 48 national teams (16 direct slots for UEFA national teams) will compete in FIFA World Cup's final round (FIFA, 2017a, 2017b).

3.5 Complex relational expectations of customers

High media exposure and/or sporting success might facilitate (relationship) marketing, however, an absence of these facilitators should not prevent teams and associations to connect with fans proactively. It is a challenge for teams and associations to keep a constant dialogue with their fans and provide them with relevant information, even if the team is not playing. Research emphasised the complexity of relational expectations in sport consumption (Bodet et al., 2017).

Section Two – The demand side

Section Two focuses on the consumption of sport in postmodernity and the diversity of consumers. With a short introduction to postmodern social theory, we link the five primary traits of postmodern culture – hyperreality, fragmentation, decentralisation of the subject, the juxtaposition of opposites, and the reversal of production and consumption – to sport consumption. We further explore postmodernity's power to reenchant rationalised (i.e. McDonaldized, Disneyfied) sport consumption spheres and satisfy the fragmented, enjoyment- and experience-seeking consumer. Ensuing, we review experiences as an economic offer to the postmodern sport spectator and how simulations, rationalised and pre-packaged experiences jeopardise enchantment. In closing, we examine the diversity of sport consumers in general and present typologies of sport and football spectators.

1 SPORT CONSUMPTION BEHAVIOUR IN POSTMODERNITY

Our approach to contemporary sport consumption behaviour rests on postmodern social theory. It is a theory that includes philosophical and sociocultural ideas and a set of non-universalistic worldviews, that aid interpreting contemporary, sometimes irrational and contradicting, consumer behaviours (Firat & Venkatesh, 1995).

Elusive, incoherent and highly diverse consumer behaviours are particularly pronounced in the sport industry (Bodet, 2009b). How, when, where, and why sport is consumed has changed, as well as the nature of relationships consumers have – want to have – with sport organisations (Bodet et al., 2017; Harris & Ogbonna, 2008; Horne, 2006; Sewart, 1987; A. J. Walsh & Giulianotti, 2001). To contextualise the altered/diversified attitudes, behaviours, and relationships, which do not seem to follow any inherent logic, we use postmodern social theory.

1.1 Postmodern social theory

The term postmodernity refers to a time period. Whereas postmodernism, as a philosophical direction, deals with the cultural conditions and sociocultural ideas linked to that period (Firat & Venkatesh, 1995). To bring the time span into context, postmodernity is often discussed in relation to its predecessor; modernity. In reference to Borgmann (1993), Firat and Venkatesh (1995) advanced that modernity spans from late sixteenth century or early seventeenth century up to the present, while postmodernity overlaps with late modernity.

In simplified terms, postmodern society has moved beyond the modern world into a socially and culturally different, postmodern world (Ritzer, 2010). The postmodern era indicates "a break or rupture with modern conditions" (Smart, 1993, p. 23). This shift from modernity to postmodernity centres around society's transition from rationality to nonrationality and from production to consumption (Ritzer, 2010).

To put it in metaphoric dichotomy: a progression from Apollo to Dionysus (Bodet, 2009b). Or as other scholars put it:

> Postmodern social theory rejects the idea of the centrality of rationality and is associated more with ideas of nonrationality or even irrationality. (Ritzer, 2010, p. 68)

> We learn again to respect ambiguity, to feel regard for human emotions, appreciate actions without purpose and calculable rewards. (Bauman, 1993, p. 33, cited in Ritzer, 2010, p. 69)

> Instead of universalism in thought and practice, it [postmodernism] offers localism and particularism. Instead of subject-centred reason, it offers subject-centred experiences. (Firat & Venkatesh, 1995, p. 244)

Overall, postmodernism and its comprising themes offer not less than "alternative visions of the world", whereby it is not a complete break with modernism but yet "a radical extension and maturing of it" (Firat & Venkatesh, 1995, p. 244).

1.1.1 Sport consumption and the five basic traits of postmodern culture

Ensuing, we outline five characteristics of postmodern culture. Therefore, we draw heavily on five postmodern conditions and their main themes advanced by Firat (1991) and Firat and Venkatesh (1995). Following Bodet (2009b), we apply the five traits to sport.

1.1.1.1 Hyperreality

In postmodernism, the concept of hyperreality (Baudrillard, 1983; Eco, 1986) is used to label the omnipresence of a constructed social reality. An essential element of a constructed social reality are simulations that are considered as real by "communities of believers" (Firat, 1991; Firat & Venkatesh, 1995). A simulation involves the endless reconfiguration of significations, meaning the continual replacement of one signifier for another (Derrida, 1970 cited in Bodet, 2009b, and Firat & Venkatesh, 1995). In other words, if an 'original' – already constructed – meaning of a signifier is no longer

perceived suitable, it can be changed, creating a new reality (Bodet, 2009b). Doing so is possible because the signification, meaning the relationship between the signifier and the signified, is arbitrary (Chandler, 2017; Firat, 1991, in reference to F. de Saussure). That implies one can link any meaning to anything.

Overall, postmodernism regards reality as subjective. It is not naturally given — it is socially constructed. That is to say, reality resides in a purely symbolic world and is often manipulated for aesthetic or commercial purposes (Firat & Venkatesh, 1995). Examples are the Disneyization of society and especially its theming dimension (cf. Bryman, 2014). Or the marketing of toothpaste with symbolic meanings such as sexiness, beauty, happiness, and attractiveness, instead of being a paste cleansing teeth (Firat, 1991). Similarly, professional sport competitions are often exaggerated to something "larger than life" or trigger an affective intensity that is utterly disproportionate to its actual cause[23]. Or as Bill Shankly, famous coach of Liverpool football club, put it: "Some people believe football is a matter of life and death, I am very disappointed with that attitude. I can assure you it is much, much more important than that" (Daily Mail, 2009).

1.1.1.2 Fragmentation

The postmodern condition of fragmentation describes a shift from a unified subject to a fragmented subject. More specifically, the subject is liberated from committing to rational and internally consistent forms of being, experiencing, and consuming. Moments, experiences, thrills can be enjoyed without having a purpose and being part of an overreaching narrative. Thus, fragmentation leads to the end of metanarratives (Firat & Venkatesh, 1995).

[23] The "realness" of Hyperreality might be explained as follows. Maaz (2017) suggests that intense emotional outbursts are a consequence of the trained suppression of emotions combined with the socially accepted emotion control in everyday life. "We use music, films, books, cultural events, sport and news to find opportunities for emotional stimulation, onto which we can saddle our hidden and pent-up feelings" (p. 214). Since, overall: "Football is football – just a game, it's not really about something that could affect the viewer's own life, unlike players, trainers and the entire business crowd, who can earn money with it and stabilise themselves narcissistically" (Maaz, 2017, p. 215).

Consequently, a sport consumer might be an emotionally involved spectator *and* demanding customer or switch arbitrarily and erratically between hybrid forms of those roles. They have stopped to accept the notion that "fans should not seek anything more than participation in a symbolic sense" (Guschwan, 2012, p. 34). For example, by demanding authentic, traditional experiences on gentrified and digitally networked premises. Or fan communities going beyond supportive behaviours, promoting themselves and capitalising on their image as die-hard, authentic supporters (e.g. selling their own merchandise; Guschwan, 2012).

1.1.1.3 Decentralisation of the subject

The idea of the subject is at the centre of postmodern thinking; however, a subject's privileged position is questioned. This postmodern condition has been labelled as the decentralisation of subjects (Firat, 1991; Firat & Venkatesh, 1995). In reference to Foucault, researchers have stated that the subject "is very much a product and part of the discourses and practices in which s/he is embedded" – embedded, *not* centred (Firat & Venkatesh, 1995, p. 254). In more explicit words:

> The subject is just another modernist narrative, just another story constructed and then committed to. In postmodernism, the individual is freed from having to be, have, or seek a center, freed from another commitment imposed by modernist metanarratives. (Firat & Venkatesh, 1995, p. 254)

Conversely, this decentralisation of the subject means that the subject has been decentred from its position of control over objects. Now, products "determine the process and procedures of consumption activity, with consumers merely following product instructions" (Firat & Venkatesh, 1995, p. 254). Following processes and procedures can be described as "seductive controlling techniques" instead of "overt coercion" (Ritzer, 2010, p. 52). Consequently, the subject is being controlled as an object in the consumption process (Bodet, 2009b; Firat, 1991; Firat & Venkatesh, 1995).

Through seductive relationship building efforts, sport organisations strategically nurture and control fan communities, turning them into marketing assets (Guschwan, 2012). Here, a controlling technique is a mantra-like repetition of the statement "the club is more than just a brand"; Gladly used if fans question a sport organisation's authenticity or express their alienation (A. J. Walsh & Giulianotti, 2001). Furthermore, sport organisations use "exclusive" media content to lure individuals into virtual fan communities. Once the individual is imbedded in the network, the sport organisations may monitor and manage their interactivity and consumption.

1.1.1.4 Juxtaposition of opposites

The juxtaposition of opposites is a dominant element of postmodern culture (Firat, 1991). For consumption this means that paradoxes and differences can coexist, highlighting the fragmented subject (cf. above: the emotionally involved spectator and demanding customer; Firat & Venkatesh, 1995). In this vein, it has been suggested to recognise sport spectators as fans but to provide them with all the benefits of being a customer and fan (Adamson et al., 2006). The juxtaposition opposites within the postmodern consumer's mindset and behaviours has been depicted as follows:

> Postmodern consumers appear to be simultaneously hedonist and eclectic, proactively focused and restlessly volatile, amoral operators and concerned citizens, increasingly unpredictable chameleons who are also increasingly demanding in their consumption patterns. (Bodet, 2009, p. 227 in reference to Dubois, 1996)

1.1.1.5 The reversal of production and consumption

The reversal of production and consumption is a postmodern condition which should be emphasised (Bodet, 2009b). It means that while modernism represented a culture of production, postmodernism is a culture of consumption. It is the "abandonment of the notion that production creates value while consumption destroys it" (Firat & Venkatesh, 1995, p. 252). The implication of this reversal is, that consumption is not the end of a process called production. Rather through

consumption, consumers become active producers of symbols and signs, transforming production into a continual process (Firat, 1991; Firat & Venkatesh, 1995). In other words:

> It [consumption] is not a personal, private act of destruction by the consumer, but very much a social act where symbolic meanings, social codes, and relationships are produced and reproduced. (…) consumption has become the means of self-realization, self-identification; a means of *producing* one's self and self-image. (Firat, 1991, p. 72, emphasis in original)

This means postmodern consumers, as collective, are producers/ co-creators of a product's image and a service's symbolic meaning. Yet, beyond that, each consumption instance may be used to create a different image of *oneself*. That is to say; the postmodern consumer defines oneself contextually through consumption (Firat, 1991). Sport stadia, for example, are being transformed into social media stadia[24] to empower visitors to engage in social media actions on matchdays (Kopera, 2016). While this can be beneficial for sport organisations, it also serves the sport consumers' (unconscious) desire to produce themselves and their self-image by sharing their consumption experience online, i.e. exercising "reputational labour" (Dumont, 2017).

1.1.2 The consumption of signs

Closely linked to the reversal of production and consumption, is the notion of the *consumption of signs* (Baudrillard, 1970/2017). In the postmodernist's view, individuals do not consume products, services, experiences (i.e. objects) as such. These

[24] A social media friendly stadium goes beyond offering free WiFi. For example, Manchester City football club encourages spectators to tweet using a certain hashtag (#), so that their Tweet might be featured on TV screens throughout the stadium (S. Walsh, 2012). Some premises are specially designed to be "Instgrammable" (Restaurant owner M. Markoe cited in Newton, 2017), meaning they have features that encourage visitors to take pictures and post them on the social network site Instagram. In other words, physical spaces are designed "in the hopes of inspiring the maximum number of photos. They're commissioning neon signs bearing modestly sly double entendres, painting elaborate murals of tropical wildlife, and embedding floor tiles with branded greetings — all in the hopes that their guests will post them" (Newton, 2017).

are merely carriers of meaning; signifiers that represent concepts (the signified). Ultimately, individuals consume whatever an object stands for. They consume a *sign*, that is "the articulation of a signifier and a signified" (Baudrillard, 1970/2017, p. 143). In other words, consumer objects act as an intermediary for the consumption of signs that again are means to find, assert, and manifest one's place and status in society.

Referring back to the reversal of production and consumption, consumption is not oriented towards objects and enjoyment [*jouissance*] to create an experience for oneself that is "something autonomous and final" (Baudrillard, 1970/2017, p. 96). Consuming objects and enjoyment, i.e. the consumption of their signification, has an elevated function, namely the *production* of a social code of values in relationship with others and society (Baudrillard, 1970/2017).

1.1.3 Reenchantment and spectacles in consumption spheres

What postmodernism suggests is the creation of a philosophical and cultural space that is human and sensible (Firat & Venkatesh, 1995) and above all, a space that holds the possibility of the world's reenchantment (Ritzer, 2010). In other words, after the "protracted and earnest, though in the end inconclusive, modern struggle to disenchant it [the world]" (Bauman, 1993, p. 33, cited in Ritzer, 2010, p. 69), it is the postmodernist's purpose to recover enchantment in life (Firat & Venkatesh, 1995). Accordingly, this aspiration suits the description of the postmodern society, being characterised by "emotions, feelings, intuition, reflection, speculation, personal experience, custom, violence, metaphysics, tradition, cosmology, magic, myth, religious sentiment, and mystical experience" (P. M. Rosenau, 1992, p. 6, cited in Ritzer, 2010, p. 68).

In this vein, the consumers' craving for hedonistic, fun, natural, and unconstrained practices, experiences, and enjoyment, has been understood (Bodet, 2009b). However, consumer's craving for enjoyment and the like is not met with provision of authentic, real experiences. In the logic of the market, *spectacles* are *produced.* A spectacle is a "dramatic public display" (Ritzer, 2010, p. 96) and a mere "inverted representation of [real experience] itself" (Firat & Venkatesh, 1995, p. 251, in

reference to Debord, 1967/2014). Also, spectacles are not produced as an end in itself. Mainly they have two functions: Firstly, attract customers, sell more goods and services to them and secondly, conceal the rationalised nature of the consumption spaces that, paradoxically, led to disenchantment in the first place (Ritzer, 2010).

In a nutshell, the postmodern social theory involves the idea and chance to reenchant a rationalised, disenchanted world (Ritzer, 2011). Yet, spectacles, i.e. staged and orchestrated public displays, are produced for purposes other than to bring enchantment into the world, they are a mere mean to a financial end. One might argue, the consumer is tricked twice. His/her longing for hedonic experiences and enjoyment is met (i.e. exploited) with carefully designed spectacles, only to mask the radically rationalised system that paves the way for spectacle's actual function; increasing sales.

1.1.4 Hyperreality, spectacles and simulations

Looking at spectacles in the broader context of postmodern social theory, we argue that spectacles represent a specific form of hyperreality (cf. Figure I-7). While hyperreality refers to the contemporary life in general, spectacles are created within hyperreality mostly in the domain of (experiential) consumption. Ergo, just as simulations[25] are the building blocks of hyperreality, specific simulations are manufactured with the sole objective to create spectacles (i.e. spectacular, supposedly reenchanting, consumption worlds; Ritzer, 2010).

Summarising, within hyperreality, it has become increasingly challenging for humans to distinguish between the real and the fake, the pure existence and the simulation (i.e. the copy, imitation, stereotype; Baudrillard, 1970/2017). Whether it is a specific commodity (kitsch, pseudo-object; Baudrillard, 1970/2017), an environment

[25] „The concept of simulation makes sense when one looks at it in light of Baudrillard's thinking on symbolic exchange and the privileging of primitive society. For example, in primitive society nature is seen as an original and specific presence, which stands in contrast to culture. However, in the modern world nature tended to be reduced to something carefully groomed, managed, policed and tailored to the needs of humans. Nature in this form is a simulation of what it is in primitive society. It has become a sham; simulations can be defined as 'sham objects' and it is such objects that define our consumer society. They are objects that offer an abundance of sings that they are real, but in fact they are not." (Paragraph from George Ritzer's introduction to the first edition of Jean Baudrillard's 'The Consumer Society'; Baudrillard, 1970/2017, p. 27)

(simulated communities; Ritzer, 2010), or a human behaviour (simulated people; Ritzer, 2010), simulations are ever-present. Hence, to respond to these simulations critically and nuanced is difficult, as they are part of the individual's social reality. In addition, it is even more demanding to debunk the plurality of instances in which single simulations or perfectly blended and harmonised simulations (i.e. spectacles) are used to conceal rationalised consumption spheres with the sole purpose to sell commodities. Debunking these instances is yet again even further complicated as soon as emotions[26] are involved since they influence information processing and mediate reactions to persuasive appeals (Bagozzi et al., 1999).

Ultimately, sport organisations have the potential to satisfy postmodern sport consumers and enchant their world (Bodet, 2009b; Mignon & Truchot, 2002). Nonetheless, sport spectator services are permeated by simulations, jeopardising this potential in favour of revenue. Two prominent cases, characterised by a "dearth of real signification" (Baudrillard, 1970/2017, p. 129) are the spectacle before/during/after matches and competitions, and the relationship between sport organisations and spectators (cf. 1.2 Relationship marketing in sport).

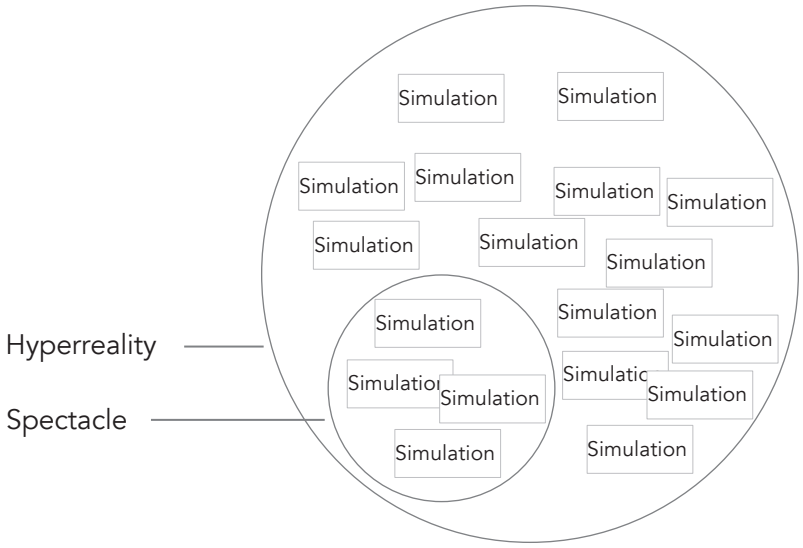

Figure I-7. Visualisation of the relationship between hyperreality, spectacle, and simulations

[26] Emotions have been defined as "mental states of readiness that arise from appraisals of events or one's own thoughts" (Bagozzi, Gopinath, & Nyer, 1999, p. 184).

1.2 Redefinition of sport consumption in postmodern society

Above, we briefly introduced postmodern social theory, including the fragmented, enjoyment- and experience-seeking consumer. Particularly, we emphasised the production of social codes of values and the self through the consumption of signs. In reference to Baudrillard (1970/2017) and Ritzer (2010), we presented our view on the relationship between hyperreality, spectacles, and simulations. In the following, we discuss a holistic view of the postmodern sport spectator and conclude with the marketing of experiences.

1.2.1 The chameleon consumer

In his writings on sport participation and postmodernism, Bodet (2009b) emphasised the consumers' "increasing aspiration for hedonistic, fun, natural, plural, self-determined, and unconstrained practices" (p. 227). Similarly, it has been found that the first and foremost reason for an individual to engage in sport practice is joy and fun (Seippel, 2006). The meaning of exercising a sport has gone beyond being a champion, performance and competition[27], it is about having fun[28] (Bodet, 2009b; Mignon & Truchot, 2002).

Following Bodet (2009b), we characterise consumers of sport spectator services as "chameleon consumers" (p. 236; see also Dubois, 1996). To further elaborate this,

[27] An opposite trend might be CrossFit (13.000 affiliates worldwide; CrossFit, 2017). Even though this fitness franchise is built on a fitness community that promotes the battle against exercising "together alone" (Ernst & Pigeassou, 2005), it relies on performative regulation and mutual surveillance (Dawson, 2017). Official rankings of one's performance in relation to others in the CrossFit community, is conflicting the idea of the postmodern sport consumers, who are said to be no longer interested in "measuring themselves by others in the same discipline" (Bodet, 2009b, p. 228, in reference to Mignon & Truchot, 2002).

[28] Fromm (1976/1996) offered a different perspective on sport consumption. He argued that much of spectator sport's popularity resides in the possibility of prevailing over an opponent, reflecting the elevated status of winning to humans. Fromm (1976/1996) emphasised, that the desire for conquering and being victorious is deeply rooted in the social character. As an example, he referred to the nationalism with which many follow the Olympic Games, which allegedly serve the matter of peace. To him, the Olympic Games have become the celebration of "the winner, the strongest, the most self-assertive, while overlooking the dirty mixture of business and publicity that characterizes the contemporary imitation [one might also call it simulation] of the Greek Olympic Games" (Fromm, 1976/1996, p. 143).

we adopt Baudrillard's (1970/2017) take on the consumer. In his logic, consumption of a certain sport is guided by the implication this consumption instance has for an individual's self-image and status in society (cf. 1.1.2 The consumption of signs). However, the consumption of a certain sport does not satisfy the need for difference[29], i.e. "*the desire for the* social *meaning*", anymore (Baudrillard, 1970/2017, p. 95, emphasis in original). This is because (sport) consumption underwent a "relative homogenization" and became "less and less expressive of social rank" (Baudrillard, 1970/2017, p. 76). Therefore, the determination and expression of social hierarchy through sport spectatorship has been transferred elsewhere: to the manner of consuming, meaning *how* the sport is consumed[30] (Baudrillard, 1970/2017). This is in line with the postmodern individual being unchained from committing to rational and internally consistent forms of being, experiencing, and consuming, which – ultimately – intensifies the postmodern sport spectator's elusiveness.

Conclusively, the chameleon-like being is the manifestation of an abundance and contrariness of behaviours, wants and expectations (Bodet, 2009b). She/he is emancipated from the hegemony of purpose, metanarrative, and self-justification. She/he enjoys experiences, thrills while connecting and disconnecting autonomously with consumption practices and communities to create/refine/widen/change/reinforce the self-image and exhibit/manifest social status. When it comes to unsatisfying service value and service delivery, she/he is willing to speak up as a customer, yet unwilling, sometimes unable[31], to strip off completely the stubborn illusion of the spectator who is an integral part of the spectacle.

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[29] Overall, Baudrillard (1970/2017) questions if there can ever be a satisfaction of needs, "if one admits that need is never so much the need for a particular object as the 'need' for difference (*the desire for the* social *meaning*), then it will be clear that there can never be any *achieved* satisfaction, or therefore any *definition* of need" (p. 95, emphasis in original).

[30] Bodet (2009b) concluded his writings on sport participation in postmodernism similarly since he stated, "leisure consumers no longer seem to associate the cultural and economic capital defining particular social positions to specific sports, but rather to specific patterns of consumption, with different patterns of consumption being evident within individual sports" (p. 236).

[31] We use the word "unable" here, as many consumers are unable to unravel the consumption object, in this case, the sport spectacle with its actors, into its functional, legitimate and rational use. They are "condemned to a magical economy, to the valorization of objects as such" and "*this fetishistic logic is, strictly, the ideology of consumption*" (Baudrillard, 1970/2017, p. 79, emphasis in original).

After all, we conclude, the enjoyment and enchantment seeking postmodern sport spectator replaced the classical view of the emotionally involved, local, "home-grown" fan (cf. Chapter I, 1.2 Bygone times, sport's ethos and social meaning). Profit-oriented sport clubs have drawn a new kind of spectators into stadia, in front of TVs/Apps, and into merchandise stores. More specifically, soliciting more consumers and sport's transformation to an entertainment industry, have brought in the chameleon consumers that redefined the "principles of support for a club" (A. J. Walsh & Giulianotti, 2001, p. 59).

1.2.2 Experiences as an economic offer to the postmodern sport spectator

We have argued, that in case of spectator sports the core service one purchases is a nonphysical act to one's mind (cf. 1.3.2.3 Sport spectator service; Lovelock, 1983; Lovelock & Gummesson, 2004). This means that the physical observed represents merely the service's conditional preparatory dimension. The service itself arises in the mind of the spectator and is inherently personal. Meaning, the service is whatever the spectator derives from the physical observed (Horne, 2006; Koppett, 1994). In a very similar way, Pine and Gilmore (1998) defined experiences, namely, as "inherently personal, existing only in the mind of an individual" and deriving from "the interaction between the staged event (like a theatrical play) and the individual's state of mind" (Pine & Gilmore, 1998, p. 99). The definitions' similarity comes about because they refer to an identical underlying philosophy. They portray the process in which "reality presents itself to consciousness" (Bruner, 1986, p. 6). That is to say, what they describe is the act of experiencing life.

Although the two definitions are analogous, in marketing a service and an experience are defined as two distinct economic offerings (Pine & Gilmore, 1998). In marketing's logic, what distinguishes a service and an experience into different economic offerings is how the offering is "received by consciousness" (Bruner, 1986, p. 4). This might become clearer if one appreciates that, in a way, marketing literature hijacked the concept of experience. Ever since it interprets an experience as a commodity whose result "may (must?) be something extremely significant and

unforgettable for the consumer immersed into the experience" (Carù & Cova, 2003, p. 273). That is to say, in marketing, the concept of experience has been replaced "with that of 'extraordinary experience'" (Carù & Cova, 2003, p. 275). In Figure I-8, we illustrate experience degrees along a continuum.

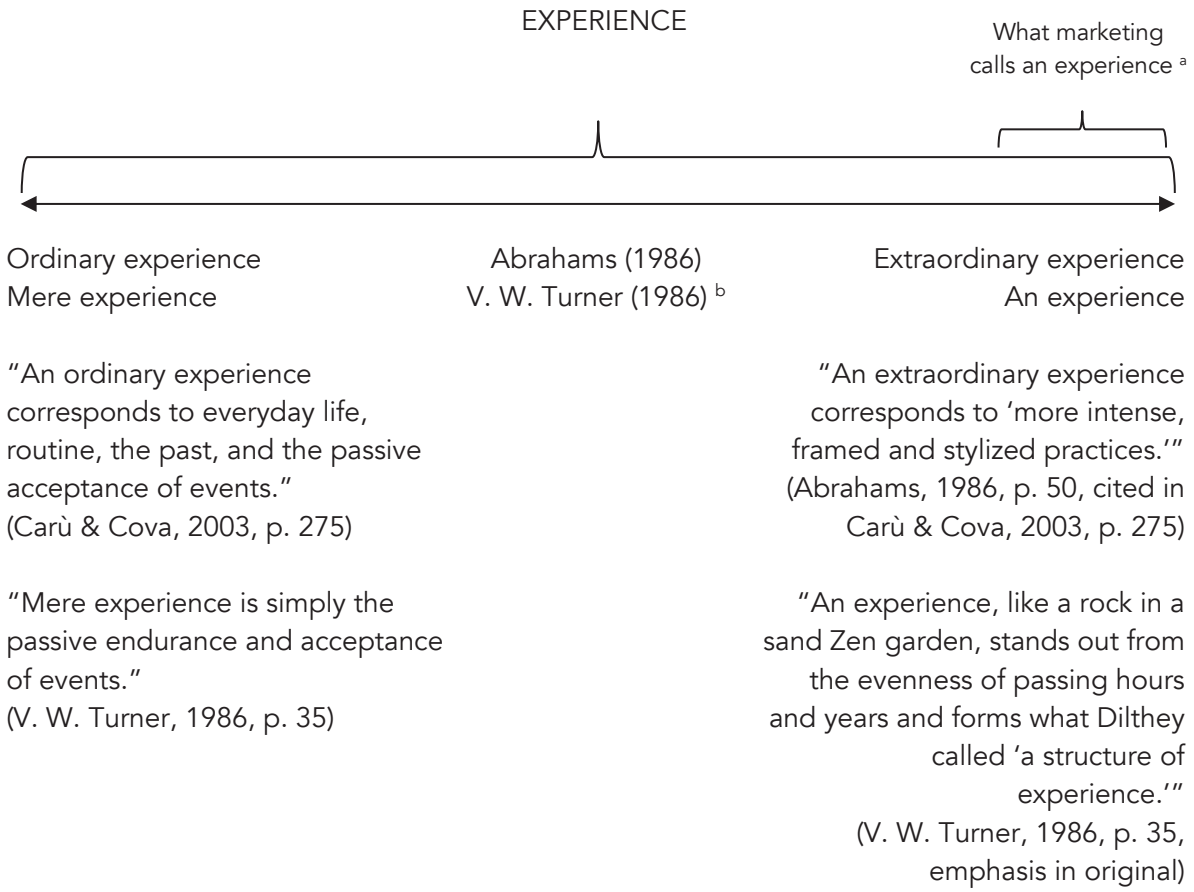

Figure I-8. The experience continuum

Note. [a] Carù and Cova (2003); [b] in reference to Wilhelm Dilthey; Figure in reference to Carù and Cova (2003, p. 282, Fig. 2).

Conclusively, if marketers propose an economic offering that they intend to be "an event or occurrence which leaves an impression on someone" (Oxford Dictionaries, 2017a), that dazzles the senses, touches the heart and stimulates the mind (Schmitt, 1999), they label it experience. However, in the end, it is the consumer, who judges whether the experienced is an extraordinary experience, an ordinary experience, or something in between (Bodet, 2016). For example, in the context of Taiwanese professional baseball matches, Lai and Bodet (2012), and Lai (2014) found

various factors that enhance a game's chances to be perceived as extraordinary. These are the day of the game (weekend games are considered to provide more extraordinary experiences), the stadium (some seem more suitable for extraordinary experiences than others), and the team (some teams are known for their ability to produce extraordinary experiences; Lai, 2014; Lai & Bodet, 2012). Overall, sporting and cultural contexts influence the "perceptions of what is considered as normal and expected and what is unexpected" (Bodet, 2016, p. 206). The marketing of extraordinary experiences has been labelled Experiential marketing.

> [It] goes beyond the simple production of experiences and aims to provide an additional category of offers that complete the main product, and which can be originally with low or high experiential contents, to produce extraordinary, highly emotional and memorable experiences. (Bodet, 2016, p. 205, in reference to Carù & Cova, 2006a)

In that sense, services are designed with the intention to satisfy rational needs. Experiences, however, are designed with the intention to evoke a consumption experience that satisfies the "pursuit of fantasies, feelings, and fun" (Holbrook & Hirschman, 1982, p. 132). In other words, services are the market's offers to the rational human, whereas experiences are directed towards the rational *and* emotional human (Schmitt, 1999). Hence, experiences are an economic offering that is especially suitable to the needs of the postmodern consumer (Carù & Cova, 2003).

In this vein, sport spectator services have been marketed as experiences. However, the sport performance itself – in which the spectator cannot participate – serves merely as the anchor to initiate co-created performances and events, that embed the physical observed and the self in a plethora of interdependent individual experiences[32] (Schmitt, 1999; Tynan & McKechnie, 2009). Thus, the individual becomes

[32] Besides being the anchor to initiate co-created performances and events, the sport performance is the starting point for "complementary consumption modes that spark demand for the other products in what Lury describes as 'the loop' (Lury, 2004, p. 8). The match is, in this sense, an endorsement for the media products and for the licenced merchandise, while the media products promote merchandise and ticket sales and so on" (Guschwan, 2012, p. 22).

immersed in or absorbed by co-created events, that are capable of satisfying an individual's pursuit of fantasies, feelings, and fun and leaving a pleasant and vivid memory (Holbrook & Hirschman, 1982; Pine & Gilmore, 1998). In this way, the, what Schmitt (1999) called, "ultimate goal of experiential marketing" is achievable; the creation of a holistic experience that integrates "individual experiences into a holistic Gestalt" (p. 53).

More than a century ago, Friedrich Nietzsche emphasised the value and pull of extraordinary experiences. To him, group experiences have a transformative power, offering another way to truth beside rationality and pure logic (Nietzsche, 1872/2007). He challenged the (Christian) idea to transform oneself through suffering. What he believed was, that ecstatic experiences are "a way that society could be transformed" and that experiences can turn suffering "into an affirmation of life, this life here, now" (Goldhill, 2016)[33]. To Nietzsche, 19th-century opera might have had this "transformational power". However, seeing Richard Wager's *The Ring,* he hated what he found (here an analogy to sports suggests itself):

> Rather than a place of revolution, the theatre was stuffed with the great and the good of Europe. And the man that he'd revered as a radical, who he thought would catalyse the birth of a brave new world, was just a hero of a self-satisfied festival of opera, ravelling in his own glory. (Hughes, 2016)

After all and based loosely on Hermann Hesse; next to the hunger to forget, there is perhaps nothing stronger than men's hunger for experiences (Hesse, 1982/2015, p. 51).

1.2.2.1 Active entrenchment and reactive interaction

An event or occurrence may be labelled and marketed as an experience. Notwithstanding, an individual being physically present at the experience, does not

[33] Complete transcript of the interview between Bettany Hughes (BBC Four) and Simon Goldhill (Professor at King's College, University of Cambridge) see Appendix A.

guarantee that he/she can actually "access the experience" (Carù & Cova, 2006b, p. 5). More specifically, entering an experience, getting immersed in it, and living through moments of intensity is not an immediate process, it is rather a sequence of three steps. Firstly, an individual will familiarise oneself with a part of the experience (nesting), followed by extending one's knowledge about and control of further facets of the experience (investigating), and finally attach personal meaning to the experience (stamping; Bouchet, Bodet, Bernache-Assollant, & Kada, 2011; Carù & Cova, 2006b). These steps are used by individuals to reduce the distance between the offered experience and oneself; they have been named "operations of appropriation" (Ladwein, 2003, referred to by Carù & Cova, 2006, p. 6). By using these operations of appropriation, individuals establish themselves as main builders and co-creators of the consumption experience (Carù & Cova, 2006b).

However, authors have emphasised that spectators might need guidance or support in realising the operations of appropriation (Carù & Cova, 2006b). Therefore, experience providers might have to guide the immersion process by implementing "appropriation marketing" (Bouchet et al., 2011). Especially in experiences like sport performances that include rituals and rites, knowledge about these may enhance the experience. Otherwise, these rituals and rites create a boundary and additional distance between the self, the crowd and the sport performance (Carù & Cova, 2006b). In other words, the spectator may need instructions, how to join a "participatory ritual, in which individuals act symbolically together to achieve communal goals" (Gainer, 1995, p. 258). Yet, taking the described approach to the extreme, meaning the complete regulation and control of experiences and not joining the experience on an elevated unguided, relational level, shifts the former "*active entrenchment*" to a "*reactive interaction*" (Bouchet et al., 2011, p. 45, emphasis in original). This reactive interaction has been manifested in pre-packaged, pre-programmed, and "ready-to-eat" experiences (Bodet, 2009a; Bouchet et al., 2011). This is not a value judgement, rather an introduction to different types of experiences. Therefore, adding a further facet to the chameleon consumer, which is his or her preference for a certain type of

experience, that in turn may depend on "the sport, the event, the teams or athletes in the competition the type of attendance, and the social context" (Bouchet et al., 2011, p. 44).

2 DIVERSITY OF SPORT CONSUMERS

Above, we have pictured a multi-facetted, so to speak chameleon-like, postmodern (spectator sport) consumer. In what follows, we depict more detailed the heterogeneous, complex behaviours, attitudes, expectations, and varying degrees of sport spectators' relationship proneness. The goal is to give an overview of how researchers and practitioners have modelled/grasped the diversity of sport consumers, using observation- and data-driven typologies. Additionally, the concluding paragraphs are dedicated to typologies that focused on the sport consumer's relationship and relationship quality with the team. Overall, the presented publications primarily deal with sport clubs and their team, the only exception is Bodet et al. (2017), who analysed national teams and national associations.

In what follows, we refer to individuals that witness a sport event, take in content related to the event or the sport itself as sport consumers. Whether the sport or sport-related content is consumed in person or through any media is, in this case, irrelevant. Individuals, whose consumption goes beyond consuming sport-related content only, are depicted as sport spectators. This particular type of sport consumption delineates the either direct (in person) or indirect (through media) experience of a sporting event (Wann, Melnick, Russell, & Pease, 2001). Moreover, we follow Gantz and Wenner's (1995) call for not using the terms "fan" and "spectator" interchangeably, since a fans are a "particular type of emotionally committed and strongly identified spectators for whom the issue of the game or the competition is of high importance" (Bodet & Bernache-Assollant, 2012, p. 254). Therefore, in the following, we use the terms "consumer" or "spectator" to refer to individuals that watch live or mediated sport.

2.1 Observation-driven typologies of sport consumers

The subsequent classifications of sport consumers are the output of field studies, observations, interviews, conceptual considerations and the like. Therefore, they are mostly observation-driven typologies (Bodet & Bernache-Assollant, 2012).

2.1.1 Dualistic approaches

The most basic strategy to structure the heterogeneous population of sport spectators, is a dualistic typology approach (Stewart, Smith, & Nicholson, 2003). In dualistic approaches, only the two extremes on a "sport spectator types continuum" are defined. Examples given by Stewart et al. (2003, p. 207) are:

- Others – Genuine (Clarke, 1978)
- Normal – Serious (Smith, 1988)
- Rational – Irrational (Ferrand & Pages, 1996; Quick, 2000)
- Submissive – Expressive (Hughson, 1999)
- Modern – Traditional (Boyle & Haynes, 2000)
- Corporate – Core (Nash, 2000)
- Less-loyal – Die-hard (Bristow & Sebastian, 2001)
- Civic – Symbolic (Lewis, 2001)

2.1.1.1 Of brandom and fandom

Similarly to dualistic approaches, Guschwan (2012) defined and juxtaposed two contrasting habitus in sport spectatorship; brandom and fandom. Both refer to kinds of fan cultures, though the former is a "pseudo-fan culture engineered by brand managers eager to cultivate consumer labor and loyalty" (Guschwan, 2012, p. 26). Fandom, however, describes a sport spectator habitus that autonomously and actively shapes the overall perception of a team/club through involvement in club politics plus resolute team support. That is to say, brandom is a brand-created, corporately

controlled form of community, while fandom signifies a self-determined, participatory supporter community (Guschwan, 2012).

In a nutshell, fans are a specific form of brand community, from which a club profits. Brandom describes less a community and rather an "aggregation of people" (Guschwan, 2012, p. 20) that are objects in the sport consumption process and a club's marketing strategies (cf. Decentralisation of the subject). On the contrary, fandom co-produces the club-brand's meaning, image, and adds to the matchday experience *independently* of the club's marketing efforts and desires (Guschwan, 2012).

2.1.2 Pluralistic approaches

Below, we introduce six studies that have forwarded pluralistic typologies of sport consumers (for an overview see Table I-2). As the studies above, most classifications are based on observations or qualitative data, and often infer attitudes from the observed behaviours. Exceptions are Ferrand and McCarthy (2008) and Bourgeon and Bouchet (2001). Ferrand and McCarthy (2008) adopted a conceptual typology from outside the sports context. Bourgeon and Bouchet (2001) used the experiences a spectator seeks when attending a match as bases for their typology.

Altogether, approaches range from analysing and classifying the full spectrum of sport spectators – anyone who views live or mediated sport – to classifying a particular subdivision of spectators, e.g. fans.

2.1.2.1 From temporary to dysfunctional fan

In their conceptual study, Hunt, Bristol, and Bashaw (1999) focused on a certain kind of sport spectator. Namely those, who manifest some sort of devotion towards a sport. As a collective term, they chose "fan", that they defined as an

> [E]nthusiastic devotee of some particular sports consumptive object. (…) We use the term devotee to mean that the fan has some level of attachment with an object related to sport. Fans manifest their attachment through specific behavior toward the object. (Hunt et al., 1999, p. 440)

They described five fan types: temporary, local, devoted, fanatical, and dysfunctional. Overall, the motivation to engage in sports-related behaviour is situational for the temporary and local fan, but enduring for the devoted, fanatical, and dysfunctional fan. Further, they emphasised that the level of attachment to a sport consumption object increases from devoted over fanatical to dysfunctional fans.

Table I-2

Observation-driven pluralistic typologies

Author(s)	Typologies					
Hunt et al. (1999)	Temporary fan	Local fan	Devoted fan	Fanatical fan	Dysfunctional fan	
Tapp and Clowes (2000)	Mine's a pint	Juggling the kids	Thermos at row D	Season ticket friendlies	Loyal cash and chanters	Dads and sons
Giulianotti (2002)	Flâneur	Fan	Follower	Supporter		
Ferrand and McCarthy (2008) [a]	Prospect	Customer	Client	Supporter	Advocate	Partner
Harris and Ogbonna (2008) [a]	Armchair supporters	Social fans	Old-timers	Leisure switchers	Club-connected supporters	Die-hard fanatics
Bourgeon and Bouchet (2001)	Opportunist	Aesthete	Supporter	Interactive		

Note. Compilation partly adopted from Bodet and Bernache-Assollant (2012) and Funk et al. (2016); [a] This typology is part of subsection 2.3 Relational approaches.

Hunt et al. (1999) characterised the temporary fan's interest in a sport object as time constrained and external to the fan's identity. The motivation to support a team or athlete might be fuelled by the desire to bask in reflected glory (BIRGing; Cialdini et al., 1976); however, he/she is quick to cut-off-reflected failure (CORFing). The temporary fan is taking the liberty to connect and disconnect with the team as she/he pleases (cf. Fragmentation). In comparison, the local fan's engagement is bounded by geographical constraints. Being a fan is strongly intertwined with the residential district. Moving away, diminishes the fan's devotion. Therefore, to the local fan, being a fan is merely "a peripheral object for self-identification" (Hunt et al., 1999, p. 444).

The devoted fan is distinguished by the fact that his/her support is unconditional regarding time, place, and level of success. Being a fan is not central to the devoted fan's identity; however, an emotional attachment to the sport object exists. Making the fan-identity almost the centre of one's self-identity characterises the fanatical fan. Yet family, work, or another aspect of life are still more pivotal to the identity. Unique is the fanatical fan's sport-related behaviour. It goes beyond the support-behaviours a devoted fan shows. For example, while the devoted fan buys merchandise, the fanatical fan might build a shrine to worship the team. Depending on the sport and the event format, fanatical fans might even attend a match with their body painted or wearing a costume (Hunt et al., 1999).

To the dysfunctional fan, being a fan is his/her primary form of self-identification. This interferes with the fan's "ability to perform normal role behavior outside of the behavior as a fan" (Hunt et al., 1999, p. 447). Furthermore, some dysfunctional fans (i.e. Hooligans) engage intentionally in disruptive and violent behaviours before, during, and after sport events under the guise of being a highly-involved fan (Hunt et al., 1999).

2.1.2.2 From mine's a pint to dads and sons

Another approach to classify sport consumers has been offered by Tapp and Clowes (2000). Their study included semi-structured interviews with football

supporters[34]. Through analysing the supporters' descriptions of matchday behaviours, the authors forwarded a typology of six supporter groups (cf. Table I-3).

Table I-3

Typology of English football supporters by Tapp and Clowes (2000)

Supporter type	Description
Mine's a pint	These are people who like a drink or two either side of the game. These fans will arrive early, "to park", will often meet casual acquaintances at the bar or maybe read the programme.
Juggling the kids	Families trying to fit in two or three events in the day. They may arrive at the ground at the last minute, but be high half time spenders on snacks and so on. Families are also high spenders on merchandise.
Thermos at row D	These are creatures of habit who get into the ground quite late, they were not interested in talking to anyone and may not spend much money at the ground on programmes or food.
Season ticket friendlies	These people enjoy the social event of meeting fellow supporters by virtue of always having the same seat.
Loyal cash and chanters	They buy tickets with cash when they get paid and have a good shout at the game. Maybe "regular" fans.
Dads and sons	These were quiet supporters, and not part of a group. They were loyal, "club" rather than "football" oriented, and critical of "disloyal" boys being Manchester United fans.

Note. Descriptions are direct quotes from Tapp and Clowes (2000, pp. 1264-1265).

2.1.2.3 From flâneur to supporter

Above, the authors focused on certain kinds of spectators, namely fans (Hunt et al., 1999) and supporters (Tapp & Clowes, 2000). In his conceptual work on English football, Giulianotti (2002) took a broader approach and advanced four *spectator*

[34] The typologies are based on 25 in-depth interviews with what Tapp and Clowes (2000) called football supporters. Inferring from their interviewee recruiting process, they defined supporters as individuals that attend football matches. They described that the interviewees were selected from season ticket holders, individuals who bought tickets through phone or credit card, and individuals that bought tickets in person from the ticket office, mostly paying cash.

typologies; flâneur, fan, follower, and supporter. He included individuals that are not emotionally committed to or identified with, in this case, a club. In other words, in his work, a broader spectrum of spectators is depicted. It is ranging from individuals that consume the club's offers in a "depersonalized set of market-dominated virtual relationships" to individuals being highly invested in and identified with a club (Giulianotti, 2002, p. 38).

With his characterisation of the flâneur, Giulianotti (2002) presented a postmodern spectator identity, that has the "economic, cultural, and educational capital to inspire a cosmopolitan interest in the *collection of experiences*" (p. 39, emphasis added). For a flâneur, enduring emotional investment in a club is nearly non-existent, just as the club is extraneous to his/her identity. The flâneur pursues sensation and excitement and is willing to use *various* clubs/players to satisfy this desire. Furthermore, the flâneur instrumentalises "avant-garde, winning brand[s]" to shine on his/her personality, i.e. clubs become merely selected "appendages" at service of him/her (Giulianotti, 2002, p. 40). Overall, the flâneur is strolling from satisfactory affiliation to affiliation, ready to tap into other domains for entertainment if football momentary does not serve this purpose. In this sense, the flâneur embodies the "transferable loyalties of the *postmodern passenger*" (B. S. Turner, 1999, p. 48, cited in Giulianotti, 2002, p. 40, emphasis added). His/her consumption of football is predominantly through the cool and distant mediums TV/internet, while he/she uses the consumption and temporarily connection to produce the self (cf. Reversal of production and consumption, Consumption of signs).

Central to the Giulianotti's (2002) characterisation of the fan is the relationship he/she has with the club and its star players. Yet, the whole "relationship" originates from the fan; thus it is unidirectional, lacks dialogue and exchange (except monetary). Accordingly, he/she experiences "the club, its traditions, its star players, and fellow supporters through a *market-centred* set of relationships", which in turn the fan tries to authenticate through consumption of club-related products and services (Giulianotti, 2002, p. 36, emphasis added). Typically, the fan is geographically removed from the

club's home and passive in political activities concerning the club. Furthermore, he/she is superficially dedicated to a club but identifies with it and especially with its star-player(s). Anyhow, he/she most readily shifts affection, intimacy, and love from established to new arriving celebrity players (cf. Fragmentation). Overall, Giulianotti (2002) ranked the fan, just like the flâneur, among the consumer-centred spectator identities. Correspondingly, he argued that the fan embodies a "deculturalized pursuit of 'value for money'" and therefore, is likely to transmigrate to other leisure activities or football leagues "if the club fails to deliver on its market promises" (Giulianotti, 2002, p. 37).

Followers are more traditional football spectators but do not include a club in their project of self-formation. Although his/her true allegiance might be with one club, Giulianotti (2002) argued that this type of spectator also has an interest in other clubs, players, managers, and other football people. Additionally, he/she is interested in and knowledgeable about various supporter groups, yet it does not originate from personal experiences or involvement, rather through the media. The follower might choose to follow 'low profile' clubs and teams to emphasise that his/her interest is not driven by team success or "fashionability", rather by "more abstract social and cultural values" (Giulianotti, 2002, p. 35), shaping the self-image accordingly (cf. Consumption of signs). Pivotal to the characterisation of the follower is the concept of "nested identities" that Giulianotti (2002, p. 36) borrowed from Cohen (1978) and is also related to Fragmentation. He implemented it to explain the follower's diverse set of followings. Nested identities 'allow' him/her to have various allegiances with clubs and football people. Overall, they enable the follower to ensure that his/her general "football interest is sustained when his or her supported true team in no longer competing" (Giulianotti, 2002, p. 36).

The supporter equals the spectator with the highest allegiance. He/she is strongly and continually involved in the club, attitudinally as well as behaviourally, to some extent revelling in his/her Hyperreality. In Giulianotti's (2002) words, supporters have "a long-term personal and emotional investment in the club", they

are "culturally contracted to their clubs" (p. 33). The club and support for it are fundamental and central aspects of the support's identity. The relationship with the club is family-like, and new supporters are "socialized into the core subcultural values by their parent groups or older peers" (Giulianotti, 2002, p. 34). In this vein, the supporter status with its "subcultural capital" cannot be simply acquired through match attendance and the latest merchandise (Giulianotti, 2002, p. 34). Club support is taken to the extreme by these spectators, as they might have club crests tattooed to their bodies, match attendance is habitual, and the relationship with the club's home ground is affectionate. On matchdays, supporter communities produce a one-of-a-kind atmosphere and manifest their "lived experience" of club support (Giulianotti, 2002, p. 33).

2.1.2.4 From opportunist to interactive supporter

So far, the presented typologies of sport spectators circled around descriptions of actual states (e.g. behaviours, identification). The following approach is different. Bourgeon and Bouchet (2001) developed a four-type model for sport spectators[35] that classifies spectators based on the kind of *experience* they look for in sport spectacle consumption. They verbalised this "search for experience" by describing the behaviour the spectators engage/want to engage in (cf. Table I-4). Furthermore, the typology has been translated into the *Sporting Event Experience Search* (SEES) scale and validated for the live-attendance context (Bouchet et al., 2011).

[35] Through two focus groups and 20 interviews with individuals interested and uninterested in sport events.

Table I-4

Typology of sport spectators by Bourgeon and Bouchet (2001)

Spectator type	Description of consumption experience searched
Opportunist	Behaviour expresses relative neutrality with any demonstrative support being forced by a collective movement, such as a Mexican wave. Participation is linked to the hope of receiving benefit from positive rewards.
Aesthete	Behaviour is oriented towards quality, beauty, exceptional performance, fair play, and the drama and theoretical intensity of show.
Supporter	Behaviour is characterised by a degree of support for the players. Fans want to have the feeling of being co-producers by showing a physical and vocal presence or superiority.
Interactive	Behaviour is oriented towards entertainment and shared emotion in reaction to objects or people's actions. They react and interact, and project themselves into the event, sometimes beyond sport venues.

Note. Descriptions are direct quotes from Bouchet et al. (2011, p. 45), since they translated the originally French descriptions by Bourgeon and Bouchet (2001) to English.

An example for the spectator type Opportunist can be individuals that attend matches with tickets supplied by corporate sponsors, what Harris and Ogbonna (2008, p. 390) called "corporate attendees". Although they might buy merchandise, they fail to connect with the club, as a primary goal might be to connect with influential individuals for personal benefits. Overall, the Opportunist is only temporarily a fan (Hunt et al., 1999), who is aware of the team but has not developed any attachment to it (Funk & James, 2001).

2.2 Data-driven typologies of sport consumers

Data-driven sport consumer typologies use quantitative information to build typologies *a posteriori* – after – data has been recorded and statistically treated. Size and number of the typologies are unknown beforehand and are "developed" through analysis (Liu, Taylor, & Shibli, 2008).

2.2.1 Sociodemographic approaches

The list of studies that used sociodemographic data to grasp the heterogeneity of sport spectators is long. Be it age, gender, income, education, social class, or cultural and ethnic backgrounds, research has shown that these variables can be linked to sport consumption patterns (e.g. live attendance, sport preference) and motives (for a review see Bodet & Bernache-Assollant, 2012, pp. 257-259). The same authors emphasised that, despite the importance of sociodemographic variables to understand the diversity of sport crowds,

> it is almost impossible to establish universal conclusions regarding the influence of these variables as it completely depends on the sport and the historical economic and cultural contexts investigated. (Bodet & Bernache-Assollant, 2012, p. 259)

2.2.2 Pluralistic behavioural and psychographic approaches

In order to understand sport consumer better and to describe them beyond sociodemographic data, researches have studied their attendance patterns (Tapp, 2004; Tapp & Clowes, 2000), attitudes (Nassis, Theodorakis, Afthinos, & Kolybalis, 2014; Pritchard & Funk, 2010; Ratten, Ratten, Kyoum Kim, Jae Ko, & James, 2011), motives (Bernthal, Koesters, Ballouli, & Brown, 2015; Trail & James, 2001; Wann, Schrader, & Wilson, 1999), personality (Schurr, Wittig, Ruble, & Ellen, 1988), and satisfaction (Bodet, 2006, 2008; Bodet & Bernache-Assollant, 2009, 2011). This non-exhaustive list is just a brief extract of all the different behaviours and psychographics sport scholars have investigated. In the following, we present five studies that used distinct behavioural and psychographic characteristics to justify sport consumer typologies. For an overview see Table I-5.

Table I-5

Data-driven typologies

Author(s)	Typologies are based on	Typologies			
Wann and Branscombe (1993)	Identification	Low	Moderate	High	
Tapp and Clowes (2000)	Average attendance	Casuals	Regulars	Fanatics	
Funk and James (2001)	Psychological connections	Awareness	Attraction	Attachment	Allegiance
Pons, Mourali, and Nyeck (2006)	Motivation	Situational fan	Experiential fan	Social fan	Super fan
Bouzdine-Chameeva, Ferrand, Valette-Florence, and Chanavat (2015)	Brand associations	Show-business lovers	Event followers	Admirers of celebrities and fair play	Passionate fans

Note. Compilation partly adopted from Bodet and Bernache-Assollant (2012).

2.2.2.1 Identification: From low to high

The level of identification with sports teams has been used in various studies to classify sport spectators and map their heterogeneity (e.g. in France Bernache-Assollant, Bouchet, & Lacassagne, 2007). Frequently cited are Wann and Branscombe (1993), who were the first to advance a Sport Spectator Identification Scale (SSIS). According to Wann et al. (2001) and Bernache-Assollant et al. (2007) the SSIS has been implemented with success in numerous countries: Germany (Straub, 1995), Japan (Uemukai, Takenouchi, Okuda, Matsumoto, & Yamanaka, 1995), United States (Gayton, Coffin, & Hearns, 1998), England (I. Jones, 2000), Australia (Wann, Dimmock, & Grove, 2003), Norway (Melnick & Wann, 2004), and France (Bernache-Assollant et al., 2007).

In their study Wann and Branscombe (1993) found three different spectator types, namely low, moderate, and high identified sport spectators. Moreover, these did not differ in their identification level only. The low, moderate, and high identified spectators, differed in behaviours and opinions (levels of involvement, attributions and outlook, investment, and the uniqueness of being fan of a particular team).

Results of the French SSIS study, confirmed validity and reliability of the scale, revealed however two identification levels only; moderate-high and low (Bernache-Assollant et al., 2007). Similar to the earlier study, the authors tested if the two identification groups differ in the involvement towards the team and the expectation concerning the outlook for the team's future performance. As predicted, the high-medium identified group had been fans of the team longer and were more optimistic about the team's future achievements (Bernache-Assollant et al., 2007). The low identified sport spectators might include the Temporary fan (Hunt et al., 1999), the Flâneur (Giulianotti, 2002), and the Opportunist (Bourgeon & Bouchet, 2001).

2.2.2.2 *Average attendance: From casuals to fanatics*

Above, we already presented a typology approach by Tapp and Clowes (2000). In it, they used descriptions of match day behaviours to classify football supporters (cf. 2.1.2.2 From mine's a pint to dads and sons). In the same study, they also used quantitative data (matches attended per season) to advance another classification. They argued that "matches attended per season" are a good indicator for the supporter's value to the club. Therefore, they used these numbers as distinguishing mark and labelled the supporters accordingly. By linking the attendance numbers to psychographic variables, qualitative and further behavioural data, Tapp and Clowes (2000) described three supporter profiles as follows (cf. Table I-6).

Table I-6

Typology of supporters by Tapp and Clowes (2000)

Attribute	Casual supporter	Regular supporters	Fanatic supporters
Distinguishing mark: Attendance home matches per season (range)	1-9	10-18	>18 + some/all away matches
Average attendance p.a.	5	15	N.A.
Expenses on tickets p.a.	£100	£300	£350
Expenses on merchandise p.a.	£25	£35	£75
Are interested in receiving information about the club	N.A.	N.A.	63%
Would attend supporter gathering	26%	N.A.	66%
Prefer entertainment over winning	77%	47%	53%
Attend matches not involving "their" club	46%	N.A.	25%
Live outside of city	67%	N.A.	40%
Know when the club's next match is	55%	93%	97%
Watching the club is one option of several	82%	N.A.	6%

Note. P.a. = per annum; N.A. = not available; the displayed proportions signify "yes" answers.

Also, Tapp and Clowes (2000) identified a difference within the casual supporters group. Namely those, who consider themselves less or not at all loyal to the club and those, who recognise themselves as loyal supporters. They labelled the former group "carefree casuals" and the latter "committed casuals". The carefree casuals seem to be more inclined to consider football as entertainment and just one choice amongst many to satisfy their want for amusement (cf. Table I-7). Their team identification might be low (Wann & Branscombe, 1993) and the focus on entertainment is similar to the Event followers (Bouzdine-Chameeva et al., 2015).

Furthermore, Tapp and Clowes (2000) emphasised the existence of an additional subgroup within the casuals; the "professional wanderers". Due to their profession, they move house frequently and therefore, do not have close ties to the local community and are less loyal to the local club (versus Local fan; Hunt et al., 1999). However, they might enjoy preserving their affiliation to the club, when moving another time, whereas the Local fan's affiliation fades when moving houses.

Finally, the researchers drew attention to what they called "repertoire fans" and "collectors". Repertoire fans are sport consumers that frequently watch matches that do not involve "their" club. These comprised about one third of the overall sample. The collectors are a subgroup of the fanatic supporters, that are distinguished by their avid collection of memorabilia (Tapp, 2004; Tapp & Clowes, 1999, 2000).

Table I-7

Differentiation between carefree and committed casuals by Tapp and Clowes (2000)

Attribute	Carefree casuals	Committed casuals
Distinguishing mark: self-perception loyal supporter	Slightly agree or disagree with the notion of being a loyal supporter	Strongly agree with the notion of being a loyal supporter
Proportion of casual supporters	57%	43%
Prefer entertainment over winning	88%	62%
Attend matches not involving "their" club	50%	26%
Know when the club's next match is	37%	78%
Watching the club is one option of several	88%	75%

2.2.2.3 Psychological connections: From awareness to allegiance

Instead of using behavioural measures like the average attendance of home matches per year, Funk and James (2001) forwarded another typology of sport consumers. They modelled the heterogeneity of sport consumers along a continuum divided into four stages. Each stage represents a certain level of psychological connection a sport consumer has established with the sport, sports team or league in question. Moving up the stages, equals a growth in the psychological connection's complexity. Furthermore, they suggested that the higher the sport consumer's psychological connection stage, the more she/he is intrinsically motivated to maintain the connection and express this through fan behaviours accordingly (cf. Table I-8).

Table I-8

Level of an individual's psychological connection to sport by Funk and James (2001)

Stage of psychological connection	Psychological connection	Connection established and maintained through	Sport consumer's key characteristics
1	Awareness	Extrinsic features (socialising agents/media)	Knowledge of the sports object but no preference yet.
2	Attraction	Extrinsic/intrinsic features (dispositional influences)	Development of liking for sports object.
3	Attachment	Intrinsic features (personal importance and meaning)	Resistant to alternate options, i.e. a stable connection.
4	Allegiance	Intrinsic consistency (intrinsic influences most important)	Consistent/enduring connection + exhibiting fan behaviours accordingly.

Note. Table in parts adopted from Funk and James (2001, p. 122); Key characteristics following J. P. Doyle, Kunkel, and Funk (2013, pp. 23-24).

Subsequent studies have validated this approach in the context of psychological connection to a sports team and league (J. P. Doyle et al., 2013). They showed statistically[36] that the four levels of psychological connection are linked to a stepwise increase in positive attitude (resistance to change) and behaviour (watching the team/league via television). That is to say, a sport consumer's movement along the continuum (from awareness to attraction, from attraction to attachment, and from attachment to allegiance) goes hand in hand with a strengthening of his/her positive attitude towards the team/league and his/her frequency of watching the team/league via television.

[36] In fact, the researchers did not measure awareness, attraction, attachment, or allegiance. Instead, they followed Beaton, Funk, and Alexandris (2009) in using the concept of involvement. Involvement has been considered a "suitable variable to place people into the theorised PCM [psychological continuum model] stages based on the construct's previous stability across recreational research (J. P. Doyle et al., 2013, p. 25).

2.2.2.4 *Motivation: From situational to super fan*

Researchers have been interested in the motives why an individual attends sporting events and consumes related goods and services (Pons et al., 2006; Wann, 1995; Wann et al., 1999). An approach developed to drive the understanding of motives is the concept of orientation toward a sporting event (OSE; Pons et al., 2006). The concept's authors proposed three "seeking-dimensions", i.e. what an individual seeks in sport consumption. These dimensions are sensation-, cognition-, and socialisation-seeking. These three comprise the general OSE. Examples for the three dimension are: "Attending sporting events is a good opportunity to socialize" (socialisation-seeking), "I feel really happy when I can attend a sporting event" (sensation-seeking), "I am really interested in any information regarding sports (records, scorers, contracts)" (cognition-seeking; Pons et al., 2006, p. 281).

Ultimately, they used the three dimensions to classify sport consumers into four clusters. Additionally, they further described the clusters with sociodemographic and behavioural data from their study (e.g. age, the frequency of sport practice, watching/attending sporting events, buying merchandise/magazines).

The "situational fan", or "fan by default", has a low score on the general OSE. His/her related sporting behaviours are low as well, but not completely absent. Pons et al. (2006) argued that it could be due the omnipresence of sporting events in contemporary society.

The "experiential fan" shows a moderate OSE, but a high score for sensation-seeking. Transactional behaviours are low, as well as interest in information. For him/her, the thrill and excitement from consuming live or mediated sport is paramount (cf. Interactive spectator type; Bourgeon & Bouchet, 2001).

The "social fan", like the experiential fan, exhibits a moderate OSE level. Whereas here, the "seeking focus" is on socialisation. Therefore, to socialise the fan's knowledge about sporting events (cognition) and spending on merchandise are relatively high, to enhance the profundity of sport-related interactions and show belonging.

The "super fan" has high levels of sensation-, cognition-, and socialisation-seeking. Consumption of sporting events is high, in conjunction with high scores for transactional behaviours and sport practice.

2.2.2.5 Brand associations: From show-business lovers to event followers

The following typology approach used a self-developed method to measure sport consumers' mental associations with a sport, a league, or association (Bouzdine-Chameeva et al., 2015). Earlier research investigated sport consumer's content and structure as well (Ross, 2007; Ross, James, & Vargas, 2006); however they did not use brand associations as the characteristic parameter (Bouzdine-Chameeva et al., 2015 for further details).

Based on UEFA Champions League-brand associations, the researchers found four subsets of sport consumers[37]. They concluded, for example, that "Event followers" are context-bound, and "Celebrities' admirers" focus on socialising (Bouzdine-Chameeva et al., 2015). The core association of each sport spectator have been depicted as follows:

- Show-business lovers: Top-European clubs, a show, UEFA, sponsorship
- Event followers: UEFA, sports events
- Celebrities' admirers: Sport stars, a show, fair play, top European clubs
- Passionate fans: Top-European clubs, business media, prestige, international sponsorship

The authors compared their spectator profiles to the profiles suggested by Richelieu and Pons (2005) and Pons et al. (2006). They found certain degrees of commonality between Show-business lovers and Experiential fans, Event followers and Situational fans, Celebrity admirers and Social fans, and Passionate fans and Super fans (Bouzdine-Chameeva et al., 2015, p. 417 for further details).

[37] Within a convenience sample of 30 TV sport viewers (20 men, 10 women), who watched at least two UEFA Champions League matches on TV during the season from semi-final to final. The participants were chosen accordingly the average audience breakdown in France in age and sex (Bouzdine-Chameeva et al., 2015).

2.3 Relational approaches

This subsection presents sport consumer typologies and descriptions that revolve around the consumer-team and consumer-club relationship, regardless of being observation- or data-driven. While the first two studies offer descriptions of specific sport consumer types, the latter two introduce more overarching relational typologies.

2.3.1 From armchair supporters to die-hard fanatics

Based on 17 focus groups and 30 in-depth personal interviews, Harris and Ogbonna (2008) developed a typology of football supporters and non-supporters[38]. They organised their classification primarily around the kind of relational link the supporters have with a club or team. As a benchmark, they used the presence of four characteristics that they identified to be essential to successful relationships: intimacy, interaction, trust, and commitment (Harris & Ogbonna, 2008).

[38] Of the 17 focus groups "14 comprised individuals who considered themselves supporters of English Premier soccer clubs, 2 comprised informants who considered themselves primarily supporters of non-Premier soccer teams, and 1 contained informants who claimed not to support any soccer team or club" (Harris & Ogbonna, 2008, p. 386). Interviewees were recruited from the focus groups and were divided into supporters and non-supporters.

Table I-9

Typology of football supporters by Harris and Ogbonna (2008)

Supporter type	Key features
Armchair supporters	▪ **Relationships lacking intimacy** ▪ Committed but lacking closeness ▪ No attendance of matches, calculative in their support ▪ Follow matches through mediated channels ▪ Unlikely to spend money on pay-to-view matches
Social fans	▪ **Relationships lacking intimacy and commitment** ▪ If matches are attended, then for social reasons ▪ Reluctant to club's efforts to build a relationship ▪ Support without emotional attachment
Old-timers	▪ **Relationships lacking mutual understanding and recognition** ▪ Often committed, sometimes feel close to club ▪ Elderly man ▪ Attend home matches, often alone ▪ Purchase cheap tickets, no spending on food or merchandise ▪ Support for team, but link to club is transactional only
Leisure switchers	▪ **Relationships lacking commitment** ▪ Call themselves fans of football in general ▪ Attend matches of their local club mostly in groups ▪ Support is one option among many leisure activities
Club-connected supporters	▪ **Successful fan-club relationship** ▪ Great level of commitment ▪ Substantial financial and social sacrifice for club ▪ High trust in club's management ▪ Identification with team captain and manager ▪ Value interaction with club, engagement beyond matchday ▪ Showing/wearing latest merchandise/jerseys ▪ Using club-related clothing as casual wear ▪ Highly engaged to create supportive atmosphere
Die-hard fanatics	▪ **Successful fan-club relationship** ▪ Obsessive in their support ▪ Older than 25, mostly men and blue-collar ▪ Local, lifelong supporters, family history of support ▪ Association with club through team ▪ Differentiate clearly between team and club management ▪ Distrust club management ▪ Rarely purchase merchandise ▪ Strict group norms, do not want to be associated with Club-connected supporters ▪ Attend home and away matches as well as preseason matches, testimonial matches, and public trainings

Note. Key features extracted from Harris and Ogbonna (2008, pp. 389-394).

2.3.2 From prospect to partner

Unlike the preceding typologies, the ensuing six are hierarchically structured; they describe the progressive deepening of a relationship between an individual and a sports club. Originally, Christopher, Payne, and Ballantyne (2004) forwarded this conceptual approach outside a sports context. It was Ferrand and McCarthy (2008), who adopted and applied it to sports (cf. Table I-10). However, it is essential to acknowledge that this typology focuses on the commercial aspect of a spectator-club relationship. Furthermore, relationship building efforts by the club do not guarantee a progressive deepening of it, spectators may as well never go, for example, beyond the client stage (Ferrand & McCarthy, 2008).

Table I-10

Typology of relational stages by Ferrand and McCarthy (2008)

Relationship type	Description
Prospect	Individuals in the target group with whom the club would like to create a relationship.
Customer	Individuals with whom the club has carried out a single transaction.
Client	Individuals with whom the club regularly carries out transactions.
Supporter	Individuals with whom the club has established an emotional link, however support for the club is rather passive.
Advocate	Individuals with whom the club has established an emotional link and who actively support and promote the club, notably by word of mouth.
Partner	Individuals that actively collaborate with the club by committing resources to obtain common objectives.

Note. Descriptions in reference to Ferrand and McCarthy (2008, p. 18).

2.3.3 Relationship proneness

Above we introduced several sport spectator typology approaches. Among these was an approach that based its categorisation on the kind of relational link the supporters *have* with a club or team (Harris & Ogbonna, 2008). Bodet et al. (2017)

turned this approach into a spectator centric one. Their analysis of sport spectators is rooted in "seeing the relationship from the customers' perspective and understanding just what they seek in a relationship" (Palmer, 1994, p. 573, cited in Ferrand and McCarthy, 2008, p. 18). In conclusion, instead of describing the status of a relationship, they investigated what sort of relationship sport spectators *want to have* with a club or team, or as in Bodet et al.'s (2017) case, want to have with their national football associations and national football teams[39]. Central to their qualitative research has been a question that precedes an analysis of a desired relationship itself; who exactly is interested in a relationship anyway, i.e. who has an appetite for a relationship (Bodet et al., 2017). One outcome of their study on nature of and appetite for relationships with national football teams and national football associations was that fans from Lithuania and England have no appetite for a close relationship, as they are already highly involved in relationships with the football club they support.

2.3.4 Long-distance relationships

None of the classification approaches has dealt with relationship-prone sport consumers who, however, are geographically removed from their clubs. Be it because they moved away after building a relationship (displaced fan; Wann et al., 2001), or bonded with the club *despite* living far away from the "epicentre of a team's influence, the host city or country in which the sports team is located" (satellite fan; Kerr & Gladden, 2008, p. 61). These fans often invest heavily, timewise and financially, to stay closely connected to their club (Kerr & Gladden, 2008). Albeit they, in the case of the satellite fans, might never experience a match at the home ground or visit the premises.

Reasons why an individual becomes a satellite fan of a specific team, depend most likely on organisation/team and personal factors (Bodet, Geng, & Chanavat, 2013). For Chinese fans, the five most important factors to becoming a fan of a English Premier League club are: style of play, the club manager, presence of a specific player,

[39] Focus groups in Armenia and Lithuania with die-hard (11 and 8 fans respectively) and casual fans (11 and 8 fans respectively). Individual interviews in England with six casual/regular fans and four die-hard fans.

presence of star players, and the perceived fit between club and the fan's social background (Bodet et al., 2013). For French satellite fans of English Premier League clubs, it is in parts similar. Their awareness of English Premier League clubs is firmly connected to the presence of French players or coaches, or players who have played in France (Chanavat & Bodet, 2009).

Overall, researchers have argued that satellite fans constitute a distinct and valuable fan type (Bodet & Chanavat, 2010; Bodet et al., 2013; Chanavat & Bodet, 2009; Kerr & Gladden, 2008). Already in 2008 scholars noted:

> Due to the emergence of new technologies, the tyranny of distance that in the past hindered attempts to develop and maintain a relationship with a foreign-based team has largely been mitigated. (…) As competition intensifies around the world for the entertainment dollar, these satellite fans cannot be ignored. (Kerr & Gladden, 2008, p. 62)

Since then the possibilities to connect with and follow a team from a distance have increased significantly, as well as the efforts by clubs to profit from them. Be it through staging matches outside of the geographical league- and competition-boundaries, club owned streaming services, country-specific social media presence, and local merchandise stores. Entertainment business's digital transformation will most likely foster the growth of global fan bases. Be it through developments such as augmented or virtual reality, or other technologies that allow fans to connect with their team on an individualised and intimate relational level.

At this point, we cite Guschwan (2012) again. One might argue that satellite fans are mostly a product of marketing efforts to create a geographically removed, loyal pseudo-fan culture. The strategically informed marketing decision to internationalise the club brand capitalises on the existing local fan communities. That is to say, local fandom *and* brandom is fed to the satellite fans as the "authentic club experience" – exploiting fandom's "labour", as well as shifting and perverting brandom to satellite-brandom.

2.4 Typologies at a glance

Above we presented studies that characterised and categorised sport spectators. Partly, we mentioned links between the various sport spectator characterisations. In the following, we bring forward three complementary, non-exhaustive illustrations to summarise the above and highlight common themes. The commonalities are by no means as clear-cut as Table I-12 and Figure I-9 might suggest. For many typologies, the grouping in one category is falling short to represent the nuances and information-richness of each typology. Yet, it gives a brief schematic overview. In Table I-11, we allocated the typologies of seven publications to the four levels of psychological connection (Funk & James, 2001). Table I-12 gives an overview of all ten pluralistic typology approaches. In Figure I-9 we tried to structure several sport spectator types, depending on the main reason(s) to consume a sport object and the individual's willingness to change/replace a sport object for another activity, sport, team, athlete or the like.

Table I-11

The typology by Funk and James (2001) in relation to other authors

Awareness	Attraction	Attachment	Allegiance
Knowledge of the sports object but no preference yet.	Development of liking for sports object.	Resistant to alternate options, i.e. a stable connection.	Consistent/enduring connection + exhibiting fan behaviours accordingly.
Temporary fan [a]	Local fan [a]	Devoted fan [a]	Fanatical fan [a]
Flâneur [b]	Fan [b]	Follower [b]	Dysfunctional fan [a]
Opportunist [c]	Casuals [e]	Aesthete [c]	Supporter [b, c]
Low [d]	Social fan [f]	Interactive [c]	High [d]
Situational fan [f]	Celebs + fair play admirers [g]	Moderate [d]	Fanatics [e]
Event followers [g]		Regulars [e]	Super fan [f]
		Experiential fan [f]	Passionate fans [g]
		Show-busi. lovers [g]	

Note. Key characteristics following J. P. Doyle et al. (2013, pp. 23-24). [a] Hunt et al. (1999), [b] Giulianotti (2002), [c] Bourgeon and Bouchet (2001), [d] Wann and Branscombe (1993), [e] Tapp and Clowes (2000), [f] Pons et al. (2006), [g] Bouzdine-Chameeva et al. (2015).

Table I-12

Summary Observation- and Data-driven typologies

	Observation-driven typologies					Data-driven typologies				
Author(s)	Hunt et al. (1999)	Giulianotti (2002)	Ferrand and McCarthy (2008)	Harris and Ogbonna (2008)	Bourgeon and Bouchet (2001)	Wann and Branscombe (1993)	Tapp and Clowes (2000)	Funk and James (2001)	Pons et al. (2006)	Bouzdine-Chameeva et al. (2015)
Typologies	Temporary fan	Flâneur	Prospect	Armchair supporters	Opportunist	Low	Casuals	Awareness	Situational fan	Show-business lovers
	Local fan	Fan	Customer	Social fans	Aesthete	Moderate	Regulars	Attraction	Experiential fan	Event followers
	Devoted fan	Follower	Client	Old-timers	Supporter	High	Fanatics	Attachment	Social fan	Celebs + fair play admirers
	Fanatical fan	Supporter	Supporter	Leisure switchers	Interactive			Allegiance	Super fan	Passionate fans
	Dysfunctional fan		Advocate	Club-connected supporters						
			Partner	Die-hard fanatics						
Incl. Framework	-	x	-	-	x	-	-	x	-	-
Football specific	-	x	-	x	-	-	x	-	-	x
n	-	-	-	-	91[a]	237	667	1384[b]	346	30
Focus on	Behaviour	Form of consumption	Relationships	Relationships	Live experience [a]	Identification	Behaviour	Psychological connections	Motivation	Brand associations
Context	Sport, teams, athletes	Professional football clubs	Professional football clubs	Premier League club	Tennis, Football [a]	Basketball	Premier League club	Football, Rugby, team + league [b]	Sporting event	UEFA CL [c]

Note. [a] Bouchet et al. (2011); [b] J. P. Doyle et al. (2013); [c] UEFA Champions League.

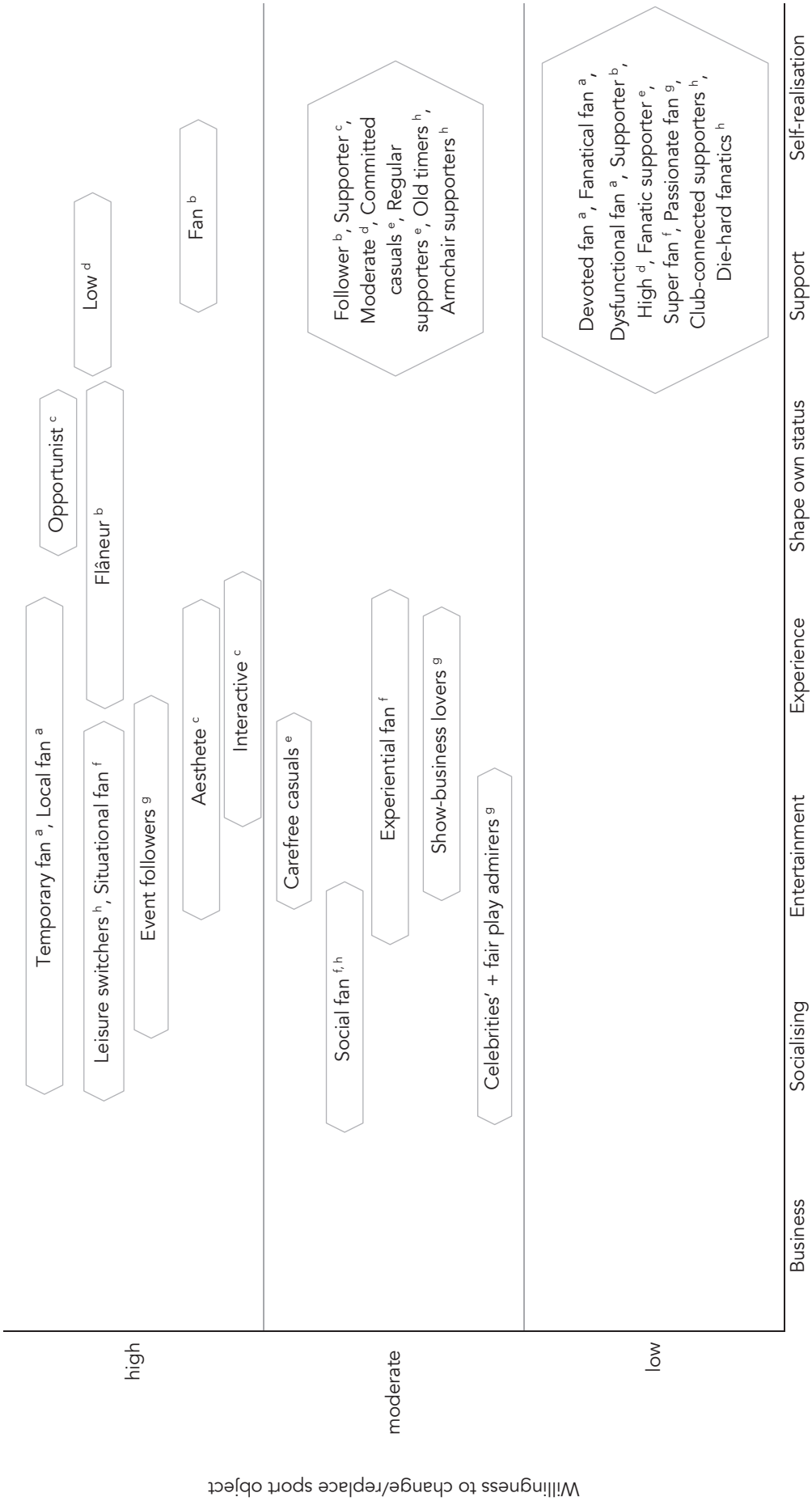

Figure I-9. Categorisation of 31 sport spectator typologies

Note. [a] Hunt et al. (1999), [b] Giulianotti (2002), [c] Bourgeon and Bouchet (2001), [d] Wann and Branscombe (1993), [e] Tapp and Clowes (2000), [f] Pons et al. (2006), [g] Bouzdine-Chameeva et al. (2015), [h] Harris and Ogbonna (2008).

Section Three – Relationship Marketing

> We are reaching a point where the group is less interested in what it produces than in the human relations within it. Its essential work may be, more or less, to *produce relationship*, and to consume this as it goes along. (Baudrillard, 1970/2017, p. 189, emphasis in original)

This section is highly connected to Section Two – The demand side. Here, we explore relationship marketing in general, in sport, and in football from three different perspectives. Specifically, we investigate how sport consumer typologies are used to implement segment-specific customer relationship management (CRM) practices and how relationship simulations drive these practices. Furthermore, we discuss shortcomings of CRM in football and explore the shift from CRM to FRM (fan relationship management). Ensuing, we depict how FRM helped to overcome the idea of the ever-loyal football fan and how it is applied in social media.

Additionally, we elaborate on CRM practices on national football level and attitudes towards the marketization of relationships. We close this section by dissecting the classical sport organisation–consumer relationship and plead for a holistic relationship management approach which takes several stakeholders into account when assessing a sport consumer's relationship quality with a sport organisation.

I RELATIONSHIP MARKETING

For firms there are three ways to grow their market share; (1) increase number of new customers, (2) increase business with existing customers, and (3) reduce a loss of customers (Berry, 1995). To achieve these goals, Berry (1995) identified *relationship marketing* (RM). Implemented successfully, it expands existing relationships, while reducing customer defections, and it may help to pull in new customers (Berry, 1995).

Researches – as cited in Morgan and Hunt's (1994) seminal paper on RM – have defined it as a marketing practice "oriented toward strong, lasting relationships with individual accounts" (Jackson, 1985, p. 2), and called its goal to "earn the position of preferred supplier by developing trust in key accounts over a period of time" (S. X. Doyle & Roth, 1992, p. 59). R. M. Morgan and Hunt (1994) emphasised that a definition of RM should not focus on customers only, seeing that the strategic alliances often include neither "'buyers', 'sellers', 'customers', nor 'key accounts' — only *partners* exchanging resources" (p. 22, emphasis in original). Consequently, they put forward a broader definition:

> Relationship marketing refers to all marketing activities directed toward establishing, developing, and maintaining successful relational exchanges. (R. M. Morgan & Hunt, 1994, p. 22)

All in all, RM's prime challenges are to enhance and maintain relationships. Nevertheless, establishing relational exchanges and, if necessary, ending them belong to the purpose of RM[40] as well (Grönroos, 2015).

Reading the aforesaid, it might seem like RM is a well-defined, thoroughly-researched marketing discipline. Though, assessing RM's current condition unveils an ailing patient that needs revitalisation (Gummerus, von Koskull, & Kowalkowski,

[40] Following Grönroos (2015), the purpose of RM is "[…] to identify and establish, maintain and enhance, and when necessary terminate relationships with customers (and other parties) so that the objectives regarding economic and other variables of all parties are met. This is achieved through a mutual making and fulfilment of promises" (Grönroos, 2015, p. 281, cited in Grönroos, 2017, p. 218).

2017; Payne & Frow, 2017; Sheth, 2017). Firstly, RM never converged "into a cohesive marketing practice or a discipline", and despite Morgan and Hunt's (1994) introduction of trust and commitment to the field, RM never evolved "into a theory with propositions to be empirically tested" (Sheth, 2017, p. 7). Secondly, RM lacks a clear conceptual delimitation from other concepts and practices, like customer relationship management (CRM), database marketing, customer management, segmentation, or managing loyalty programs (Payne & Frow, 2017; Sheth, 2017). Overall, Sheth (2017) diagnosed: "Unfortunately, research in RM currently resembles the proverbial five blind men and the elephant. It means different things to different scholars and practitioners" (p. 7).

Hereinafter, we follow the delineations and interrelations of RM, CRM, and customer management as depicted in Figure I-10 (Frow & Payne, 2009; Payne & Frow, 2017). In particular, we focus on the management of business to customer (B2C) relationships. That is to say; we concentrate on a specific RM strategy, namely CRM.

Relationship Marketing
Strategic management of relationships with all relevant stakeholders. These include not only customers, but also suppliers, influencers, referral sources, internal markets, etc.

CRM
Strategic management of relationships with customers, involving appropriate use of technology. Technology is an important enabler but not the focus.

Customer Management
Implementation and tactical management of customer interactions involving aspects such as Campaign management, call centre management, sales force automation, etc.

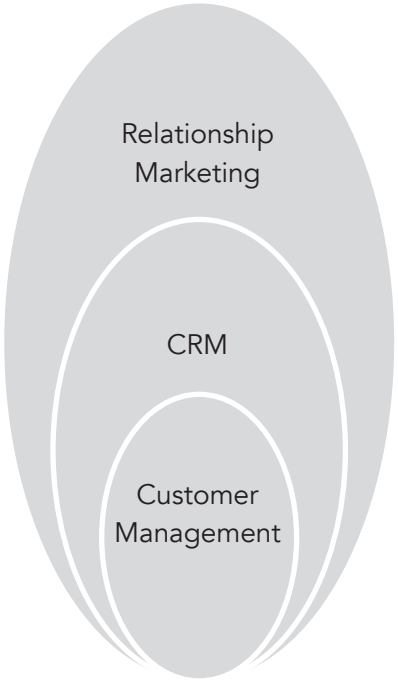

Figure I-10. Relationship marketing, CRM and customer management

Note. Adapted from Payne and Frow (2017, p. 12). Delineations are direct quotes.

1.1 Customer relationship management

The opposite of a business–customer relationship is the discrete transaction[41]. It is low in content; additionally the identities of the buyer and seller are ignored (F. R. Dwyer et al., 1987). As soon as an exchange goes beyond a discrete transaction, relational elements sneak in and "the marriage" between seller and buyer begins. Yet, "how good the marriage is depends on how well the marriage is managed by the seller" (Levitt, 1983, p. 111, cited in Dwyer et al., 1987, p. 14). One could say, the seller endeavours to convince buyers to renounce polygamy or serial monogamy[42] and enter a committed relationship based trust (R. M. Morgan & Hunt, 1994). Finally, the strategic arrangement and management of this marriage (buyer–seller relationship), with the implicit long-term goal to maximise the seller's profit, is called CRM.

> CRM is a cross-functional strategic approach concerned with creating improved shareholder value through the development of appropriate relationships with key customers and customer segments. It typically involves identifying appropriate business and customer strategies, the acquisition and diffusion of customer knowledge, deciding appropriate segment granularity, managing the co-creation of customer value, developing integrated channel strategies and the intelligent use of data and technology solutions to create superior customer experiences. (Frow & Payne, 2009, p. 11)

In a nutshell, CRM is the appropriate management of existing and future buyer–seller relationships. Yet, relationships in general, and buyer–seller relationships in particular are complex and highly diverse. Accordingly, a comprehensive approach to CRM should include a clarification of what a relationship is (Blois, 1996).

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[41] "A one-time purchase of unbranded gasoline out-of-town at an independent station paid for with cash approximates a discrete transaction" (F. R. Dwyer, Schurr, & Oh, 1987, p. 12).
[42] The term "serial monogamy" has been transferred from Wright (1995).

1.1.1 Ambiguity of relationships and relationship quality

Being in a relationship means to be connected in some way. In other words, a relationship is "a state of being connected" (Oxford Dictionaries, 2018b). The quality of a buyer–seller relationship may vary vastly (Blois, 1996) between:

being briefly connected during – and only because of – a onetime interaction[43],	and	an interdependent, continuous, trustful, and dynamic association[44].

We consider these two states the extremes on a relationship-quality-continuum. Relationship quality being the quality of a buyer–seller relationship *as perceived by the customer* (Crosby, Evans, & Cowles, 1990) and the "overall assessment of the strength of a relationship, conceptualized as a composite or multidimensional construct capturing the different but related facets of a relationship" (Palmatier, Dant, Grewal, & Evans, 2006, p. 138). Accordingly, we label the former relationship type *calculated exchange* (relationship quality is low, i.e. the relationship is weak) and the latter *symmetrical partnership*[45] (relationship quality is high, i.e. the relationship is strong). Both extremes, as well as any hybrid form along the continuum, might be a buyer's optimal relationship[46], once he/she perceives that a mutual way of thinking between her/him and the seller exists (Grönroos, 2000b).

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[43] Only just beyond what F. R. Dwyer et al. (1987) labelled a discrete transaction.

[44] Attributes taken form Ferrand (2012, p. 242), who used these to describe relationship definitions by F. R. Dwyer et al. (1987), Hakansson and Snehota (1995), and Barnes (2003).

[45] We added the adjective *symmetrical*, drawing on the *asymmetry* in available information for buyers and sellers (Akerlof, 1970). Until the rise of the internet-age, buyers often knew less than the sellers about the products they were purchasing. Moreover, buyers did not have the chance to spread the word widely if they were sold scrap. Therefore, in a world with this kind of information asymmetry, the guiding principle was "*caveat emptor*—buyer beware" (Pink, 2013, p. 49, emphasis in original). Facebook, Twitter, price-comparison and product-assessment sites levelled information asymmetry to the benefit of buyers. Now, the buyer has just as much information available as the seller, plus he/she has "the means to talk back" and spread the word easily. Ergo, "in a world of information parity, the guiding principle is *caveat venditor*—seller beware" (Pink, 2013, p. 50, emphasis in original). Hence, in a *symmetrical partnership,* the parties involved share available information, communicate on an equal footing, and solve complications internally. On that basis, every relationship interaction is an affirmation of it and an investment in it.

[46] The term 'optimal relationship' was chosen in reference to the theory of "flow", i.e. the "optimal experience" by Csikszentmihalyi (1990/2008).

Overall, researchers have suggested that *close and strong* buyer–seller relationships exhibit at least decent levels of trust, commitment, and satisfaction with the relationship (e.g. Palmatier et al., 2006). In online retailing, it seems to be similar (Verma, Sharma, & Sheth, 2016). Yet, the rich diversity of buyer–seller ecosystems require less profound relationship designs as a function of the relationship's expediency and appropriateness (Blois, 1996). Corresponding relationship definitions, not focusing on commitment, trust, mutual dependency, or persistence, read as follows:

> A relationship has developed when a customer perceives that a mutual way of thinking exists between customer and supplier or service provider. (Grönroos, 2000b, p. 33)

> A relationship develops between a customer and an organization when there are benefits to both from one or more exchanges. (Bhattacharya & Bolton, 2000, p. 329)

Furthermore, Ferrand (2012, p. 242) summarised Sheth and Parvatiyar's (2000) understanding of relationships as "arrangements where two or more agencies enter into agreements to work with each other at any point along a continuum from pure transaction to total integration". In line with these definitions, we believe a relationship includes one or multiple beneficial exchanges (Bhattacharya & Bolton, 2000) and may range from pure transaction(s) to total integration (Sheth & Parvatiyar, 2000), whereby its strength may range from weak to strong.

1.1.2 Customer-centric relationships and promise theory

Notwithstanding the diverse natures of buyer–seller relationships, sellers that aim to develop and maintain relationships, are well-advised to offer *customer-centric relationships* (Grönroos, 2017). Referring to promise theory (Calonius, 1986/2006), a customer-centric relationship exists if promises made by the seller are fulfilled in accordance with the buyer's ideas (Grönroos, 2017). That is to say, the pure fulfilment

of promises is not enough to cultivate long-lasting relationships. Making promises[47] is a function of marketing, keeping them is the basic prerequisite for long-term relationships, though *how* promises are fulfilled affects a customer's willingness to commit to a relationship, continue buying, and pay a given price (Grönroos, 2017).

The management of customer-centric relationships requires a profound understanding of the customers' quality definition, their available resources, and their supplementary, sometimes unconscious, agenda besides using/experiencing the product's or service's core process for which they are buying it in the first place, i.e. value selling[48] (Grönroos, 2017). If done right, customer-centric relationships increase the chances to delight customers with superior experiences and, in the long run, generate improved shareholder value (Frow & Payne, 2009).

1.1.3 Relationship simulations

Earlier we discussed the use of simulations to create hyperrealities and spectacles. By referring to Baudrillard (1970/2017) and Ritzer (2010), we emphasised how simulations (copies, sham objects) blur the line between the real and the fake, the genuine existence and the imitation. This elaboration focused primarily on objects and spectacles. Yet, Baudrillard (1970/2017) argued furthermore that the simulation of relationships is equally prevalent since the consumption of human services includes the consumption of human relationships.

> Modern society is characterized not only by simulated objects, but also by simulated relationships. For example, advertisers are seen as imitating intimate, personal modes of communication in an effort to produce a sense of intimacy where, in fact, none exists. A simulated

[47] Calonius (1984) defined promise as: "Promise is a more or less explicitly expressed conditional declaration or assurance made to another party, or to oneself, with respect to the future, stating that one will do or refrain from some specified act, or that one will give or bestow some specified thing. The action or intentional inactivity called forth by a promise, or a set or bundle of interrelated promises, will occur with some probability in the near or more distant future, and last over a shorter or longer period of time" (Calonius, 1986/2006, p. 422).

[48] "Value selling should also be reflected in the offering to customers. The more the offering includes elements that aim to also support other everyday processes relevant to the customers besides the core process the offering is intended to cover" (Grönroos, 2017, p. 224).

> intimacy is created between people doing the advertising and potential customers, as well as between the latter and the products being advertised. This is but one part of what Baudrillard sees as a generalized game of human relations. Instead of the reciprocity characteristic of primitive societies and symbolic exchange, in modern society we have a gigantic simulation model of such reciprocal human relations. (Paragraph from George Ritzer's introduction to the first edition of Jean Baudrillard's 'The Consumer Society'; Baudrillard, 1970/2017, p. 28)

That is to say, in a market society and especially in the service industry, human relationships are not what they appear to be. They have been "functionalized", representing a "**system of production**" that produces communication, sociability, "radiant" solicitude and "warm" ambience (Baudrillard, 1970/2017, p. 180, emphasis in original). In order to function smoothly and predictably, service relationships have been "cleansed of all temperamental or psychological aspects, cleansed of all real, affective harmonics, and reconstituted on the basis of the calculated vibrations of the ideal relationship"[49] (Baudrillard, 1970/2017, p. 181). Inevitably, this "institutionally and industrially" production and targeted use of human relationships lack spontaneity and entail disenchantment/dissatisfaction (Baudrillard, 1970/2017, p. 180).

1.1.4 Customer segmentation

An integral part of the CRM definition is the segmentation of customers (cf. Frow & Payne, 2009). In fact, it has been argued that a market relevant segmentation of customers is the precondition for successful relationship management (Storbacka, 1997). Accordingly, segment specific marketing actions have a more powerful influence on a brand's performance (T. Bauer, Freundt, Gordon, Perry, & Spillecke, 2016). Scholars defined segmentation as the process of

[49] Paradoxically, the trained suppression of emotions combined with the socially accepted emotion control in society, feeds the intense emotional outbursts of sport spectators. As mentioned earlier, sport becomes a vehicle onto which humans saddle hidden and pent-up feelings that have been banned from society (Maaz, 2017). Looking at emotions from this angle, it questions (at least partially) the often-praised intense emotionality at sporting events.

> dividing a large, heterogeneous market into more homogenous groups of people who have similar wants, needs, or demographic profiles, to whom a product may be targeted. (Mullin, Hardy, & Sutton, 2014, p. 114)

How large or small a segment is, depends, among other things, on the "segment granularity" (Frow & Payne, 2009, p. 11). The segment with the highest level of detail is, at the same time, the smallest segment possible: the individual customer. Twenty years ago researchers predicted that rapidly fragmenting markets will make the *individual customer* the only relevant segment (Storbacka, 1997). Still, "classic" segmentation variables are used to cluster groups of individuals with similar characteristics (cf. Table I-13). Variables are of five different natures: demographic, socio-cultural, geographic, behavioural, and psychographic (Bodet & Bernache-Assollant, 2012; Funk et al., 2016).

Table I-13

Segmentation variables by kind

Demographic	Socio-cultural	Geographic	Behavioural	Psychographic
Gender	Social class	Urban/rural	Frequency of service use	Attitudes
Age	Race	Postcode	Quantity of product purchased	Benefits
Family type	Ethnicity		Social media activities	Motivation
				Personality
				Emotions/thoughts

Note. List is not exhaustive. Content mostly adopted from Funk et al. (2016, pp. 15-16).

I.2 Relationship marketing in sport

Overall, RM in sport pursues the same strategy as in any other industry, namely the "strategic management of relationships with all relevant stakeholders" (Ferrand, 2012; Payne & Frow, 2017, p. 12). Studies that investigated RM in sport have been

divided into three perspectives: a market, a network, and an intra-organisational based perspective (cf. Figure I-11). For a full review see Ferrand and McCarthy (2008, Chapter I), for a brief overview, based on Ferrand (2012, pp. 234-244), see below.

The RM strategies that these three perspectives represent are, at the same time, pivotal sub-systems of a global RM approach. All three should be included in every strategy that is intended to create valuable relationships with key stakeholders (Ferrand & McCarthy, 2008).

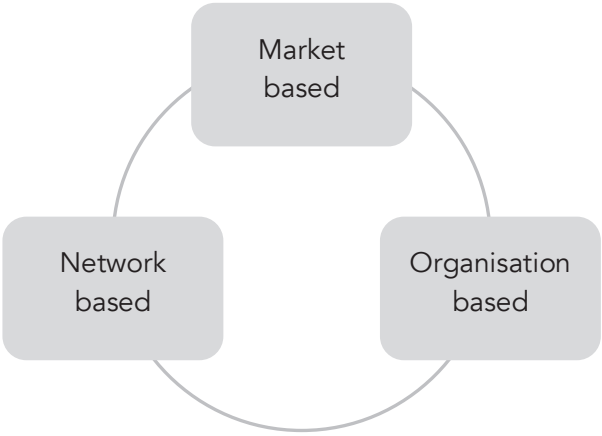


Figure I-11. The three categories of relationships

Note. In reference to Ferrand and McCarthy (2008, p. 49).

1.2.1 RM from a market perspective

The market perspective includes studies that examined the dyadic relationship between sport organisations and customers. Either from the sport consumer's angle (e.g. Bee & Kahle, 2006; McDonald & Stavros, 2007), or from the sport organisation's view (e.g. Kelley, Hoffman, & Carter, 1999; Lachowetz, McDonald, Sutton, & Clark, 2001; McDaniel & Moore, 2005; Stavros, Pope, & Winzar, 2008). In addition, Ferrand (2012) signified the sponsor–sport consumer (Lings & Owen, 2007) and sponsor–sport organisation (Cousens, Babiak, & Bradish, 2006) dyad as important in the sport industry.

1.2.2 RM from a network perspective

The network perspective focuses on collaborative relationships between the various sport organisation's stakeholders (in contrast to the aforementioned market-driven dyads). Here, at least three stakeholders form a system of connections in which all parties affect the network's outcome. Stakeholders are, for example, local authorities, media, fans, and sponsors (Ferrand, 2012).

1.2.3 RM from an intra-organisational perspective

Additionally, Ferrand (2012) emphasised the importance of a third RM perspective. Drawing on Berry (1983), he stressed the significance of an internal angle. On that basis, the intra-organisational support mechanisms for external marketing activities are studied. Business (e.g. Ballantyne, 1997) and management research (e.g. Dunmore, 2002) engaged in this approach and so should sport marketing do (Ferrand, 2012).

1.2.4 CRM in sport

The chameleon-like sport consumers have highly diverse needs, wants, and relationship-expectations (Bodet, 2009b; Bodet et al., 2017; Harris & Ogbonna, 2008). Additionally, while many react exceptionally sensitively to market rhetoric and CRM approaches, considering it an affront to their emotional involvement and a threat to their identity and culture (Adamson et al., 2006; Duke, 2002; Giulianotti, 2005; King, 1997; Oppenhuisen & van Zoonen, 2006), others welcome commodified and market-framed strategies (Bodet et al., 2017). Accordingly, CRM in this sensible and complex consumer environment is a balancing act.

1.2.4.1 The idiosyncrasy of CRM in sport

A sensible and complex consumer environment might not be a unique characteristic of the sport industry. Yet, unique is the extent to which products and services are marketed as offers going beyond making a profit. That is to say, sport consumers and sport organisations are not mere buyers and sellers of products,

services, and experiences. They are also buyers and sellers of a unique symbiotic relationship illusion; a relationship established "*without an instrumental economic agenda*" (D. B. Holt, 2002, p. 83, emphasis added). In that vein, CRM in sport is idiosyncratic, since sport organisations regularly "sell" their services as an authentic experience[50] of which each spectator is an integral and irreplaceable part, while sport consumers are willing to "buy" this relationship illusion.

We believe, sport spectators "have to buy" this illusion to avoid cognitive dissonance (Cooper, 2007; Festinger, 1962) and to keep the enchanting power of sport spectacles alive. To reject the idea of having a relationship, beyond transactions, equals the admission that one makes an *economic investment* in exchange for something ranging from entertainment to self-realisation. After all, this is quite disenchanting since admitting that one is merely a buyer, ultimately turns the experience into the purchase of a staged performance — or worse — a profit-oriented service. In that sense, even sport consumers who are uninterested in a reciprocal relationship and/or are "calculative in their support", yet still emphasise the relationship they have with the respective sport organisation (Harris & Ogbonna, 2008, p. 394). Additionally, relating to an organisation might be facilitated in sport, since, unlike in other industries (Gummesson, 2017), the anonymity between sport organisation and consumers seems to be reduced, as consumers might know players, coaching staff, or the stadium announcer. Yet, "*[i]t is a personal relationship for one party, and a mass relationship for the other*" (Gummesson, 2008, p. 133, emphasis in original).

1.2.4.2 Sport organisations and simulations

By following Baudrillard's (1970/2017) logic, we emphasise that a central aspect of the aforementioned relationship illusion are relationship simulations (e.g. the mass relationship players have with their followers on social media). That is to say, the authenticity that sport organisations promise is not reproduced in the sport

[50] What might play in favour of the sport spectacle's authentic experience is its structuring around authentic sporting achievements. However, to what extend the sporting achievements are inauthentic often remains hidden to the spectator (doping, bribing, etc.).

organisation–sport consumer dyad. All that sport organisations offer are simulated relationships (exceptions might be voluntary and local sport organisations). As such, this practice is no exception in the tertiary sector of services — yet, statements like "the club belongs to the fans", and the club is "more than just a brand", suggest an entitlement to a relationship beyond simulation. In fact, for some, their club is their raison d'être and following the respective sport is much more than a form of entertainment or recreation (Giulianotti, 2005).

Relationship simulations enable sport organisations to strategically produce factors, that have been identified as essential for successful fan relationships; intimacy, interaction, trust, and commitment (Harris & Ogbonna, 2008). Even if only in a signified form (Baudrillard, 1970/2017). Particularly:

> [The professional athlete], [t]he receptionist, the social worker, the public relations consultant, the advertising pin-up girl, all these apostles of the social machine have their secular mission, the gratification, *the lubrication of social relations with the institutional smile*. Everywhere we see advertising aping intimate, intimist, personal styles of communication. It attempts to speak to the housewife in the language of the housewife next door, to speak to the executive or the secretary as a boss or a colleague, to speak to each of us as our friend or our superego or as an inner voice in the confessional mode. It thus produces intimacy where there is none – either among people or between people and products – by a veritable process of simulation. (Baudrillard, 1970/2017, p. 179, emphasis in original)

Additionally, even if not all sport spectators need or want intimacy, interaction, trust, and/or commitment in their relationship with a sport organisation (not everyone is interested in a long-term relationship; Bodet et al., 2017; Harris & Ogbonna, 2008), simulations offer and enable "continual consumption of solicitude, sincerity and warmth (…) in a system where social distance and atrociousness of social relationships are the objective rule" (Baudrillard, 1970/2017, pp. 178-179).

All in all, since the corporatisation of sport clubs (including the advent of marketing efforts to draw in more and therefore new types spectators; A. J. Walsh & Giulianotti, 2001), the profit- and performance oriented sport organisations became

part of the system of everyday consumption that packages, markets, and merchandises human relations (Baudrillard, 1970/2017). Therefore, sport organisations cannot give the relationship they are promising. Eventually, the excessive, calculative use of relationship simulations and relationship building efforts may, in the long term, endanger sport's reenchanting potential. Additionally, it underscores the abandonment of sport's "traditional norms and ethos in favor of a degrading form of entertainment" (A. J. Walsh & Giulianotti, 2001, p. 60, in reference to football).

Now, even the best CRM practices may never dissolve the simulation-character of a sport organisation–consumer relationship. Though, in order to counteract a sport consumers dissatisfaction, sport organisations may artificially reduce a relationship's 'simulated-feel' and its 'simulation-indicators' through personalised simulations, i.e. personalised CRM strategies. Finally giving sport consumers – notwithstanding their chameleon-like nature – a simulation of the relationship format *they* want[51].

Offering a customer-centric relationship like this means, understanding when and how to reduce/eliminate noticeable market-oriented behaviour and language. Furthermore, applying the optimal "connotation of reciprocity and 'warmth'", when surrounding each sport consumer with just the right amount of "fake spontaneity, 'personalized' language, orchestrated emotions and personal relations" (Baudrillard, 1970/2017, p. 179). The starting point to a relationship of this kind is market relevant segmentation.

1.2.5 From typologies to segment-specific CRM strategies

In Section Two, we introduced several studies and approaches how researchers and practitioners have modelled customer diversity in sports (cf. 2 Diversity of sport consumers). There, we focused on the sport consumers' typologies based on demographic, socio-cultural, psychographic, or behavioural information. Now, we take the organisational perspective. We provide examples of academic advice given to

[51] Entering a hyperreality or "(…) simulated and fictitious world. With unrelated substitute identities, superfluous information, banal communication and meaningless gaming" (Maaz, 2017, p. 60).

sport marketers how to leverage market relevant segments through specific CRM actions.

Studies that offer segment-specific marketing advice are, for example, Hunt et al. (1999), Funk (2008), as well as Bouchet et al. (2011). We identified four CRM-strategy-themes that the three studies have in common. These are: experience/entertainment, community/socialising, special status, and self-realisation (cf. Table I-14). Taking a hugely generalising approach, one could argue, marketing actions focusing more on experience/entertainment are advised to implement to less regular/casual consumers (Adamson et al., 2006), whereas the self-realisation approaches tend to be advised for devoted and regular consumers.

Specifically, Hunt et al. (1999) categorised sport fans into five types; temporary, local, devoted, and dysfunctional fan. Focusing on the *temporary fans*, they suggested that these fans are more likely to attend a match or purchase a pay-per-view package if marketers promote it as an exceptional experience. That is to say, not delving on his/her relationship with the sport or athlete — since it is probably quite shallow — but instead highlighting the significance of the event and the possibilities to enjoy it with friends and family to create a joint/social experience (Hunt et al., 1999). A proposed strategy to market a sports team to individuals on the *attachment* and *allegiance stage* is to extend the event experience to non-event days. Additionally, facilitating the fans' self-realisation through endorsing unmanaged, i.e. fan-originated support styles (Funk, 2008). Similarly, and drawing on Carù and Cova (2006b), Bouchet et al. (2011) recommended, marketers should target the *supporter profile* by facilitating "active entrenchment". Thus, offering freedoms to become the experience's independent co-producers.

Table I-14

Common themes in segment-specific CRM strategies

CRM strategies		Author(s) and typologies											
		Hunt et al. (1999)				Funk (2008) [a]				Bouchet et al. (2011) [b]			
Common themes	Marketing actions	Temporary fan	Local fan	Devoted fan	Fanatical fan	Awareness stage	Attraction stage	Attachment stage	Allegiance stage	Aesthete	Opportunist	Interactive	Supporter
Experience Entertainment	– Highlight unique experience	x								x		x	
	– Offer pre-packaged experience									x		x	
	– Add entertainment	x				x	x					x	
Community Socialising	– Link local community to team		x										
	– Emphasise fan community							x	x			x	x
	– Extend community to non-event settings			x	x			x	x				
	– Promote as social event	x				x					x		
Special status	– Personalisation							x	x				
	– Provide "insider information"			x									
	– Trails/Discount promotions					x	x						
Self - realisation	– Facilitate expression of devotion			x	x								x
	– Facilitate bonding with team/team officials							x	x				

Note. List of is not exhaustive. Assignment of marketing actions to the various sport spectator typologies is based on the non-exhaustive recommendations by the cited authors. It does not negate the action's successful applicability to other segments. [a] Based on Funk and James (2001), [b] based on Bourgeon, Bouchet, and Pulh (2003).

1.3 Relationship marketing in football

Market, network and organisation based RM strategies shape the global RM strategy, as well in football (Ferrand, 2012). In what follows, we focus on the market-based strategy, that encompasses the sport organisation–sport consumer dyad. That is to say, we concentrate on CRM strategies implemented in the football industry. Particularly, we analyse sport organisation's efforts to reduce a relationship's "simulation-character".

1.3.1 CRM in football gone wrong

Football clubs have tried to exploit two deeply traditionalist principles of football culture (A. J. Walsh & Giulianotti, 2001). Firstly, "fans identify automatically with their team brand no matter where it sits (that is, regardless of whether it sits on a shirt or a condom)" and secondly, "fans do not switch teams" (A. J. Walsh & Giulianotti, 2001, p. 59). Or in other words, "clubs have not been slow to exploit their captive market of loyal fans" (Duke, 2002, p. 16).

Realising the fans' displeasure with marketing approaches that took their share of heart for granted, relationship building efforts à la CRM were launched but failed (Adamson et al., 2006; Harris & Ogbonna, 2008). Retrospective analyses by consultants and academics stated that these approaches were doomed to fail as the clubs' mixture of transactional and relationship marketing leant towards the former (Adamson et al., 2006). In other words, the approach was too centred on the clubs' needs and objectives (e.g. promoting matches and merchandise), hence too disconnected from the fans' needs (Bodet et al., 2015). The backlash included not just dissatisfied fans, much worse: a loss of the fans' trust since they accused clubs of "'talking the talk' of relationships, but 'walking the walk' of transactional marketing" (Adamson et al., 2006, p. 159). On the whole, the CRM approaches have been perceived as intrusive by fans and bothersome by football consumers not interested in a relationship (Harris & Ogbonna, 2008).

1.3.2 From CRM to FRM

The sport organisations' struggles with CRM have been investigated in the sport marketing literature (e.g. Adamson et al., 2006; Ferrand, 2012; Harris & Ogbonna, 2008). An ever reoccurring suggestion for improvement has been the shift from *Customer* relationship management to *Fan* relationship management (FRM; Adamson et al., 2006). In this context, we call attention to Bodet and Bernache-Assollant's (2012) definition of fans as a "particular type of emotionally committed and strongly identified spectators for whom the issue of the game or the competition is of high importance" (p. 254). Now, this is *not* to say that *Fan* relationship management is a relationship management approach for the emotionally committed and strongly identified sport spectators only. We believe, FRM is a relationship management strategy for the sport organisation–sport spectator dyad, even though the term "fan" deviates here from its original, more specific, definition. In the case of the FRM, "fan" is used as an umbrella term for individuals that consume sport, rather than a sport consumer typology.

The birth of FRM was a wake-up call to appreciate the "unique nature of football as a business, and the special nature of its customers" and to balance the sport organisation's economic needs with the sport spectators' relational needs (Adamson et al., 2006, p. 159). The notion of FRM helped to appreciate the vast relationship spectra and to overcome the idea of the ever-loyal football fan. Respective football-specific analyses read:

> Fans are generally more loyal, but have different levels of loyalty that need to be understood. They like to be involved with the club and characteristically they have many more differing needs from football due to the emotional nature of the game. The football industry could benefit from an appreciation that fans need to be treated like customers but recognised as being fans. (Adamson et al., 2006, p. 168)

> Simply because a customer rejects firm initiatives does not necessarily mean that he or she does not have, want, or desire relational ties. (Harris & Ogbonna, 2008, p. 395)

> Although many firms are understandably focused on customers who respond well to relationship building efforts, practitioners also should acknowledge other, less pliant customers who want a relationship on their terms. Use of conventional relationship-building methods is unlikely to reach such customers. (Harris & Ogbonna, 2008, p. 396)

After all, FRM certainly embodied essential lessons. However, ultimately, it is a sport-specific recentring on fundamental CRM principles: understanding the diversity of customers and implementing segment-specific marketing actions, with the aim to establish the optimal ratio between the firm's economic objectives and the fulfilment of customers' (relational) expectations.

1.3.3 FRM and social media

The rise of social media has changed the way sport is delivered and consumed. Social media has become a highly relevant channel for sport organisations to build and maintain relationships with their customers (for an extensive review of sport and social media research see Filo, Lock, & Karg, 2015).

Brand-related online engagement behaviours, have been categorised in: consuming, contributing, and creating content (Muntinga, Moorman, & Smit, 2011; Schivinski & Dabrowski, 2016). A study on European football club fans found that the main motivations to consume, contribute, or create content are the need for information, empowerment, and brand love[52], respectively. In addition, the need for integration and social interaction is a driver for all three online engagement behaviours (Vale & Fernandes, 2018).

Consequently, FRM actions should focus on satisfying the sport consumers' needs to gather information, feel empowered, express brand love, and experience integration and social interaction. Concerning relationship building efforts, this is in accordance with further research on football consumers. As for some, receiving

[52] Information: Accessing information directly from brands and learning from other consumers. Empowerment: Being an opinion maker, influence other consumers or brands (Vale & Fernandes, 2018). Brand love: "The degree of passionate emotional attachment a satisfied customer has for a particular trade name" (Carroll & Ahuvia, 2006, p. 81, cited in Vale & Fernandes, 2018, p. 42).

relevant and timely information is enough to feel in a relationship with the team (Bodet et al., 2017), although there is "little evidence of mutuality, intimacy, and interaction between them and their respective clubs" (Harris & Ogbonna, 2008, p. 394). Technological companies have decoded the sport consumers' needs similarly:

> Fans want to connect with their communities and teams to stay current on news and team info, know what's going on, receive services, and be able to gather with nearby friends to socialize and watch games. They want to make requests and stay connected in a way that is frictionless and intuitive and promotes a greater sense of community and fan unity. (Microsoft, 2017a, p. 9)

Accordingly, the latest online FRM strategies aim at satisfying exactly the mentioned needs. For example, the football club Real Madrid C.F. uses social media and their "Fan App[53]" to disseminate information and reinforce brand love. While furthermore promoting a fan's integration in the "fan community" that provides opportunities for social interaction and empowerment:

Information:

- "Access content anywhere in the world (…) gain virtual access to the stadium before, during, or after each game; to search data on all the club's players, past and present; and to explore club statistics" (Microsoft, 2017a, p. 17).
- "(…) and to give them what they want from us, *such as exclusive content*, and bring them closer to the club" (Sánchez, CEO of Real Madrid C.F. cited in, Microsoft, 2016, emphasis added).

[53] Mobile application. Fans use it to gain insights and connect with other fans. The club uses it to gather data and set up fan profiles. "We're trying to get as much data as possible about our fans, so we can personalize what we offer them (…)" (Sanz, Commercial General Manager Real Madrid C.F. cited in, Microsoft, 2017b).

Brand love:

- "Use technology to personalize unforgettable experiences for your customers and *create deep emotional interactions*" (Microsoft, 2017a, p. 4, emphasis added).
- "They [fans] share their [athletes and teams] triumphs and feel the bitter disappointment of failure. Above all they want to be part of it, *to be up close and personal, to share the love*" (Microsoft, 2015, p. 6, emphasis added).

Integration

- "We have compelling services and make our fans *feel* that they are an *important and strategic part of the action*, whether at the venue or around the world" (Microsoft, 2017c, p. 12, emphasis added).
- "(…) *connecting this huge community* of people and making the experience of being a supporter of Real Madrid much better" (Sánchez, CEO of Real Madrid C.F. cited in, Microsoft, 2016, emphasis added).

To conclude, social media made it easier for sport organisations to gather consumers' data. Through algorithms, the data is used to *strategically produce* personalised communication that, as we mentioned before, is often perceived as having a relationship with the club. Additionally, the community controlled by the club – keyword: brandom (Guschwan, 2012) – might help to ignore the relationship's simulated character, since it makes them *"feel* that they are an important and strategic part of the action" (Microsoft, 2017c, p. 12, emphasis added). Lastly, this relates to our previous statement that a market-driven relationship cannot be free of simulations, yet its "simulated-feel" can be decreased artificially through personalised CRM strategies; However, revealing the ultimate goal of the *global entertainment-capitalism*[54]:

[54] The term 'global entertainment-capitalism' is taken from v. Cranach et al. (2018, p. 115).

> The Microsoft cloud allows us to establish a relationship that is more personal, is more direct with the fans. Now the opportunities we have in front of us are infinite. (de los Santos, New Media Director, Real Madrid C.F. cited in, Microsoft, 2017c, p. 17)

> Now we can target a communication strategy, tailor-made for every single fan, no matter who or *where* they are. The capabilities of our digital platform are impacting every single function and activity, including our *digital revenues, which are growing 30 percent a year.* (de los Santos, New Media Director, Real Madrid C.F. cited in, Microsoft, 2017a, p. 16, emphasis added)

1.3.4 Marketization of relationships on national football level

It has been argued that CRM issues and resistance to marketization within professional club football spectatorship are equally applicable on national football level (Bodet et al., 2017; Bouchet, Hillairet, & Bodet, 2013). It is applicable insofar that national football teams and national football associations – just as professional football clubs and their teams – employ profit-seeking management practices and marketing rhetoric. On that note, Bodet et al. (2017) presumed that "they [the CRM issues and marketization resistance] could potentially be amplified in the context of national football associations due to the importance of national identity and symbolism" (p. 10). However, what they found is the opposite:

> Overall, and possibly in contradiction with numerous publications, the fans from the three countries did not express clear opposition or resistance towards the marketization of their relationships towards their national teams and associations. English fans seemed quite natural or indifferent, while Armenian and Lithuanian fans presented many characteristics of brandom, demonstrating an appetite for this marketization. (Bodet et al., 2017, p. 23)

An explanation for these attitudes toward CRM approaches and marketization are the overall less commodified societies from which the parts of the data was gathered (Armenia and Lithuania). Therefore, their appetite for marketization could be considered just the initial step in the consumption culture cycle (Bodet et al., 2017).

Referring to Illouz (2009), the authors argued that through further advancement in this cycle, Armenians and Lithuanians might adapt their attitudes and become more resistant in the longer term (Bodet et al., 2017).

2 OF DYADS AND TRIADS

So far, we structured our writing mostly around what Gummesson (2008) called the "classic dyad – the relationship between the supplier and the customer". With reference to sport, we also presented the notion of network and intra-organisational relationships (Ferrand & McCarthy, 2008). Anyhow, the evolutions in digital, mobile, and social technology are changing the dynamics of seller–buyer relationships. The developments in communication, customer interaction, and technological cross-linkage of even the most remote stakeholders, impact the evaluation of firms, their brands, products, service offers and customer service experience performances (Payne & Frow, 2017).

Information about a firm's potentials and issues, profits and losses are now "instantly available to a much larger number of stakeholders, whose relationships may be highly important to a firm's success" (Payne & Frow, 2017, p. 13; cf. "caveat venditor—seller beware", Pink, 2013). Therefore, researchers suggested rethinking the classic dyad and the network of stakeholder relationships and consider the *ecosystems* in which buyer–seller relationships are established. Thereby including the firm's operational environment and non-immediate relationships that have an impact on the welfare of the firm (Payne & Frow, 2017).

2.1 Dissecting the sport organisation–consumer relationship

The technological advancements and constant change in the buyers' demands and expectations (cf. Section Two – The demand side) fuel the dynamics of seller–buyer relationships also in sport. We believe, these developments demand a shift away from the traditional sport organisation–consumer dyad to more holistic approaches (Ferrand, Chappelet, & Séguin, 2012), which is also in line with those who suggested studying relationship ecosystems (Payne & Frow, 2017). However, before exploring whole ecosystems, we ought to thoroughly examine the relationships within the closest environment of the sport organisation–consumer relationship.

2.1.1 Anthropomorphising the sport organisation

A relationship between the sport organisation and the sport spectator comes into being if an exchange goes beyond a discrete transaction (F. R. Dwyer et al., 1987). When evaluating one's relationship partner – in the case of a sport organisation rather a latent concept than a person – sport consumers tend to humanise, i.e. anthropomorphise, the organisation (Kim & Trail, 2011). Meaning, they attribute human characteristics like honesty, reliability, selfishness, or ungratefulness to the respective club/federation/team. Referring to Fournier (1998), Kim and Trail (2011) argued that this tendency to "humanize an inanimate object is an essential condition for the consumer–object relationship metaphor to be legitimate because the tendency suggests the willingness to embrace the object as a relationship partner" (p. 58). Similarly, even if a sport consumer feels like being in a relationship with an individual that represents the sport organisation, it is rarely comparable to personal friendship[55].

> *It is a personal relationship for one party, and a mass relationship for the other; the fans 'know' their stars as individuals, but the stars usually know their fans as anonymous audiences.* The role and the stage personality are perceived as real, and get mixed up with the private person. (Gummesson, 2008, p. 133, emphasis in original)

Then, professional athletes and club legends rather become "symbols of lifestyles, beauty, strength and smartness" (p. 132), which are used by the organisation to "add credibility and popularity to products and services, and to boost images" (Gummesson, 2008, p. 133).

2.1.2 Sport marketing's classical dyad

In sport marketing studies, classically the suppliers/sellers of a product or service are clubs or teams (e.g. Bodet & Chanavat, 2010; Bodet et al., 2013; Chanavat &

[55] In fact, Gummesson (2008, p. 130) considered relationships of this kind as "Parasocial relationships", since a relationship is not established with an individual as such, but with an individual who symbolises the (sport) organisation. In other words, it is a relationship *besides* ('para' in Greek) the relationship between individuals (Gummesson, 2008, pp. 130-137 for further details).

Bodet, 2009; Kerr & Gladden, 2008; Tapp & Clowes, 2000; Wann & Branscombe, 1993), leagues (Bouzdine-Chameeva et al., 2015; J. P. Doyle et al., 2013) or, in more general terms, sport consumptive objects (e.g. Bourgeon & Bouchet, 2001; Hunt et al., 1999; Pons et al., 2006). The customers/buyers are sport participants or spectators. These studies were part of the preliminary sport spectator typology analysis[56]. In these, the sport spectators were characterised according to their behaviours, attitudes, experiences, or motivations toward some sporting entity. Overall, some studies gave brief insights into the dyad's relationship quality.

Kim and Trail (2011) focused solely on a sport organisation–sport consumer dyad and its relationship quality (cf. Figure I-12). They structured their study around a conceptual framework for understanding relationships between sport organisations and sport consumers.

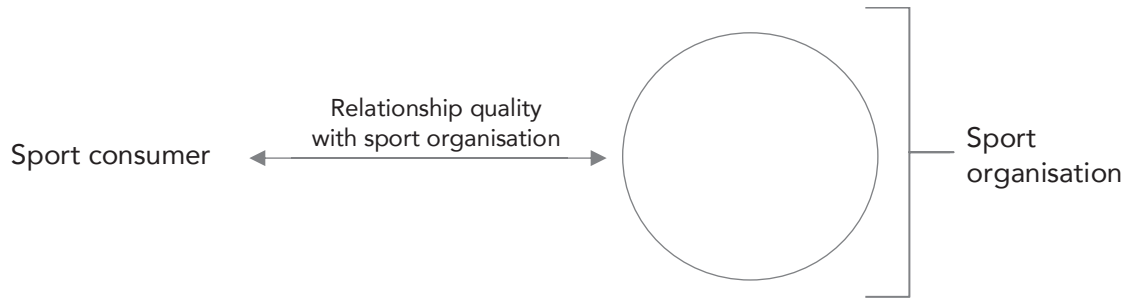


Figure I-12. The sport organisation–sport consumer dyad

They argued that the relationship quality between a sport organisation and a sport consumer depends on trust, commitment, intimacy, self-connection, and reciprocity (cf. Figure I-13). Furthermore, Kim and Trail (2011) stressed that the relationship quality is directly linked to a sport spectators consumption behaviours, such as consuming the sport organisation's service via the media, purchasing licensed merchandise, attending matches, or engaging in Word of Mouth (WoM). Referring to

[56] Bodet and Chanavat (2010); Bodet et al. (2013); Bodet et al. (2017); Bourgeon and Bouchet (2001); Bouzdine-Chameeva et al. (2015); Chanavat and Bodet (2009); J. P. Doyle et al. (2013); Funk and James (2001); Giulianotti (2002); Harris and Ogbonna (2008); Hunt et al. (1999); Kerr and Gladden (2008); Pons et al. (2006); Tapp and Clowes (2000); Wann and Branscombe (1993)

Schwarz and Hunter (2008), they justified the choice of the four consumption behaviours as being the outcomes of primary importance to sport organisations. Conclusively, Kim and Trail (2011) emphasised that the relationship quality's influence on the behavioural outcomes is moderated by the sport consumer's psychological (e.g. relationship styles, relationships drive, general interpersonal orientation) and demographic characteristics. Altogether, the authors suggested that high levels in the sport organisation–sport consumer relationship quality increase consumption behaviours (Kim & Trail, 2011).

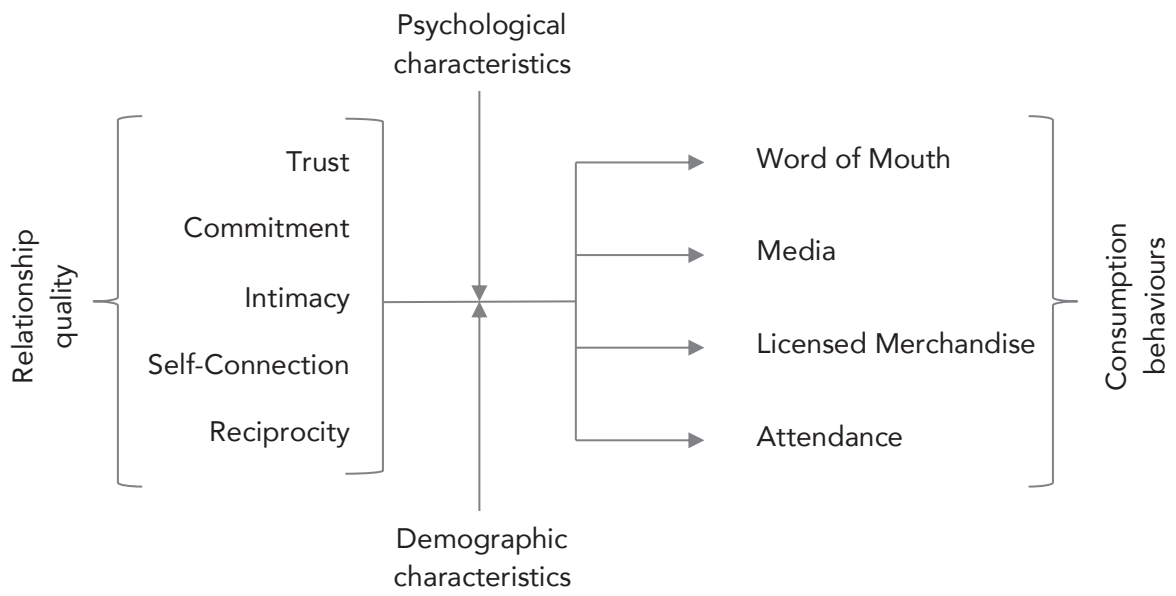


Figure I-13. Conceptual relationship quality framework by Kim and Trail (2011)

We believe, the framework by Kim and Trail (2011) is an illustrative example of how the sport organisation–sport consumer dyad and its outcomes can be modelled. Yet, they bypassed a sport organisation definition, but emphasised that sport organisations are comprised of various constituents and the interaction between sport consumers and the sport organisation's constituents is an integral part of a sport organisation's service (Kim & Trail, 2011).

2.1.3 Sport organisation's constituents

The various natures of the sport organisation–sport consumer relationships have been thoroughly emphasised (e.g. Adamson et al., 2006; Bodet et al., 2017; Harris & Ogbonna, 2008; Kim & Trail, 2011). Hitherto, we used the general term *sport organisation* to describe an entity to which a sport spectator may establish a relationship of whatever kind. Yet, while we rendered more precisely what lies behind the term sport spectator/consumer (cf. 2 Diversity of sport consumers), we did not specify the term *sport organisation*. This 'non-specification' might be due to its utilisation as an umbrella term to delineate the "service organizations" team and club (Harris & Ogbonna, 2008, p. 383).

Ferrand and McCarthy (2008) offered a sport organisation definition. They portrayed it as a specific structure within the sport industry. It can be profit (e.g. professional clubs, sport event agency) or non-profit oriented (e.g. federation). Furthermore, a sport organisation is:

> [A]n entity with a juridical personality whose main mission is to contribute to increasing participation in sport and developing activities directly linked to sport. (Ferrand & McCarthy, 2008, p. 6)

Altogether, we adopt Ferrand and McCarthy's (2008) definition and interpret it as follows. Sport clubs or sport federations – *including* the team(s) and athletes they govern – are *a specific type* of sport organisation[57] (cf. Figure I-14). Since this study's foci are sport spectator services and the holistic understanding of fan relationship quality, we are specifically interested in governing bodies[58] and their affiliated teams as constituents of the spectator sport realm. That is to say, the governing body (club,

[57] Other types of sport organisations are international sport federations such as the International Volleyball Federation (FIVB), event management agencies (e.g. "AC Management, an independent company created by Team Alinghi (winners of the 31st America's Cup) and the Société Nautique de Genève (SNG), was mandated to manage the organisational and commercial aspects of the 32nd America's Cup"), or Olympique organizing committees (Ferrand & McCarthy, 2008, p. 6).

[58] "A group of people who formulate the policy and direct the affairs of an institution (…)" (Oxford Dictionaries, 2018a).

federation) is the juridical personality, with an administrative mission that also cultivates tradition and "historical continuity" (Guschwan, 2012, p. 23), while the affiliated team is the protagonist of activities directly linked to experiences provided by the respective sport (Ferrand & McCarthy, 2008); Together they form a sport organisation.

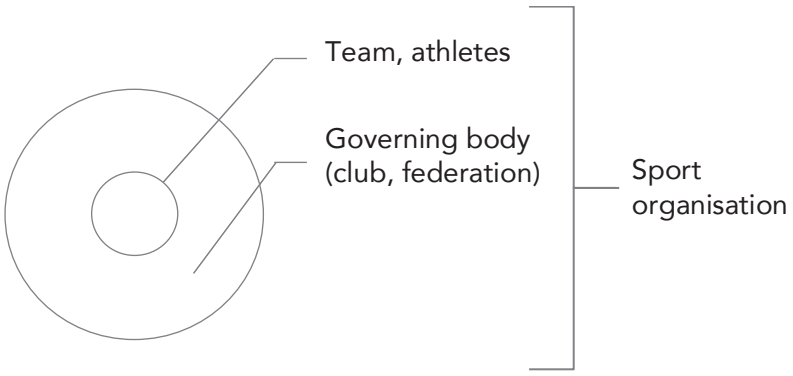


Figure I-14. Sport organisation's constituents

Hereafter, we refrain from using the, for our study, too unspecific term sport organisation. We will differentiate between the team and its governing body, since we endeavour to understand sport spectator relationships more nuanced, therefore analysing the governing body–team–consumer triad.

2.1.4 The sport governing body–team–consumer triad

There are sport marketing studies that explicitly differentiated between the team and its superordinate governing body (e.g. Bodet et al., 2017; Harris & Ogbonna, 2008). They bisected the sport organisation–sport consumer dyad and examined relationship quality factors of the team–sport consumer dyad and the governing body–sport consumer dyad separately (cf. Figure I-15).

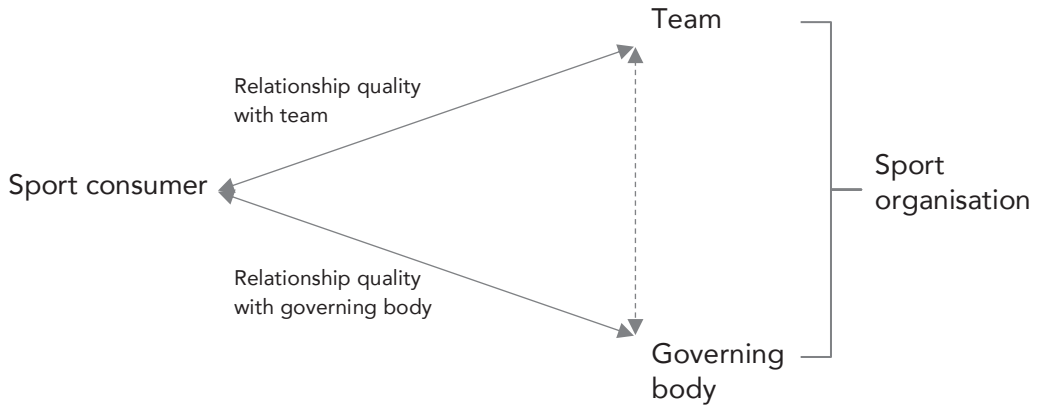


Figure I-15. The bisected sport organisation–sport consumer dyad

Thereby, the authors acknowledged the team–sport consumer and governing body–sport consumer relationships as *two interconnected but separate relationships*. Interconnected in so far, as the governing body and the team are in a structural relationship; additionally, both relationships might influence the spectator's consumption behaviours (Kim & Trail, 2011) if spectators differentiate between the team and governing body. Conclusively, this approach broadened the analysis depth in comparison to other studies investigating the relationship with a single or a combined sporting entity only.

Besides, these studies implicitly took up the subject of sport governing bodies practicing questionable conduct and how this might influence a sport consumer's loyalty to the team (cf. 3.3 Negative customer attitudes due to wilful misconduct). Misconduct and unethical behaviour within sport management might not be a recent development, however, in technological advanced societies dissemination speed of information about such behaviour has risen and the prerogative of interpretation can be subversively undermined. In other words:

> The traditional model of creating carefully-crafted centrally-controlled positive messages and images for stakeholders and communicating these at regular and strategic intervals has gone. Instead, there is also organic and spontaneous commentary – and even activism – unfolding in real time. (Payne & Frow, 2013, p. 157, cited in Payne & Frow, 2017, p. 13)

In their qualitative study on football supporters and non-supporters, Harris and Ogbonna (2008) found two supporter types exhibiting high relational quality with the team and its superordinate governing body, i.e. the club. These are club-connected supporters and die-hard fanatics. The club-connected supporters, as the label suggests, are seekers of a reciprocal relationship with the club. They value interactions with the club highly and are loyal supporters of the team at home and away games. Support on matchdays is an essential part of their relationship-experience. Overall, Harris and Ogbonna (2008) compared these supporters to active-affective customers (Gustafsson, Johnson, & Roos, 2005). They show active-affective commitment to both, the team and the club, which is "a hotter, or more emotional, factor that develops through the degree of reciprocity or personal involvement that a customer has with a company, which results in a higher level of trust and commitment" (Gustafsson et al., 2005, p. 211).

By contrast, the die-hard fanatics mistrust the club. Furthermore, they "resist management attempts at contact or control and maintain their association with the club by focusing on their linkages to the team, which they view as distinct from club management" (Harris & Ogbonna, 2008, p. 394). Therefore, while the die-hard fanatics' commitment to the team is active-affective, the commitment to the club is active but calculative, which is "the colder, or more rational, economic-based dependence on product benefits due to a lack of choice or switching costs" (Gustafsson et al., 2005; Harris & Ogbonna, 2008, p. 211).

2.2 The case of national football teams and national football associations

While Harris and Ogbonna's (2008) study is on professional football clubs and their teams, Bodet et al. (2017) examined national football associations and national football teams. We briefly introduced their research earlier[59], ensuing we focus on their

[59] Cf. 1.3.4 Marketization of relationships on national football level. To recap: Choosing a qualitative methodology, they explored how national football team fans perceive the relationship with their national football association and national football team, and what type of relationship the fans aim to establish with them. For this endeavour, the authors interviewed regular (English fans only), causal, and die-hard fans (cf. spectator typology by Tapp & Clowes, 2000) from different cultures in Europe (Armenia, Lithuania, England).

findings on the relationship quality with national football associations and national football teams, and subtle differences within casual and die-hard fanatical fan[60] groups.

Overall, Bodet et al. (2017) argued that the majority of football fans from Armenia, Lithuania, and England feel like they did not have an active relationship with their national football association and national football team. Yet, usually, this relationship absence is not an issue, but rather considered as the natural state. Beyond that, some fans from Lithuania and England do not expect a close relationship, since they are already highly involved in relationships with the football club they support.

2.2.1 Relationship quality with national football associations and national football teams

Investigating the different relationship qualities with national football associations and national football teams, Bodet et al. (2017) highlighted several issues especially within the national football association–sport consumer relationship. Casual fans argue that it is the national football association that is liable for the absence of a close relationship. They feel that the national football association lacks motivation and enthusiasm for dialogues and interactions. In turn, this adds to the existing dispassionate relationship, as deficiencies in communication intensify the unawareness of national football association's identity and actions (Bodet et al., 2017). The situation is aggravated by the fact that many attest their national football associations poor management. For example, the Armenian fans wish for a close relationship with their national football team but mistrust the association's management board, especially its chairman (cf. die-hard fanatics; Harris & Ogbonna, 2008). Moreover, there are Lithuanian fans that do not participate in grassroots projects initiated by the national football association, due to the national football association's

[60] For the presentations of Bodet et al.'s (2017) study, we follow their use of the label 'fan' instead of our more neutral delineation sport consumer/spectator. Especially because they implemented the typology by Tapp and Clowes (2000), that uses the labels causal fan, regular fan, and die-hard fan.

reputation of being untrustworthy, lacking transparency and accountability (Bodet et al., 2017).

Altogether, and not distinguishing between national football association and national football team, fans consider the directness of interactions as the defining factor of what a relationship is (Bodet et al., 2017). This observation is reflected by the factors that Bodet et al. (2017) identified as the most relevant drivers for fans to perceive a relationship with the national football association and national football team as strong (these are partially similar to what Kim and Trail (2011) conceptualised as relationship quality's defining factors): Frequency of interactions, interactivity (reciprocity), personalisation, proximity (intimacy), and trustworthiness (trust).

In terms of the fans' attachment and loyalty to their national football team, it has been surprising that the differences between casual and die-hard fans have not been as clear as the literature suggests. Instead, differences within the two fan groups were more prominent. For example, casual and die-hard fans could be distinguished in those that are in search for a closer relationship with their national football association and national football team and those who are not (Bodet et al., 2017).

CONCLUSION CHAPTER I

We used Chapter I to give an introduction to the contemporary consumer society with respect to sport in general and football in particular. In three sections we first explored the extent of commodification and rationalisation in sport and football. Secondly, we emphasised how sport consumption is fully integrated into the postmodern culture and portrayed the "chameleon consumer" within it. Additionally, we gave an overview of how the sport marketing literature characterised and classified the heterogenous sport consumer collective. After a brief preface on relationship marketing, we elaborated on the idiosyncrasy of CRM in sport, the use of simulations to satisfy the sport consumer and the struggle to satisfy the diverse sport consumer collective through segment-specific CRM and FRM strategies.

Through focusing on the stream of sport marketing literature that suggests that sport consumer may establish different relationships with a sports team and its sport governing body, we identified a research gap: Quantitative research that models the relationship sport consumers have with a sports team and its sport governing body is – to the best of our knowledge – non-existent. Therefore, we aim to develop a Fan Relationship Management Model (FRM Model) that explores and illustrates the relationship quality of the sport governing body–team–consumer triad.

CHAPTER II – LOYALTY, INDEPENDENT VARIABLES AND THE FAN RELATIONSHIP MANAGEMENT MODEL

In Chapter II we solely concentrate on the variables of the FRM Model and their connections within it which we formulate in 17 hypotheses. At this, the derivation of a Fan loyalty definition is essential and is done in Section One. We use the subsequent Section Two to define the six independent variables of the model and finally present the holistic FRM Model.

Section One – Loyalty

After we presented FRM as the study's guiding theme, we now introduce Fan loyalty. Through a profound examination of loyalty in general, loyalty in sport, and loyalty in football we deduce a two-dimensional Fan loyalty definition. Notably, we investigate the antecedences and facets of the attitudinal dimension of loyalty and explore the diversity of behaviours that constitute the behavioural dimension. We conclude the section with our first hypothesis, in this way initiating the development of the FRM Model. Overall, we implement Fan Loyalty as:

1. An indicator of how successful a relationship is in the eyes of a sport organisation,
2. a criterion to establish sport spectator profiles on, and,
3. a solution approach to customer acquisition and retention in sport.

1 LOYALTY

In marketing one of the most discussed concepts is brand loyalty. Since decades scholars devoted their passion and time to the conceptualisation of it (Day, 1969; Dick & Basu, 1994; Hallowell, 1996; Harris & Goode, 2004; Iwasaki & Havitz, 1998; Jacoby & Kyner, 1973; Oliver, 1999; Pritchard, Havitz, & Howard, 1999; Reichheld & Teal, 1996; Russo, Confente, Gligor, & Autry, 2016; Yi & Jeon, 2003).

At the very start of brand loyalty research, it was mostly conceptualised as the number of purchases of a brand relative to the total amount of products bought (Carman & John, 1967 cited in Day, 1969). This implied that the early conceptualisations of brand loyalty were characterised by the repurchases of a certain product or service. Scholars equated the behavioural pattern of frequent rebuying a specific brand with the preference of this brand over others.

Day (1969) and Newman (1966) challenged the idea of equating repetitive behaviour, purchasing the same product or service regularly, with a general preference of the brand over others. In this context, Day (1969) emphasised the work of Moulson (1965), who stated that repurchasing behaviour might occur because of an absence of alternatives, superior presentation or ongoing price promotion; but not as a result of preference of the brand.

Repurchasing a brand for one or more of the aforementioned reasons was labelled "spurious loyalty" (Day, 1969; Moulson, 1965), as it lacks "any attachment to brand attributes, and they [the spurious loyal buyers] can be immediately captured by another brand that offers a better deal, a coupon, or enhanced point-of-purchase visibility through displays and other devices" (Day, 1969, p. 30). Therefore, by relying solely on behavioural measures to capture brand loyalty, true loyal buyers, who are attached to a brand, cannot be distinguished from other individuals repurchasing a brand (Day, 1969). "One immediate implication of this view is that loyalty should be evaluated with both attitudinal *and* behavioral criteria" (emphasises added; Day, 1969, p. 30). This new approach, objected the view of Tucker (1964), who stated "no

consideration should be given to what the subject thinks or what goes on in his central nervous system; his behavior is the full statement of what brand loyalty is" (Tucker, 1964, cited in Jacoby & Kyner, 1973, p. 7). The emphasis on a dual view of loyalty probably has been the foundation of four and a half decades of brand loyalty research.

In the following, the dual view on brand loyalty is depicted more closely, but before the consequences of a loyal customer are presented.

1.1 Consequences of loyalty

The ongoing interest in brand loyalty research, beside academia's inexhaustible thirst for knowledge, might be the positive economic consequences a loyal customer base bears for companies (e.g. Chaudhuri & Holbrook, 2001; Day, 1969; Evanschitzky et al., 2012; Reichheld, 1993, 2003; Reichheld & Sasser, 1990; Reichheld & Teal, 1996; Srinivasan, Anderson, & Ponnavolu, 2002). Reichheld and Teal (1996) described brand loyalty as a "hidden force", which drives profits. Similarly, Chaudhuri and Holbrook (2001) portrayed loyal customers as drivers of brand profitability. In short, loyal customers are considered more profitable than non-loyal customers (Reichheld & Sasser, 1990). Furthermore, authors found loyalty effects that in last consequence increase a firm's profit (cf. Figure II-1). These are low price elasticises (Reichheld & Sasser, 1990), contribution to greater market share (Chaudhuri & Holbrook, 2001), willingness to pay more (Srinivasan et al., 2002), reduction of customer acquisition costs (Reichheld, 2003), and the increase of the firm's share-of-customer (Evanschitzky et al., 2012). The summary of brand loyalty's consequences exhibits that brand loyal customers contribute to profits by generating revenue and helping the firm to reduce costs (e.g. customer acquisition costs; Reichheld, 2003).

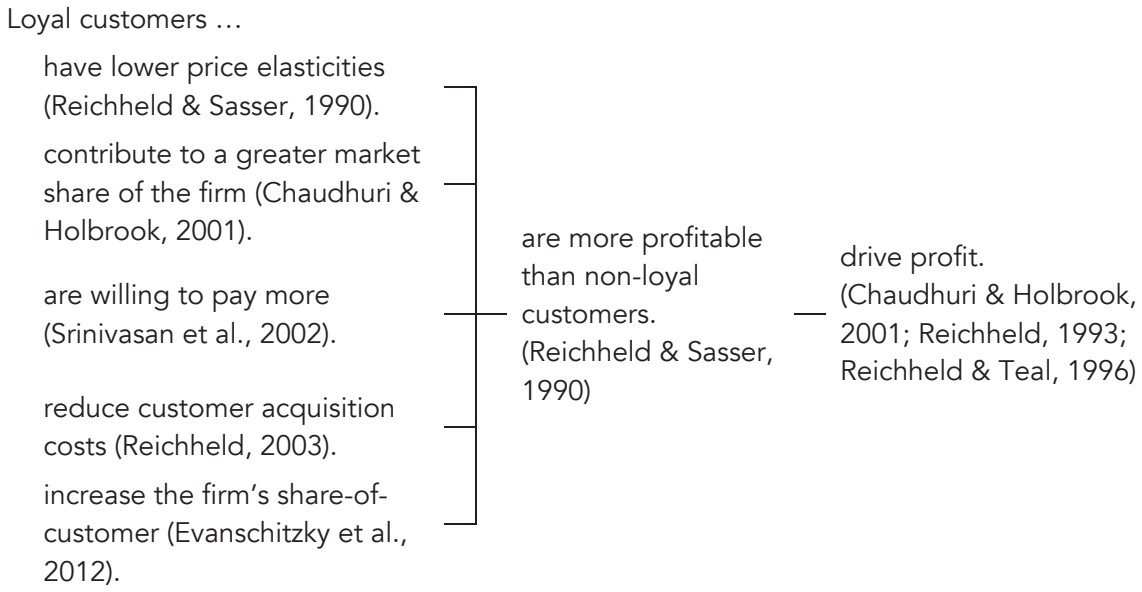


Figure II-1. Consequences of loyal customers

1.2 The two-dimensional conceptualisation of loyalty

Since Day (1969) most scholars agree on a two-dimensional conceptualisation of loyalty, consisting of an attitudinal and behavioural dimension (e.g. Chaudhuri & Holbrook, 2001; Dick & Basu, 1994). We adapt this conceptualisation, which should ultimately help to understand the "cognitive mechanisms underlying choice behavior" (Jacoby & Chestnut, 1978, pp. 31-32, cited in Dick & Basu, 1994).

In its simplest form the attitudinal dimension of loyalty is a favourable and enduring attitude one has towards a brand. Whereby an attitude is defined as "a summary evaluation of a psychological object" (Ajzen, 2001, p. 28). The repetitive actions related to a brand represent the behavioural dimension. Mostly this dimension is manifested by the amount of repurchases of a particular brand (e.g. Day, 1969; Dick & Basu, 1994).

A definition that captures the just mentioned two-dimensional conceptualisation of loyalty can be found in Chaudhuri and Holbrook (2001):

> Brand loyalty in this study includes both purchase and attitudinal loyalty. Purchase loyalty is defined as the willingness of the average consumer to repurchase the brand. Attitudinal loyalty is the level of commitment of the average consumer toward the brand. (p. 83)

They label the behavioural dimension as "purchase loyalty" and the attitudinal dimension as "attitudinal loyalty". It can be argued that these labels are ambiguous. By definition loyalty consists of two dimensions. The labels purchase loyalty or attitudinal loyalty are therefore contradicting the definition. If loyalty can only be present through the combination of both, a particular type of behaviour and a particular type of attitude, one element alone cannot be termed loyalty. There can be the attitudinal dimension, criteria, facet, element, or factor of loyalty, but loyalty itself cannot be attitudinal as it lacks its other half/dimension to be called loyalty. The same might be true for purchase loyalty. This term can be misleading as it infers that there is loyalty present, whereas when following the two-dimensional definition, purchase or repurchase can only be dimension, criteria, facet, element, or factor of loyalty as it lacks its other half to be termed loyalty. For this reason, we will avoid using the terms attitudinal loyalty and behavioural loyalty.

Although attitudes are predominantly referred to as guiding behaviour (e.g. Ajzen, 1989; Ajzen & Fishbein, 2005; Crosby & Taylor, 1983; Jacoby & Chestnut, 1978), the attitudinal and behavioural dimensions can be described as autonomously connected. Both contribute to loyalty independently and influence each other. Consequently, it is the interplay of the attitudinal and behavioural dimensions which results in a degree of loyalty (cf. Figure II-2).

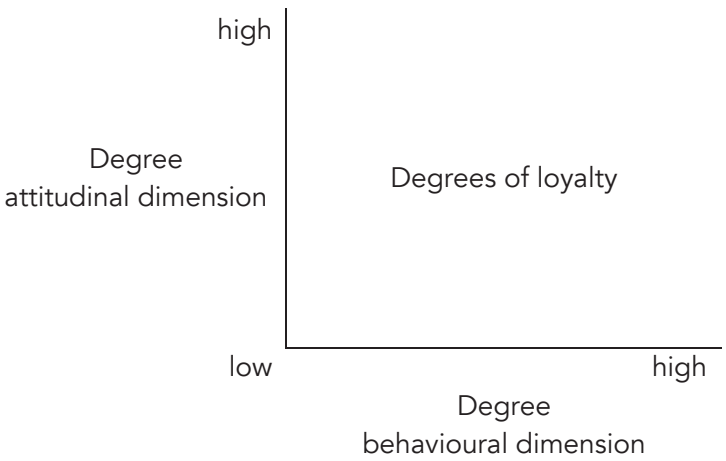


Figure II-2. The two dimensions of loyalty

As briefly mentioned before, the attitudinal dimension of loyalty consists of a favourable and endurable attitude, and the behavioural dimension consists of a repetitive action. If an attitude, or behaviour, does not meet these requirements, loyalty cannot exist. Instead, hybrid forms of it emerge. In reference to Dick and Basu (1994) a loyalty-hybrid-matrix can be found in Figure II-3. The two hybrid forms are spurious loyalty and latent loyalty (Backman & Crompton, 1991; Dick & Basu, 1994). The matrix illustrates the essentiality to conceptualise loyalty as an interplay of a specific type of attitude and behaviour. Particularly, this matrix shows that it is not just the mere existence of behaviour and attitude that will result in loyalty. It is a favourable and enduring attitude and repetitive behaviour. Additionally, both, the attitude and the behaviour have to be present at the same point in time and directed towards the same object to consider an individual loyal without reservations.

		Conditions for behavioural dimension of loyalty met?	
		Yes	No
Conditions for attitudinal dimension of loyalty met?	Yes	Loyalty	Latent Loyalty
	No	Spurious Loyalty	No Loyalty

Figure II-3. Loyalty-hybrid-form-matrix

Note. In reference to Dick and Basu (1994).

As an example, if an individual has a high repurchase rate of a particular brand (behavioural dimension) but fails to have a favourable and enduring attitude towards the brand (attitudinal dimension) the individual's loyalty condition is labelled spurious because one might buy the brand just for external reasons. These reasons can be price, promotion or place in store, but the behaviour will change if another brand, in the same product category, offers a better combination of the marketing mix. By contrast, the combination of a low repurchase rate and a favourable and enduring attitude results in latent loyalty. External constraints keep the individual from expressing its internal state through, for example, purchase of the product. But as soon

as these constraints are removed, by the individual itself or because of other reasons, the individual might engage in behaviours that match his/her inner state.

The aforementioned might be considered the essence of loyalty research, which is: How to distinguish loyalty from behaviour that on the surface appears to reflect loyalty, but lacks its attitudinal support or the other way around. This is important because in the long term loyal customers are more valuable to a firm than non-loyal customers or customers who exhibit any hybrid form of it (Reichheld, 2003; Reichheld & Teal, 1996).

The use of the term customer loyalty instead of brand loyalty shall be mentioned briefly. Brand loyalty was used for loyalty research on frequently purchased packaged goods, but the loyalty concept is relevant in other market economy contexts as well. "Industrial goods (vendor loyalty), services (service loyalty), and retail establishments (store loyalty)" (Dick & Basu, 1994, p. 99). In this vein, the term customer loyalty seemed to overreach the other contexts. We agree on this notion, and for clarity reasons, we will hereafter use the term loyalty.

1.2.1 The attitudinal dimension of loyalty

In the previous subsection, we presented Day's (1969) and Jacoby and Kyner's (1973) idea to add an attitudinal dimension to previous one-dimensional loyalty conceptualisations. Ensuing we present the conceptualisation of attitude.

1.2.1.1 Multicomponent view of attitude

The label, attitudinal dimension of loyalty, already implies that this dimension is based on the theory around the concept of attitude. Research on attitudes is mostly denoted by two names: Icek Ajzen and Martin Fishbein. They defined attitude as follows.

> We are employing the term 'attitude' to refer solely to a person's location on a bipolar evaluative or affective dimension with respect to some object, action, or event. An attitude represents a person's general feeling of favorableness or unfavorableness toward some stimulus object (Fishbein & Ajzen, 1975, p. 216).

Referring back to this definition, Ajzen (1989) emphasised that "all standard attitude scaling techniques result in a score that locates an individual on an evaluative continuum vis-à-vis the attitude object" (p. 242). An attitude object can be a brand, product, service, group, or an individual. Broadly speaking, anything, tangible or not, may be an object towards one forms an attitude. In this study, we adopt the attitude definition by Fishbein and Ajzen (1975). A parsimonious illustration of it can be found in Figure II-4.

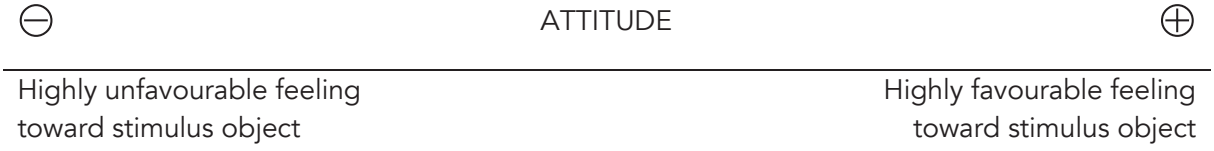


Figure II-4. Illustration of Fishbein and Ajzen's (1975) definition of attitude.

Beside the definition of attitude being a location on an unfavourable-favourable-continuum, a conceptualisation going beyond has been established (Ajzen, 1989). The most prominent is the multicomponent view. It acknowledges that an attitude is formed of three components: a cognitive, an affective, and a conative component. The cognitive component reflects informational determinants or beliefs about the attitude object, the affective component is associated with feeling states involving the object, and the conative component is related to behavioural intentions evoked by the object (Ajzen, 1989). The components can be understood as the results of an evaluation. As soon as an individual is confronted with an attitude object, an evaluation of it is prompted. In the course of the evaluation, the individual "gives" diverse responses to the attitude object. Researchers have categorised these into three types, namely into cognitive, affective, and conative responses. Hence, all responses

that reflect perceptions of, and information about the attitude object, are categorised into the cognitive category. Feelings and emotional states about the attitude object are classified into the group of affective responses. In the conative component, responses are clustered, which reflect behavioural inclinations and intentions. Ultimately, an attitude is inferred from these three types of responses, the three components of attitude (Ajzen, 1989; Rosenberg & Hovland, 1960). The hierarchical model of attitude by Rosenberg and Hovland (1960) illustrates that all three components are defined independently (cf. Figure II-5) "and yet comprise, at a higher level of abstraction, the single construct of attitude" (Ajzen, 1989, p. 245).

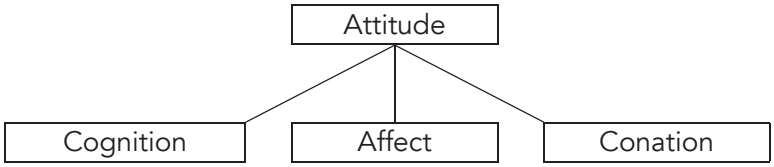


Figure II-5. Hierarchical model of attitude

Note. Illustration based on Rosenberg and Hovland (1960).

In other words, the cognition, affect and conation are first-order factors and attitude is a single second-order factor. Overall, the hierarchical model of attitude served as "the starting point of most contemporary [attitude] analyses" (Ajzen, 1989, p. 245). We adapt this threefold conceptualisation and therefore suggest an evaluative continuum with the two extremes highly favourable/highly unfavourable information, feelings, and intentions toward stimulus object (cf. Figure II-6). The former continuum from "highly unfavourable feeling" to "highly favourable feeling", in our understanding reflects the affective component only.

For loyalty research one might argue it is sufficient to consider the upper end of the continuum only because if a favourable or highly favourable attitude is enduring over time, conditions are met that this attitude is considered the attitudinal dimension of loyalty.

A favourable and continual attitude is commitment (Bansal, Irving, & Taylor, 2004; Gundlach, Achrol, & Mentzer, 1995; Meyer & Allen, 1991; Mowday, Steers, &

Porter, 1979). Therefore the concept of commitment, is often used to conceptualise the attitudinal dimension of loyalty and is the key to distinguish between "brand loyalty and other forms of repeat purchasing behavior" (Jacoby & Kyner, 1973, p. 3). Ensuing, the conceptualisation of commitment is examined in detail.

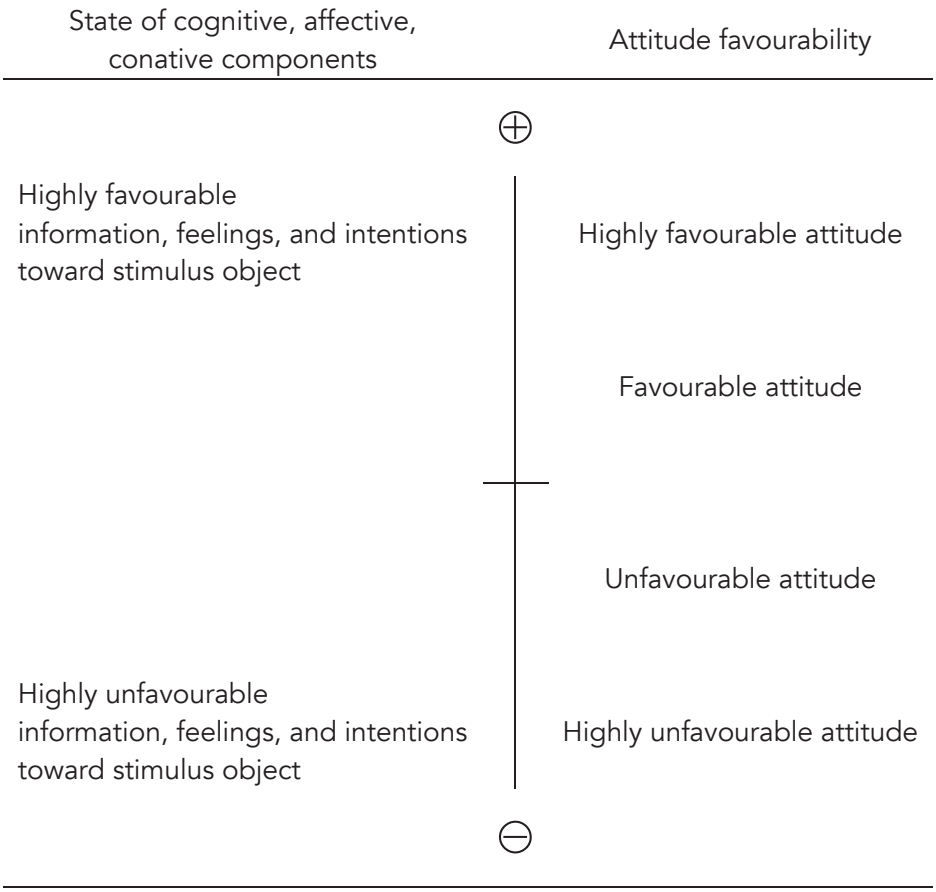


Figure II-6. The two attitude extremes

1.2.1.2 Psychological commitment

In the previous subsection, we have presented the conceptualisation of attitude. In this subsection, we introduce the type of attitude, which has been considered to represent the attitudinal dimension of loyalty (Day, 1969; Jacoby & Kyner, 1973). This type of attitude is favourable, enduring over time, and is labelled commitment.

Day (1969) and Jacoby and Kyner (1973) encouraged their fellow scholars to advance research on the psychological processes underlying repeat purchases: commitment. Day (1969) stated three hypotheses which "merit serious consideration"

(p. 35). One of these was: "Loyalty is based on a rational decision made after an evaluation of the benefits of competing brands. This decision is, in effect a commitment to the brand" (Day, 1969, p. 35). Similarly, Jacoby and Kyner (1973) invited scholars to conceptually elaborate the notion of commitment "so as to accommodate some means of distinguishing among different degrees or strengths of brand loyalty" (p. 8). In the following, we introduce definitions of commitment derived from diverse research contexts. Conceptualisations of commitment specifically in loyalty research are presented in the ensuing subsection.

In the realm of psychology, it was Kiesler and Sakumura (1966), who stated that commitment makes a behaviour less changeable. In sociology, Leik and Leik (1977) set forth that commitment is the "definition of an unwillingness to consider partners other than those in the current relationship" (cited in Moorman, Zaltman, & Deshpande, 1992, p. 316). In consumer research, Crosby and Taylor (1983) defined it as a dynamic concept which is "a tendency to resist change in preference in response to conflicting information or experience" (p.414). In marketing research, it was E. Anderson and Weitz (1992), inspired by the work of F. R. Dwyer et al. (1987), who defined commitment as the "willingness to make short-term sacrifices to maintain the relationship, and a confidence in the stability of the relationship" (p. 19). While Moorman, Deshpande, and Zaltman (1993) termed it an "enduring desire" (p. 316) to maintain it, Meyer and Herscovitch (2001, p. 301), in research on commitment in the workplace, went further and labelled commitment "a force", which "binds an individual to a course of action" (p. 301). Similarly, in the realm of marketing, Bansal et al. (2004) noted that commitment is an attitude "that guides an individual's obvious responses or behavioral intentions to an object" (p. 235; for an overview of the complete definitions see Table II-1). R. M. Morgan and Hunt (1994), as well as Garbarino and Johnson (1999), conceptualised commitment as the key to successful customer relationship management. For them, commitment, among trust, is the central element which distinguishes relational form functional exchanges. A committed

individual believes that a relationship is "worth working on to ensure that it endures *indefinitely*" (emphasis added; R. M. Morgan & Hunt, 1994, p. 23).

Elements of the aforementioned definitions are represented in a threefold conceptualisation of commitment (Gundlach et al., 1995; Meyer & Allen, 1991). Gundlach et al. (1995) specified an attitudinal, a temporal, and an input component. According to them, the attitudinal component reflects the intention to maintain and develop a stable long-term relationship. Similarly, Dick and Basu (1994) emphasised the stronger the attitude, "the more resistant the attitude was to change and the greater its stability" (p. 107). The resistance to change and the stability of an attitude as a characteristic of commitment was additionally highlighted by Gundlach et al. (1995) in the temporal dimension. They explicitly stated that if one is committed, attitudes "must reveal consistency over time" (p. 79). As the third component of commitment, Gundlach et al. (1995) specified an input component. For them, this is a behaviour that shows something "more than a mere promise" (p. 79). To make this point more specific, Gundlach et al. (1995) referred to E. Anderson and Weitz (1992) and Williamson (1985) to state that the input component involves "pledges, credible commitments, idiosyncratic investments, and the dedicated allocation of resources" (p. 79). In our view, this is part of the behavioural dimension of loyalty and not the attitudinal dimension discussed here. Commitment defined by Gundlach et al. (1995), would come close to our understanding of loyalty. In fact, Assael (1987) equated commitment to brand loyalty, saying brand loyalty is "commitment to a certain brand" (p. 665). R. M. Morgan and Hunt (1994) had a similar view and construed commitment comparable to brand loyalty.

Nevertheless, our conceptualisation incorporates an attitudinal component and a temporal dimension but excludes the input (behavioural) component. For us, the nature of commitment is purely attitudinal. To emphasise this, we adopt the term psychological commitment (Crosby & Taylor, 1983) and define psychological commitment as a favourable attitude which is consistent over time, resistant to change,

and that may guide, "fix or freeze behavior" (Crosby & Taylor, 1983, p. 414; Gerard, 1968).

An explanation of why favourable attitudes can be resistant to change, stable over time, and guide behaviour, offer cognitive consistency theories (Crosby & Taylor, 1983; Sheth & Parvatlyar, 1995). In this realm, balance theory (Heider, 1946) or congruity theory (Osgood & Tannenbaum, 1955) suggest that "consumers strive for harmonious relationships in their beliefs, feelings, and behaviors" (Sheth & Parvatlyar, 1995, p. 259). Consequently, an inconsistency between an individual's beliefs, feelings, behavioural intentions and actual behaviours is presumed to generate psychological tension. Therefore, consumers avoid selecting alternatives or information that are inconsistent or dissonant with their attitudes (Sheth & Parvatlyar, 1995). They might not simply avoid, but even overcome dissonant social norms or situational uncertainties (Dick & Basu, 1994) to establish cognitive consistency. Furthermore, consumers will "selectively pay more attention to such products, information, and persons for whom there is a favorable attitude" (Sheth & Parvatlyar, 1995, p. 259). In other words, the cognitive-affective-conative structure an individual holds supports or inhibits a behaviour psycho-logically (Abelson & Rosenberg, 1958; Crosby & Taylor, 1983).

In the following subsection, we present how scholars in the realm of loyalty research used psychological commitment, or elements of its underlying processes, to conceptualise the attitudinal dimension of loyalty.

Table II-1

Definitions of psychological commitment

Authors	Definition
Kiesler and Sakumura (1966, p. 349) cited in Mahony, Madrigal, and Howard (2000, p. 18)	"[The] effect of commitment is to make an act less changeable."
Crosby and Taylor (1983, p. 414)	"Psychological commitment refers to a tendency to resist change in preference in response to conflicting information or experience."
E. Anderson and Weitz (1992, p. 19)	"Commitment to a relationship entails a desire to develop a stable relationship, a willingness to make short-term sacrifices to maintain the relationship, and a confidence in the stability of the relationship."
Moorman et al. (1992, p. 316)	"Commitment is *enduring*, and it reflects a *positive valuation* of the relationship. In other words, commitment generally does not change often."
R. M. Morgan and Hunt (1994, p. 23)	"An exchange partner believing that an ongoing relationship with another is so important as to warrant maximum efforts at maintaining it; that is, the committed party believes the relationship is worth working on to ensure that it endures indefinitely."
Gundlach et al. (1995, p. 79) adopted Meyer and Allen's (1991) threefold conceptualisation	(1) Input component: "an affirmative action taken by one party that creates a self-interest in the relationship and demonstrates something, more than a mere promise." (2) Attitudinal component: "signifying an enduring intention by the parties to develop and maintain a stable long-term relationship." (3) Temporal dimension: "highlighting the fact that commitment means something only over the long term, that is, the inputs and attitudes brought to the relationship must reveal consistency over time."
Meyer and Herscovitch (2001, p. 301)	"A force that binds an individual to a course of action of relevance to one or more targets. As such, commitment is distinguishable from exchange based forms of motivation and from target-relevant attitudes and can influence behavior even in the absence of intrinsic motivation or positive attitudes."
Bansal et al. (2004, p. 235)	"(…) an attitude that guides or mediates an individual's overt responses or behavioral intentions to an object."

1.2.1.3 Conceptualisations of the attitudinal dimension of loyalty

Scholars have followed the lead of Day (1969) and Jacoby and Kyner (1973) and extended conceptualisations of the attitudinal dimension of loyalty (e.g. Dick & Basu, 1994; Iwasaki & Havitz, 1998; Oliver, 1999; Pritchard et al., 1999). Not all of them used explicitly psychological commitment to conceptualise it, whereas, at the core, most researchers related their theories to the same underlying psychological process, namely the formation of an attitude, which is favourable and endurable.

In the following, we present four conceptualisations of the attitudinal dimension of loyalty. Dick and Basu (1994) and Pritchard et al. (1999) viewing the dimension as "relative", Iwasaki and Havitz (1998) describing a process, and Oliver (1999) using an attitude and adding a special element. An overview can be found in Table II-2.

Dick and Basu (1994) introduced the term "relative attitude" to conceptualise the attitudinal dimension of loyalty. For them, an attitude has to be favourable and strong *relative* to other attitudes in the same consumption context. They emphasised that an individual might have a strong attitude, but does not engage in repurchase behaviour because the attitude towards another brand is higher. For them, the absolute strength of an attitude is secondary, as long as the attitude is favourable and differentiated from other brands (Dick & Basu, 1994). Or to put it in Dick and Basu's words, a high relative attitude is "a favorable attitude that is high compared to potential alternatives" (Dick & Basu, 1994, p. 100). A high relative attitude implies that it is enduring over time. Therefore, it comes close to the definition of commitment. Further characteristics, which relative attitude and commitment have in common, will be depicted in the ensuing subsection 1.2.1.4 Antecedents of the attitudinal dimension of loyalty.

Similar to Dick and Basu's (1994) approach is Pritchard et al.'s (1999) conceptualisation of the attitudinal dimension of loyalty. Although their work is mostly concerned with the antecedent process of it, for the sake of completeness the attitudinal dimension itself shall be presented briefly. Pritchard et al.'s (1999) study

does not explicitly define the attitudinal dimension of loyalty. Nevertheless, their understanding might be inferred from the items they used to measure it. In our understanding, they used a conceptualisation similar to relative attitude (Dick & Basu, 1994). Evidence for that are items they adopted from Selin, Howard, Udd, and Cable (1988) like "I consider myself to be a loyal patron of *XYZ* airline" for attitude strength, and items from Muncy (1983) like "To me, *XYZ* is the same as other airlines" for attitude differentiation.

Table II-2

Conceptualisation of loyalty's attitudinal dimension

Author(s)	Attitudinal dimension of loyalty	Facet
Dick and Basu (1994)	Relative attitude	Attitude strength Attitude differentiation
Iwasaki and Havitz (1998)	Psychological commitment	Informational consistency Informational complexity Confidence Position involvement Volitional choice
	Resistance to change	Preference stability Resistance to counter persuasion
Pritchard et al. (1999)	Relative attitude [a]	Attitude strength [a] Attitude differentiation [a]
Oliver (1999)	Cognitive, affective, and conative loyalty	
	Action loyalty	Readiness to act Overcoming of obstacles

Note. [a] Inferred from, rather than made explicit in, the relevant research.

In 1999, Oliver proclaimed: "It is time to begin the determined study of loyalty with the same fervor that researchers have devoted to a better understanding of customer satisfaction" (p. 33). He conceptualised the attitudinal dimension of loyalty as an attitude, which is ready to act and has the desire to overcome barriers that could, in what form so ever, prevent the desired action. Oliver (1999) called these two special

characteristics of an attitude the "action control sequence", a concept borrowed from Kuhl and Beckmann (1985). The idea of action control is that it turns the intentions within an attitude into a "readiness to act" together with a resistance to change. Put differently, within the action control sequence a "motivated intention (…) is transformed into readiness to act. The action control paradigm proposes that this is accompanied by an additional desire to overcome obstacles that might prevent the act [of repurchasing]" (Oliver, 1999, p. 36). Furthermore, and like Dick and Basu (1994), he emphasised that the attitude towards a brand has to be preferable compared with that for alternatives.

Conclusively, Oliver (1999) used the multicomponent view on attitude, namely the synthesis of positive cognitive, affective, and conative responses to the attitude object and added a fourth component to it. This fourth component is the aforementioned action control sequence. These four components together describe a "commitment to the action of rebuying" (Oliver, 1999, p. 36). The summary in Table II-3 shows how Oliver (1999) defined the four different components separately.

Table II-3

Components of the attitudinal dimension of loyalty phases based on Oliver (1999)

Component	Characteristic
Cognitive	▪ The preference of a brand is solely based on beliefs from information or past experience.
Affective	▪ Through repeated satisfied usage the individual developed kind of liking towards the object.
Conative	▪ The behavioural intention stage. The individual has developed an intention to continue her/his behaviour.
Action	▪ The commitment of an individual to rebuy a brand with ignoring and or reinterpreting information that does not suit the established attitude.

Note. Oliver (1999) did not explicitly use the label "component". For him these four components are different loyalty stages or phases, which one has to pass, before reaching the "action loyalty phase". In order to stay consistent with our use of the term loyalty, we avoid labels like cognitive loyalty.

Iwasaki and Havitz (1998) conceptualised the attitudinal dimension of loyalty as a dynamic process consisting of two components: psychological commitment and resistance to change. In their understanding, an individual's psychological commitment leads to resistance to change. An overview of how Iwasaki and Havitz (1998) conceptualised psychological commitment and resistance to change is displayed in Table II-4. Noticeable is the notion that one may have a high level of psychological commitment, which does not automatically mean that the resistance to change is high as well. "High psychological commitment does not linearly result in a high degree of resistance to change; in part because individual scores on the facets of psychological commitment are unlikely to fluctuate in tandem" (Iwasaki & Havitz, 1998, pp. 268, 269).

Table II-4

The two components of attitude based on Iwasaki and Havitz (1998)

Component	Facet	Characteristic
Psychological commitment	Informational consistency	▪ Degree of consistency "in a consumer's cognitive structure characterised by congruence between beliefs and attitudes or congruence between values and attitudes" (Rosenberg, 1960).
	Informational complexity	▪ "Degree of informational complexity of a person's cognitive structure" (McQuiston, 1989).
	Confidence	▪ "Degree of certainty associated with attitudes and/or behaviours" (I. E. Berger & Mitchell, 1989).
	Position involvement	▪ "Is maintained when self-image is linked to brand preference" (Freedman, 1964).
	Volitional choice	▪ "Extent to which a decision to pursue a goal or perform an action is based on a person's free choice" (Bagozzi, 1993).
Resistance to change	Preference stability	▪ "Refers to the degree of stable and/or 'biased' intention to maintain people's preferences of a brand" (Crosby & Taylor, 1983).
	Resistance to counter persuasion	▪ "Reflects strength of resistance or block against persuasive communication which might provide attractive information about alternative choices" (Dick & Basu, 1994; Kiesler, 1971).

Note. Authors mentioned in the table are originally referred to in Iwasaki and Havitz (1998, pp. 263, 264, 268).

In the next step, we present the antecedents of the attitudinal dimension of loyalty, whereby we refer back frequently to the conceptualisations of psychological commitment and resistance to change (Iwasaki & Havitz, 1998). In order to link the different conceptualisation of the attitudinal dimension of loyalty to its antecedents, it may be helpful to study Table II-5 and Figure II-7, which is an illustration of the Table. It might be helpful for the following reasons. Firstly, it gives an overview of what has been discussed so far (entries rightmost) and what is to come in the following subsection (entries leftmost). Secondly, concepts that have been used by scholars to conceptualise the attitudinal dimension are now revisited, as other scholars have used them as antecedents. After the depiction of the different antecedents, we will end the subsection with our conceptualisation of the attitudinal dimension of loyalty.

Table II-5

Conceptualisation of loyalty's attitudinal dimension and its antecedents

Author(s)	Antecedent(s)	Facets	Attitudinal dimension of loyalty	Facets
Dick and Basu (1994)	Cognitive	Accessibility, Confidence, Centrality, Clarity	Relative attitude	Attitude strength Attitude differentiation
	Affective	Emotions, Moods, Primary affect, Satisfaction		
	Conative	Switching cost, Sunk cost, Expectations		
Iwasaki and Havitz (1998)	Involvement	Attraction Sign value Centrality Risk probability Risk consequence	Psychological commitment	Informational consistency Informational complexity Confidence Position involvement Volitional choice
			Resistance to change	Preference stability Resistance to counter persuasion
Pritchard et al. (1999)	Informational processes	Informational complexity, Cognitive consistency, Confidence	Relative attitude [a]	Attitude strength [a] Attitude differentiation [a]
	Identification processes	Position involvement		
	Volitional processes	Volitional choice		
	Resistance to change			
Oliver (1999)	Conative loyalty	Intention, desire to repurchase [a]	Cognitive, affective, and conative loyalty	
	Affective loyalty	Commitment [a]		
	Cognitive loyalty	Brand belief [a]	Action loyalty	Readiness to act Overcoming of obstacles

Note. [a] Inferred from, rather than made explicit in, the relevant research.

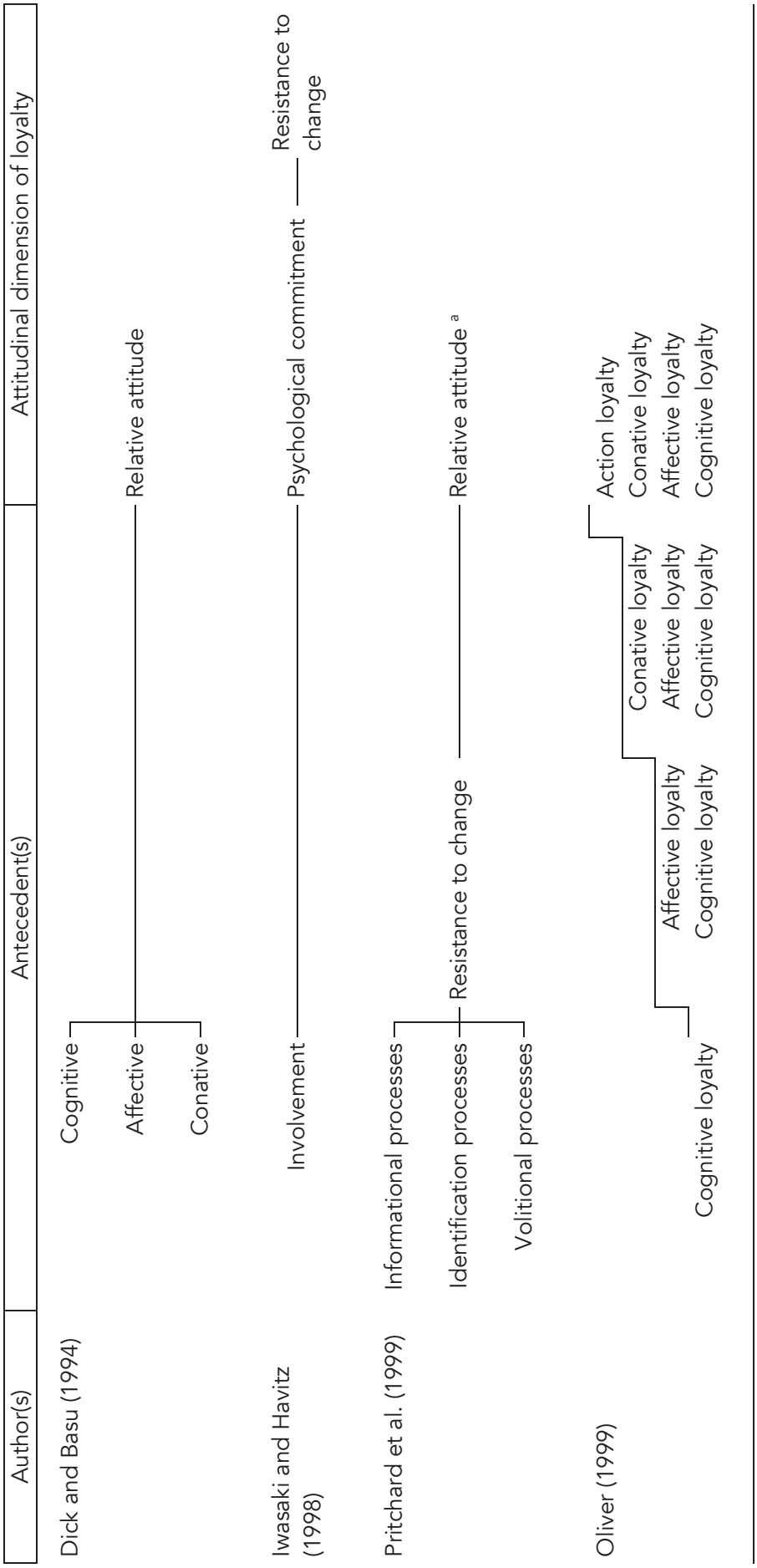


Figure II-7. Conceptualisation of loyalty's attitudinal dimension and its antecedents

Note. [a] Inferred from, rather than made explicit in, the relevant research.

1.2.1.4 Antecedents of the attitudinal dimension of loyalty

We presented relative attitude (Dick & Basu, 1994; Pritchard et al., 1999), psychological commitment and resistance to change (Iwasaki & Havitz, 1998), and a blend of four loyalty stages (Oliver, 1999) as possible conceptualisations of the attitudinal dimension of loyalty (cf. Figure II-7, entries rightmost). The focus of this subsection is to compare, how the authors have conceptualised the antecedents of the attitudinal dimension of loyalty (cf. Figure II-7, entries leftmost).

Dick and Basu (1994) developed 11 antecedents of relative attitude. To structure the antecedents, they drew on the multicomponent view of attitudes. Accordingly, they distinguished between three types of antecedents, namely cognitive, affective, and conative. A cognitive antecedent is, for example, the accessibility of an attitude. That implies the ease with which a certain attitude can be retrieved from memory. The mood an individual is in, is an example of an affective antecedent of relative attitude.

Table II-6

Antecedents of relative attitude based on Dick and Basu (1994)

Type	Antecedent	Characteristic
Cognitive	Accessibility	▪ "Ease with which an attitude can be retrieved from memory" (p. 102).
	Confidence	▪ Degree of certainty that the attitude an object evoked is correct.
	Centrality	▪ Level of closeness between an attitude and the value system of an individual.
	Clarity	▪ Level of how well-defined an attitude is.
Affective	Emotions	▪ "Lead to focused attention on specific targets and are capable of disrupting ongoing behaviour" (p. 104).
	Moods	▪ "May influence loyalty through their impact on accessibility" (p. 104).
	Primary affect	▪ Responses to an attitude object independent of cognitions.
	Satisfaction	▪ Post purchase response to a brand, through matching expectations to experience.
Conative	Switching cost	▪ Cost of switching from one brand to another, financially and/or psychologically.
	Sunk cost	▪ Costs that cannot be recovered.
	Expectations	▪ Fit between offerings and needs.

The characteristic of a mood has the power to influence the accessibility of an attitude. The cost, psychologically or financially, to switch from one brand to another is one of the three conative antecedents. A complete listing of all antecedents developed by Dick and Basu (1994) can be found in Table II-6.

Another approach to conceptualise the antecedents of the attitudinal dimension was done by Iwasaki and Havitz (1998). As presented in the preceding subsection, for them it is the process of psychological commitment leading to resistance to change, which represents the attitudinal dimension of loyalty. They conceptualised the facets of involvement as antecedents to that process (cf. Table II-7).

Table II-7

Involvement as antecedent to psychological commitment based on Iwasaki and Havitz (1998)

Antecedent	Facet(s)	Characteristic
Involvement	Attraction	▪ "The perceived importance of interest in an activity or a product, and pleasure or hedonic value derived from participation of use."
	Sign Value	▪ "The unspoken statements that purchase or participation conveys about the person."
	Centrality to Lifestyle	▪ "Encompassing both social contexts such as friends and families centered around activities, and the central role of the activities in an individual's life."
	Risk Probability	▪ "Perceived probability of making a poor choice."
	Risk Consequence	▪ "Perceived importance of negative consequences in the case of a poor choice."

Note. Directly quoted from Iwasaki and Havitz (1998, p. 260).

While Iwasaki and Havitz (1998) conceptualised commitment as part of the attitudinal dimension, Pritchard et al. (1999) rather saw commitment as a distinct concept. They conceptualised commitment and resistance to change as the antecedents of loyalty. Pritchard et al. (1999) emphasised: "commitment differs from this composite definition [loyalty being the blend of attitude and behaviour] as it is usually considered in purely cognitive terms that measure consumer attitudes of attachment to a brand" (p. 334).

Table II-8

Antecedent processes of commitment based on Pritchard et al. (1999)

Processes	Factor	Characteristic
Informational	Informational complexity	▪ Formation of complex cognitive/informational structures that gird an attitude.
	Cognitive consistency	▪ Closely related to informational complexity, as this process defends the cognitive structures build around an object if the attitude is consistent with personal values and self-image. ▪ Like a defence mechanism in the informational process that reinterprets, suppresses, or loses information that is inconsistent with the attitude (Tesser & Leone, 1977).
	Confidence	▪ Enhancement of confidence in an attitude resulting in a degree of certainty that the attitude an object evoked is correct (Dick & Basu, 1994).
Identification	Position involvement	▪ Process of identification with values and self-images represented by an attitudinal object. The choice of this object is guided by social (symbolic) representation and self-identity.
Volitional	Volitional choice	▪ Freedom from constraints and a freedom to choose.

Note. Authors mentioned in the table are originally referred to by Pritchard et al. (1999, pp. 335-337).

Overall, they highlighted that the informational, identification and volitional processes are antecedent processes of commitment. Therefore, these processes foster a sense of resistance to change (c.f. Table II-8). Consequently, commitment, in turn, is documented through the existence of resistance to change. That is to say, they implemented resistance to change as an identifiable/tangible indicator of commitment, which we interpret as: the two concepts are one.

Oliver (1999), unlike the aforementioned authors, did not explicitly specify antecedents of the attitudinal dimension of loyalty. It is more a process of different stages an individual has to pass in order to reach the "action loyalty stage". This stage could be considered as the attitudinal dimension of loyalty. Thus, we interpret the three stages preceding the action loyalty stage as the antecedents of the attitudinal dimension of loyalty (cf. Figure II-7).

In order to find similarities between the four studies on loyalty and their definition of the attitudinal dimension of loyalty, Table II-9 might be useful. The

comparison shows that three overall topics reoccur. These are (1) the formation of an attitude, (2) psychological commitment and (3) resistance to change.

By taking the views of Dick and Basu (1994), Iwasaki and Havitz (1998), Pritchard et al. (1999), and Oliver (1999) into consideration, we define **psychological commitment with its root tendency resistance to change as the attitudinal dimension of loyalty**.

Table II-9

Comparison of different approaches to the attitudinal dimension of loyalty

Dick and Basu (1994)	Iwasaki and Havitz (1998)	Pritchard et al. (1999)	Oliver (1999)
Confidence Certainty associated with an attitude or evaluation.	**Informational confidence** Certainty associated with attitudes and/or behaviours.	**Confidence** Has been described as an evaluative mechanism where consumers assess whether brand beliefs are accurate and their attitude warranted.	
Centrality Degree to which an attitude toward a brand is related to the value system of an individual.	**Informational consistency** Congruence between beliefs/ values and attitudes.	**Position involvement** Evident when important values or self-images are identified with a particular stand or brand choice.	
Clarity Alternative attitudes towards the target are unpleasant. "Keenness of discrimination" against other attitudes.	**Resistance to counter persuasion** Strength of resistance or block against alternative choices. "Keenness of discrimination" against other attitudes.	**Cognitive consistency** A defense mechanism that reinterprets, suppresses, or loses information that is inconsistent.	**Action control** Readiness to act and overcoming obstacles. Ignoring or deflecting suitors.
Antecedents to attitudinal dimension	Facets of attitudinal dimension	Antecedents to attitudinal dimension	Facet of attitudinal dimension

Note. The definitions are direct quotes from the authors.

1.2.2 The behavioural dimension of loyalty

The behavioural dimension of loyalty was till Day (1969) considered to be the only dimension of loyalty (cf. Tucker, 1964). To conceptualise it, most researchers used transactions, namely the number of repurchases made in a given period (e.g. Day, 1969; Dick & Basu, 1994; Jacoby & Kyner, 1973; Pritchard et al., 1999). Besides that, researchers established slightly modified versions of the concept of repurchases. For example, sequence and probability of brand use over time (Iwasaki & Havitz, 1998) or willingness to repurchase (Chaudhuri & Holbrook, 2001).

The nature of the aforementioned conceptualisations is purely transactional, lacking any non-transactional behaviour. By definition transactional behaviour are actions of buying or selling something (Oxford Dictionaries, 2016b). As mentioned above, repeated transactions, meaning buying the same brand from a vendor was traditionally viewed as the behavioural dimension of loyalty. We intend to expand this transactional approach to behaviour, which is everything except transactional, namely non-transactional: behaviour beyond purchases. Therefore, we argue to include non-transactional behaviour in the conceptualisation of the behavioural dimension of loyalty. The position has mainly three reasons.

Firstly, we claim that there are more ways to express the psychological commitment to a brand, despite the number of repurchases. It can be a non-monetary investment in a relationship or a personal sacrifice (Reichheld, 2003). In some cases "loyalty may have little to do with repeat purchases" (Reichheld, 2003, p. 48). Therefore, to limit the behavioural dimension of loyalty to repurchases might miss other valuable and growth-enhancing facets beyond repurchases. In consequence, one might overvalue or undervalue customers (Kumar et al., 2010).

Secondly, the possibilities to manifest one's loyalty other than through repurchases have been multiplied by the emergence of the Web 2.0. Especially social media engagement of customers has become a valuable asset to firms (Baldus, Voorhees, & Calantone, 2015; Constantinides & Fountain, 2008).

Thirdly, a high number of publications have been written on a concept, dealing with the previous mentioned transactional and non-transactional behaviour; which is customer engagement. In the realm of academic marketing and service literature, customer engagement has been discussed since 2005 and authors have been arguing whether to include or exclude transactional behaviour from its conceptualisation (Brodie, Hollebeek, Juric, & Ilic, 2011). To conceptualise the behavioural dimension of loyalty with two facets (1) the traditional transactional facet (repurchases) and (2) a non-transactional facet, we use the work Kumar et al. (2010) and van Doorn et al. (2010) on customer engagement.

1.2.2.1 Engagement

By the end of this paragraph, we hope to make a point for engagement as a concept with two facets, transactional and non-transactional behaviour, which we conceptualise as the behavioural dimension of loyalty.

The marketing literature on engagement is eclectic, starting with its label and ending with its conceptualisation. Drawing on an extensive review of engagement by Brodie et al. (2011), eight different labels can be identified. Customer engagement (Patterson, Yu, & De Ruyter, 2006), consumer engagement (Vivek, Beatty, & Morgan, 2012), online brand engagement (Mollen & Wilson, 2010), customer engagement process (Bowden, 2009), customer engagement behaviour (van Doorn et al., 2010), customer brand engagement (Hollebeek, 2011), engagement behaviour (Pham & Avnet, 2009), engagement (Higgins & Scholer, 2009), and customer engagement value (Kumar et al., 2010).

As diverse the labels for the concept are, so are the number and kind of dimensions scholars attributed to it. The definitions range from three- to one-dimensional conceptualisations. Three-dimensional conceptualisations incorporated cognitive, affective and behavioural dimensions (e.g. Hollebeek, 2011; Vivek et al., 2012), two-dimensional cognitive and behavioural (e.g. Pham & Avnet, 2009) and one-dimensional solely a behavioural dimension (Kumar et al., 2010; van Doorn et al., 2010). Altogether, Brodie et al. (2011) found that "over 40% of the definitions reviewed

in the academic and business practice literature expressed engagement as a unidimensional concept" (p. 254). Further, they emphasised that within the 40% one-dimensional conceptualisations, the purely behavioural stance is the most dominant. Despite the criticism, that one-dimensional conceptualisations "fall short in reflecting the rich conceptual scope of engagement" (Brodie et al., 2011, pp. 254-255), we lean towards Kumar et al. (2010) and van Doorn et al. (2010) and their one-dimensional, behavioural stance. We conceive engagement as the behavioural dimension of loyalty, therefore no other than behavioural manifestations are in line with our understanding of the behavioural dimension of loyalty. Additional dimensions in this concept of engagement, like cognitive or affective, would interfere with our conceptualisation of the attitudinal dimension of loyalty.

Therefore, the combination of two purely behavioural conceptualisations of engagement offers the foundation for our definition of customer engagement, these are: *Undervalued or Overvalues Customers: Capturing Total Customer Engagement Value* by Kumar et al. (2010) and *Customer Engagement Behavior: Theoretical Foundations and Research Directions* by van Doorn et al. (2010). These two conceptualisations originated from a special issue "Customer Engagement" in the *Journal of Service Research* in 2010.

The reason for using a blend of the two definitions is that van Doorn et al. (2010), among others, defined engagement as a concept beyond transactions and hence excluded purchase behaviour. In contrast, Kumar et al. (2010) included transactional behaviour to their conceptualisation of customer engagement (cf. Table II-10).

Drawing on the two conceptualisations of engagement (Kumar et al., 2010; van Doorn et al., 2010), **we define customer engagement as a solely behavioural concept consisting of transactional and non-transactional behaviour**. The transactional facet represents customer purchase behaviour, whereas the non-transactional facet contains supporting, advocating, and promoting a brand on and offline.

Table II-10

Comparison of engagement conceptualisations used in this study

van Doorn et al. (2010)	Kumar et al. (2010)
"We posit that customer engagement behaviors go beyond transactions, and may be specifically defined as a customer's behavioral manifestations that have a brand or firm focus, beyond purchase, resulting from motivational drivers" (p. 254). "CEBs [customer engagement behaviours] include a vast array of behaviors including word-of-mouth (WOM) activity, recommendations, helping other customers, blogging, writing reviews, and even engaging in legal action" (p. 253).	"We propose four components of a customer's engagement value (CEV) with a firm. The first component is customer lifetime value (the customers purchase behavior), the second is customer referral value (as it relates to incentivized referral to new customers), the third is customer influencer value (which includes the customer's behavior to influence other customers, that is increasing acquisition, retention, and share of wallet through word of mouth of existing customers as well as prospects), and the fourth is customer knowledge value (the value added to the firm by feedback from customer)" (p. 297).

Concluding, **we conceptualise customer engagement as the behavioural dimension of loyalty**. In the following paragraph, we depict its link to the attitudinal dimension of it, and we end with our definition of customer loyalty.

1.3 A holistic approach to the conceptualisation of loyalty

The link between psychological commitment and customer engagement is suggested by van Doorn et al. (2010). They emphasised, "one of the most important factors affecting CEBs [customer engagement behaviour] includes attitudinal antecedents" (p. 256). For them, this involves, among other variables, commitment, trust, satisfaction, and brand performance behaviours and furthermore, "very high or very low levels of these factors can lead to engagement" (van Doorn et al., 2010, p. 256). Kumar et al. (2010) followed "the widespread belief in the literature (P. D. Berger et al., 2006) that marketing activities typically affect intermediate measures such as customer attitudes before they affect behavioral outcomes" (p. 302), as they developed their customer engagement value framework.

In line with our analysis in section one and following the views on the influence of psychological commitment on engagement (P. D. Berger et al., 2006; Kumar et al.,

2010; van Doorn et al., 2010), **we conceptualise psychological commitment as the attitudinal dimension of loyalty and engagement as the behavioural dimension of loyalty**. Empirical evidence, how psychological commitment may influence consumer behaviours (i.e. engagement), is presented in section 3.3.1 The Fan commitment – Fan engagement link.

Hitherto, we define customer loyalty in reference to Jacoby and Kyner (1973) and Bloemer and Kasper (1995) as:

> (1) the non-random, (2) transactional and/or (3) non-transactional behaviour (i.e. customer engagement), (4) expressed over time, and (5) function of psychological processes resulting in psychological commitment.

2 LOYALTY IN SPORTS

In section one we presented conceptualisations of brand loyalty across different industries, e.g. services and retail. This second section is dedicated to loyalty definitions and conceptualisations within the sports industry. Excluded from this section are loyalty definitions and conceptualisations in the football industry, which will be presented in Subsection 3 – Loyalty in Football. Despite the particularities of the sports industry (c.f. Chapter I), it has been shown that the two-dimensional conceptualisation of loyalty holds true for the sport industry as well (Backman & Crompton, 1991; Smith, Patterson, Williams, & Hogg, 1981; Wakefield & Sloan, 1995).

The diversity of loyalty studies conducted in sports is great. A selection of loyalty studies conducted in a sport context can be found in Table II-11. In approximate terms one can differentiate studies in sport participation and sport spectator services. Studies with a sport participation background are mostly related to the leisure, health and fitness industry (e.g. Backman & Crompton, 1991; Bodet, 2012; Se-Hyuk & Yong-Man, 2000). Within this background, researchers have distinguished between loyalty to a leisure activity itself (e.g. Tennis, Golf; Backman & Crompton, 1991), and loyalty to a sport participation service or organisation like a fitness club (e.g. Bodet, 2012). In research on sport spectatorship services most studies were concerned with loyalty to a team, be it on professional or collegiate level (e.g. Kwon & Trail, 2003; Mahony et al., 2000). Others focused on loyalty to sport event service providers (e.g. organiser of tennis tournament; Bee & Havitz, 2010), and still others measured loyalty to sport leagues and sports teams (e.g. Kunkel, Hill, & Funk, 2013).

As diverse the research contexts of the studies listed in Table II-11 might be, all have the two-dimensional conceptualisation of loyalty in common. Predominantly researchers implemented psychological commitment as the attitudinal, and a repetitive action related to an athlete, team, league, or sport service as the behavioural dimension of loyalty. For example, Funk (2008) described the two dimensions as firstly an attitude, which is "highly formed, possessing the capacity to resist change over time, while also influencing information processing and guiding behaviour" (p. 52)

and secondly a behaviour, which is increased in terms of complexity, breadth, depth, and frequency. In the following two subsections, a more nuanced description of the loyalty conceptualisations is presented.

Table II-11

Brief overview of loyalty studies in the sport industry

Author(s)	Type of sport / team	Sport participation	Sport spectatorship
Backman and Crompton (1991)	Tennis, Golf	x	
Mahony and Moorman (1999)	NBA-Team		x
Mahony et al. (2000)	NFL-, NBA-Team, College football		x
Se-Hyuk and Yong-Man (2000)	Fitness	x	
Bristow and Sebastian (2001)	MLB-Team		x
Kwon and Trail (2003)	College football team		x
Alexandris, Zahariadis, Tsorbatzoudis, and Grouios (2004)	Fitness	x	
Kwon, Trail, and Anderson (2005)	College basketball		x
Funk and James (2006)	College football, NFL-Team, Favourite team		x
Pedragosa and Correia (2009)	Fitness	x	
Bee and Havitz (2010)	Tennis event		x
Bodet (2012)	Fitness	x	
Kunkel et al. (2013)	NRL, AFL, Super 15 Rugby Union, A-League soccer		x
Kunkel, Doyle, Funk, Du, and McDonald (2015)	AFL-Team		x

Note. NBA = National Basketball Association, NFL = National Football Association (American football, not to be confused with soccer), MLB = Major League Baseball, AFL = Australian Football League (American football, not to be confused with soccer), NRL = National Rugby League (Australia).

2.1 Conceptualisations of the attitudinal dimension

For the conceptualisation of the attitudinal dimension of loyalty within sports, scholars mainly used two approaches. They relied on theories from social and organisational psychology or used conceptualisations already validated in marketing and consumer behaviour literature. Examples for both approaches, is the application of concepts like psychological attachment (e.g. Backman & Crompton, 1991), psychological commitment (e.g. Alexandris et al., 2004; Bee & Havitz, 2010; Kwon & Trail, 2003; Mahony et al., 2000; Scanlan, Simons, Carpenter, Schmidt, & Keeler, 1993), organisational commitment (e.g. Se-Hyuk & Yong-Man, 2000), resistance to change (e.g. Bee & Havitz, 2010; Funk & James, 2006), or behavioural intentions (e.g. Bodet, 2012; partly by Kunkel et al., 2015).

More specifically, Mahony et al. (2000) developed a psychological commitment to team scale (PCT) in reference to Pritchard et al.'s (1999) work. The scale was later examined and improved by Kwon and Trail (2003). Alexandris et al. (2004) and Scanlan et al. (1993) both relied on literature from social and organisational psychology. Bee and Havitz (2010) used psychological commitment and resistance to change (Pritchard et al., 1999) to explain their understanding of the attitudinal dimension of loyalty in sports. Similarly, Funk and James (2006) utilised resistance to change based in Pritchard et al.'s (1999) work. Bodet (2012) relied on behavioural intentions in reference to Cronin, Brady, and Hult (2000) and Zeithaml, Berry, and Parasuraman (1996) to conceptualise the attitudinal dimension of loyalty. Nonetheless, he used resistance to change, based on Pritchard et al. (1999) as the antecedent of the attitudinal dimension of loyalty.

Pritchard et al.'s (1999) work, or facets of it, seems omnipresent in sport loyalty research. Although divergent from the manner Pritchard et al. (1999) used psychological commitment in their study, sport marketing scholars used psychological commitment to conceptualise the attitudinal dimension of loyalty. For Pritchard et al. (1999) it is resistance to change that mirrors the presence of psychological commitment, which in turn influences the attitudinal dimension of loyalty (cf. Figure

II-7). However, by now it seems mostly accepted, as the mentioned studies show, to conceptualise psychological commitment as the attitudinal dimension of loyalty.

The first to implement Pritchard et al.'s (1999) psychological commitment concept as the attitudinal dimension of loyalty in a sport participation context, were probably Iwasaki and Havitz (1998)[61]. They drew heavily on an earlier, unpublished version of Pritchard et al.'s (1999) work from 1997 (cf. Pritchard, Havitz, & Howard, 1997) and suggested, "that facets of psychological commitment and the facets of resistance to change reflect the attitudinal components of loyalty" (Iwasaki & Havitz, 1998, pp. 271-272). This is in line with Backman and Crompton's (1991), who implemented psychological attachment as the attitudinal dimension of loyalty. Whereas it is converse to the conceptualisation of Heere and Dickson (2008), who rather saw psychological commitment as distinct from the attitudinal dimension of loyalty. Similarly, Bodet (2012) emphasised that psychological commitment, with resistance to change as its reflection, is distinct from the attitudinal dimension of loyalty. In the following, the conceptualisations of the behavioural dimension of loyalty in sports are presented.

2.2 Conceptualisations of behavioural dimension

The behaviours related to sport participation and sport spectator services have been conceptualised as the behavioural dimension of loyalty in sport. Distinguishable are behaviours, which are transactional or non-transactional (cf. Table II-12). Although, the classification into the two categories might not be as clear-cut as the Table suggests. In fact, transactional behaviours are those that are related to an exchange of money for a service or product. The customer spends money to see a match live at the stadium, gets admission to a fitness club or purchase team/athlete merchandise.

[61] Their study is not menitoned in Table II-11 as it is purely theoretical and was presented earlier in Subsection 1 – Loyalty.

Table II-12

Conceptualisations of the behavioural dimension of loyalty in the sport industry

	Conceptualisation of the behavioural dimension of loyalty	
Author(s)	Transactional	Non-transactional
Backman and Crompton (1991)	-	Frequency of participation
Mahony and Moorman (1999)	-	Likelihood to watch game on TV
Mahony et al. (2000)	(a) Games attended (b) Purchased season tickets	(a) Duration of commitment (b) Frequency of watching on TV (c) Effort to watch or listen
Bristow and Sebastian (2001)	-	Repeat purchase of brand
Kwon and Trail (2003)	(a) Frequency of attendance (b) Amount of money spent on team merchandise	Number of hours watching the team on TV
Alexandris et al. (2004)	-	Positive word-of mouth communications [a]
Kwon et al. (2005)	Number of home games attended	-
Funk and James (2006)	Games attended	(a) Games watched on TV (b) Monthly media usage (c) Frequency of direct contact with team
Pedragosa and Correia (2009)	Repeat purchases	(a) positive word-of mouth (b) Future intentions
Bee and Havitz (2010)	Frequency of attendance	-
Bodet (2012)	(a) Renewal of membership (b) Length of membership	Frequency of participation
Kunkel et al. (2013)	Games attended	Frequency of media usage
Kunkel et al. (2015)	-	(a) Willingness to pay (b) Intention to purchase
B. Dwyer, Greenhalgh, and LeCrom (2015)	-	(a) Strong positive word-of mouth communications [a] (b) Wear merchandise (c) Provocative behaviour towards non-fans

Note. [a] Inferred from, rather than made explicit in, the relevant research.

The challenge is that non-transactional behaviours might to some extent involve a transaction, from which the sport brand or service benefits. The frequency of participation in a leisure activity like tennis or golf (Backman & Crompton, 1991), is connected with a fee to use the court or a green fee to play the course.

For a member of a club, it is the yearly membership dues, which mark the transactional aspect. Similarly, the frequency of watching sport on TV (Mahony et al., 2000) or the number of games watched on TV (Funk & James, 2006) can be connected to a transaction too, depending on the sport or sport event one likes to consume.

As an example, most games of the professional football league in Great Britain (Barclays Premier League) or in Germany (Fußball Bundesliga) cannot be viewed on free-to-air TV. Therefore, a subscription with a rights holder is mandatory to watch a game at home on TV. This is different for football games shown through public broadcasters. To stay with the example of Great Britain and Germany, in both countries there are certain "listed events", which have to be broadcasted through the free-to-air TV (Ofcom, 1996; e.g. FIFA World Cup Finals Tournament). One might argue that these broadcast come at a price as well, namely through tax-payers' money or in Germany the GEZ-fees (Gebühreneinzugszentrale der öffenltich-rechtlichen Rundfunkanstalten in der Bundesrepublik Deutschland).

What we exclude from our understanding of the behavioural dimension, whether transactional or non-transactional, are conceptualisations, which include any probability or intention to act in a certain kind of way, as they do not reflect any observable behaviour.

2.3 Benefits of a loyal fan base

The consequences of a loyal fan base are comparable to those of a loyal customer base; they may increase revenue (c.f. 1.1 Consequences of loyalty, Figure II-1). By looking at the consequences of engaged customers and transferring this to engaged fans, Fan engagement might increase firm value (Verhoef, Reinartz, & Krafft, 2010).

Overall the benefits of a loyal fan base might be differentiated into tangible or intangible benefits (cf. Table II-13).

Table II-13

Hypothetical and established benefits of a loyal fan base

Benefit	Author(s)				Nature of benefit	
	Reichheld (2003)	Yoshida, Gordon, Nakazawa, and Biscaia (2014)	Yoshida, Heere, and Gordon (2015)	Gladden, Milne, and Sutton (1998)	Tangible	Intangible
Increased merchandise sales				x[a]	x	
Increased ticket sales			x[a]	x[a]	x	
Higher TV ratings					x	
Stable attendance figures		x[a]	x[a]		x	
Stable audience figures		x[a]	x[a]		x	
Increased traffic on webpage					x	
Increased traffic on social media channels					x	
Intensified atmosphere				x[a]		x
Building fan communities			x			x
Reduce of (fan) question cost	x[a]				x	

Note. [a] Inferred from, rather than made explicit in, the relevant research.

The benefits listed in Table II-13 are not all explicitly identified in the sport marketing literature. We argue that the overview is a roundup of possible benefits of a loyal fan base. Nevertheless, Gladden et al. (1998) in their work on sport brand equity established several outcomes. Increased merchandise and ticket sales, as well as improved atmosphere, are three benefits, which we feel are transferable to a loyal fan base. Besides that, an increase in sales leads to an increase in revenue and an intensified

atmosphere might lead to increased support and a more memorable experience (Gladden et al., 1998). Therefore, the team and the audience might profit from an intensified atmosphere. Furthermore, it has been shown that the attachment to a fan community can predict attendance frequency (Yoshida et al., 2015). One might argue that building or joining a fan community is partly an effect of being loyal. In a similar vein, belonging to a fan community (Yoshida et al., 2015) or having a higher performance tolerance (Yoshida et al., 2014) might ensure stable attendance and audience figures and higher TV ratings. This, in turn, might help sport organisations to make confident long-term financial decisions, as well as sell broadcasting rights at a greater profit margin and gain better advertisement and sponsorship deals. In addition, a loyal fan might use social media channels more frequently or download a team specific application on their smartphone, leading to an improved hit rate[62] and conversion rate[63] (Caspersen & El-Saheli, 2015). Through this, fans might be reached for marketing communications conveniently and they might act as brand ambassadors (Reichheld, 2003).

In summary, we emphasise that the benefits of a loyal fan base in sport have not been subject to many publications. Therefore, the aforementioned, partially hypothetical, claims have to be considered with reservations.

[62] "Total number of visits to a website in a particular period" (Cambirdge Dictionaries, 2016)
[63] "The conversion rate is the percentage of users who take a desired action. The archetypical example of conversion rate is the percentage of website visitors who buy something on the site" (Nielsen, 2013).

3 LOYALTY IN FOOTBALL

Studies on loyalty in the context of football are mostly concerned with, how loyal an individual is to his or her favourite team. Studies focusing on loyalty towards football-related brands like leagues, players, coaches, venues, or the sport itself are not under consideration here.

Table II-14

Studies on loyalty towards a football teams as spectator team sport product

Author(s)	Context
Matsuoka, Chelladurai, and Harada (2003)	Loyalty [a] to favourite team in J-League
Tapp (2004)	Loyalty to Premier League team
H. H. Bauer, Sauer, and Exler (2005)	Loyalty to favourite Bundesliga team
Harris and Ogbonna (2008)	Loyalty [a] to favourite Premier League team
H. H. Bauer, Stokburger-Sauer, and Exler (2008)	Loyalty to favourite Bundesliga team
Theodorakis, Alexandris, Tsigilis, and Karvounis (2013)	Behavioural intentions in Super League
Yoshida et al. (2014)	Engagement towards favourite team in J-League
Hart (2015)	Loyalty to favourite Premier League team and Britain's national team
Rosenberger III, Ho Yun, Rahman, Köcher, and de Oliveira (2015)	Loyalty to Brazilian, Chinese and German national team
Tachis and Tzetzis (2015)	Loyalty to Super League team
Yoshida et al. (2015)	Loyalty [a] favourite team in J-League

Note. [a] Inferred from, rather than made explicit in, the relevant research. J-League = Japan professional football league, Premier League = Great Britain professional football league, Bundesliga = German professional football league, Super League = Greek professional football league.

Wakefield and Sloan (1995) offer a general team loyalty definition, "team loyalty is as an allegiance or devotion to a particular team that is based on the spectator's interest in the team that has developed over time" (p. 159). The following studies, and their conceptualisations of the attitudinal and behavioural dimensions of

loyalty are all referring to football as a sport spectatorship service. In particular, to the football team as a team sport product. An overview of studies under investigation can be found in Table II-14.

The studies have been conducted in two distinct backgrounds. Most of them examined loyalty towards football teams in professional football leagues, whereas Hart (2015) and Rosenberger III et al. (2015) analysed loyalty to national football teams. Overall, scholars implemented different conceptualisations of loyalty in each study. Some did not explicitly define loyalty (e.g. Matsuoka et al., 2003), others did not follow the two-dimensional conceptualisation of it (e.g. Yoshida et al., 2015), and yet others followed Prichard et al.'s (1999) approach closely (cf. Tachis & Tzetzis, 2015). Subsequently, the conceptualisations of the two loyalty dimensions are presented more detailed.

3.1 Conceptualisations of the attitudinal dimension

The attitudinal dimension of loyalty has been examined previously in this study, firstly, in a general context, secondly in a general sport context. This subsection is dedicated to conceptualisations of loyalty to football teams.

Matsuoka et al. (2003) used the term "team identification" to refer to an individual's attachment to a sports team. In reference to Mael and Ashforth (1992), they defined it as "the sense of oneness with or belongingness to a sport team" (Matsuoka et al., 2003, p. 247). In a similar vein, Backman and Crompton (1991) implemented psychological attachment to a leisure activity as the attitudinal dimension. In the work of Tapp (2004), the attitudinal dimension is not explicitly defined, although he distinguishes between an attitudinal and a behavioural dimension. As mentioned above, Tachis and Tzetzis (2015) did follow Prichard et al.'s (1999) approach closely and conceptualised the attitudinal dimension of loyalty and psychological commitment as two distinct concepts. Yoshida et al. (2015), did not explicitly define the attitudinal dimension of loyalty in their study, although they

stated that team identification has a positive effect on the behavioural dimension of loyalty. This is similar to the aforementioned theory of Matsuoka et al. (2003).

Two studies, which focused on the behavioural dimension of loyalty only, are Theodorakis et al. (2013) and Yoshida et al. (2014). Both, jointly with the other studies mentioned in this subsection, will be examined in more detail in Subsection 3.2 Conceptualisations of the behavioural dimension.

H. H. Bauer et al. (2005), H. H. Bauer et al. (2008), Rosenberger III et al. (2015) and Hart (2015) used psychological commitment to a team to conceptualise the attitudinal dimension of loyalty, which is in line with research in the sport industry (e.g. Alexandris et al., 2004; Bee & Havitz, 2010; Kwon & Trail, 2003; Mahony et al., 2000). Likewise, in their fieldwork Harris and Ogbonna (2008) identified commitment and a long-term orientation as characteristics of many football supporters. We will use this and the evidence from other studies in the sport industry as the starting point to justify our conceptualisation of the attitudinal dimension of loyalty, namely Fan commitment.

3.1.1 Fan commitment

This subsection presents our definition of the attitudinal dimension of loyalty in sport spectator services. An attitude that is favourable and consistent (i.e. resistant to change) in relation to a sports team is defined as Fan commitment. In other words:

> A sport spectator exhibits Fan commitment if his or her attitude towards the team is favourable and resistant to change. The notion of Fan commitment is purely psychological and guides or mediates a fan's team-related behaviour. Between individuals, the degree of Fan commitment may vary, depending on the strength and the complexity of the favourable attitude.

Our definition of Fan commitment is in line with Gundlach et al.'s (1995) second and third components of commitment, i.e. the attitudinal component and a temporal dimension. Furthermore, it reflects an enduring and resistant to change aspect (Crosby

& Taylor, 1983; Kiesler & Sakumura, 1966; Moorman et al., 1992), as well as the property to influence behaviour (Bansal et al., 2004; Meyer & Herscovitch, 2001).

3.2 Conceptualisations of the behavioural dimension

The conceptualisations of the behavioural dimension of loyalty in the football industries, more specifically in football spectator services, do not differ from the conceptualisations in the sport industry in general. Notwithstanding, to give an overview of the different studies and the implementation of football spectator behaviours (see Table II-15).

Table II-15

Conceptualisations of the behavioural dimension of loyalty in the context of spectator sport services

	Conceptualisation of behavioural dimension of loyalty	
Author(s)	Transactional	Non-transactional
Matsuoka et al. (2003)	-	Intention to attend future games
Tapp (2004)	Number of games attended	-
H. H. Bauer et al. (2005)	(a) Game attendance (b) Purchase merchandise	(a) Watching game on TV (b) Consuming club-related media (c) Wear merchandise (d) Participation in club-related discussions
Harris and Ogbonna (2008)	-	-
H. H. Bauer et al. (2008)	cf. H. H. Bauer et al. (2005)	cf. H. H. Bauer et al. (2005)
Theodorakis et al. (2013)	-	(a) Intention to attend future games (b) Intention to engage in positive word of mouth
Yoshida et al. (2014)	-	(a) Management cooperation (b) Interaction with other fans (c) Social media activity (d) Wear merchandise

(Continued)

Continued.

Author(s)	Conceptualisation of behavioural dimension of loyalty	
	Transactional	Non-transactional
Hart (2015)	(a) Game attendance (b) Purchase merchandise	(a) Discussions with other fans (b) Wear merchandise
Rosenberger III et al. (2015)	n/a	n/a
Tachis and Tzetzis (2015)	cf. H. H. Bauer et al. (2005)	cf. H. H. Bauer et al. (2005)
Yoshida et al. (2015)	Number of games attended	-

Two points we emphasise is our distinction between transactional and non-transactional behaviours and our rejection to conceptualise intentions as part of the behavioural dimension of loyalty.

3.2.1 Fan Engagement

Scholars used transactional and non-transactional behaviour to conceptualise this dimension of loyalty (e.g. H. H. Bauer et al., 2005; H. H. Bauer et al., 2008; Hart, 2015) but did not use the term Fan engagement to label it. To the best of our knowledge, Yoshida et al. (2014) were the first to introduce the term Fan engagement to football spectator research and conceptualised it as non-transactional behaviour only (c.f. Table II-15). They defined Fan engagement as "extrarole behaviours in nontransactional exchanges to benefit his or her favorite sport team, the team's management, and other fans" (p. 403).

In this study, we introduce the term Fan engagement as the behavioural dimension of Fan loyalty. In reference to our definition of engagement (cf. Subsection 1.2.2.1 Engagement), we define Fan engagement as:

> The sport spectator's transactional and/or non-transactional behaviours, which are team-related, iterative and directly or indirectly supportive for the team.

3.3 Fan Loyalty

Following the classical two-dimensional conceptualisation of loyalty, Fan commitment represents the attitudinal dimension and Fan engagement the behavioural dimension. In other words, Fan loyalty, as we understand it, is the aggregate of Fan commitment and Fan engagement. The dimensions can be described as autonomously connected. Both may exist independently and as well influence each other. However, only if both dimensions are present at the same point in time and directed towards the same team, we label a sport spectator a loyal fan.

Due to the two-dimensional conceptualisation measuring Fan loyalty directly is not feasible. It may only be inferred from the aggregation of Fan commitment and Fan engagement. Both dimensions can have infinitive degrees between low and high, which results in an infinitive spectrum of Fan loyalty (cf. Figure II-8).

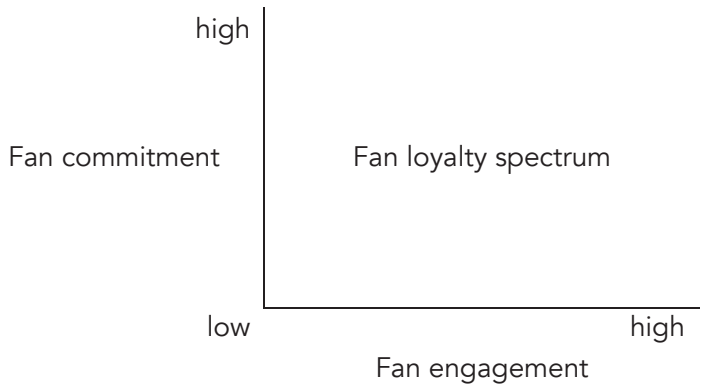


Figure II-8. The two dimensions of Fan loyalty

We emphasise that only the combination of an iterative and overt behavioural confession, be it transactional or non-transactional, and a favourable and resistant to change attitude results in Fan loyalty. The strength of Fan loyalty depends on the degrees of Fan engagement and Fan commitment. Combinations of an attitude and behaviours, which do not conform to the definitions of Fan commitment and Fan engagement result in hybrid forms of Fan loyalty (cf. Figure II-9).

		Fan engagement present?	
		Yes	No
Fan commitment present?	Yes	Fan loyalty	Latent Fan loyalty
	No	Spurious Fan loyalty	No Fan loyalty

Figure II-9. Fan-loyalty-hybrid-form-matrix

Note. Based on Dick and Basu (1994).

This rigorous differentiation between Fan loyalty and hybrid forms of it might intimidate sport fans, who think of themselves as loyal fans. From our point of view, this definition might take away the "illusion" from a lot of fans, who would consider themselves as loyal. This conceptualisation declines to label an individual a loyal fan just because he or she is a molecule north of indifferent towards a sports team (cf. comment of Reichheld (2003, p. 6) on satisfaction measures). Based on this conceptualisation and our previous analysis of the relevant literature, we define Fan loyalty in reference to Jacoby and Kyner (1973) and Bloemer and Kasper (1995) as:

> (1) the non-random, (2) transactional and/or (3) non-transactional team-related behaviour (i.e. Fan engagement), (4) expressed over time and (5) function of psychological processes resulting in Fan commitment.

It has been shown in the marketing literature that psychological commitment (i.e. Fan commitment) can influence behaviours (i.e. Fan engagement). In this context, the following and last subsection deals with the Fan commitment – Fan engagement link and ends with the two first hypotheses of this study.

3.3.1 The Fan commitment – Fan engagement link

The link between attitudes and behaviours has been well established in the literature (Ajzen, 1989; Ajzen & Fishbein, 1980, 2005; Fishbein & Ajzen, 1975). So far, our analysis omitted to specifically highlight the link between psychological commitment (i.e. Fan commitment) and behaviours (i.e. Fan engagement).

Summarised in Table II-16 is a selection of studies, which link psychological commitment directly to behaviour or specifically to engagement. The studies include theoretical and empirical evidence from the relationship management (Garbarino & Johnson, 1999; R. M. Morgan & Hunt, 1994), engagement (Kumar et al., 2010; van Doorn et al., 2010), and sport-specific literature (Bee & Havitz, 2010; Iwasaki & Havitz, 1998, 2004; Ratten et al., 2011). In their theoretical work on engagement van Doorn et al. (2010) suggested that commitment is an antecedent to engagement, more specifically to non-transactional behaviour. In a similar vein, Kumar et al. (2010) proposed a link between attitudes and transactional and non-transactional behaviour (our conceptualisation of Fan engagement).

Table II-16

Selection of studies linking psychological commitment directly to behaviours

		Method	
Author(s)	Theme	theoretical	empirical
Kumar et al. (2010)	Conceptualisation of customer engagement value	x	
van Doorn et al. (2010)	Theoretical foundations of customer engagement	x	
Garbarino and Johnson (1999)	Role of commitment in customer relationships		x
R. M. Morgan and Hunt (1994)	Commitment and trust in relationship management		x
Ratten et al. (2011)	Customer relationships to sport organisations	x	
Bee and Havitz (2010)	Commitment and behaviours of sport spectators		x
Iwasaki and Havitz (2004)	Psychological commitment to sport organisations		x
Iwasaki and Havitz (1998)	Psychological commitment to sport organisations	x	

Studies by R. M. Morgan and Hunt (1994) and Garbarino and Johnson (1999) in the realm of relationship management, showed that relationship commitment could influence customer cooperation and future intentions. In the sports industry, Iwasaki and Havitz (2004) demonstrated that psychological commitment influences the duration, frequency and intensity of participation in a public leisure agency. Bee and Havitz (2010) exhibited that psychological commitment influences sport event

attendance and Ratten et al. (2011) suggested that commitment, as part of relationship quality, influences sport consumption behaviours (WoM, media, licenced merchandise, attendance). By applying these theoretical and empirical findings to our research context, we propose:

Hypothesis 1: Fan commitment to a sports team has a positive influence on Fan engagement behaviours.

Although we defined Fan commitment and Fan engagement as the two dimensions of Fan loyalty, we will link further variables to Fan commitment and Fan engagement separately and not to Fan Loyalty as a composite measure (cf. Section Two – Variables). This decision is rooted in the methodological findings of a meta-analysis of 126 loyalty studies which found that the variables' effects on the two dimensions of loyalty differ:

> If researchers seek to understand how antecedents create loyalty, loyalty must be measured and reported as an attitude or behavior separately, because the antecedents differentially build each element. […] ignoring such differences could produce misleading results that depend more on the loyalty element measured than on the actual efficacy of the loyalty-building strategy. (G. F. Watson, Beck, Henderson, & Palmatier, 2015, p. 803)

Section Two – Variables

In the preceding section, we developed the two-dimensional conceptualisation of Fan loyalty, the centrepiece of the FRM Model. In this section, we move ahead in the development of the model. We aim to establish six independent variables that influence the two Fan loyalty dimensions directly or indirectly. We elucidate why we chose the six independent variables. Crucial to this section is the distinction between sports team, i.e. a group of athletes and its superordinate sport governing body (cf. 2.1.3 Sport organisation's constituents). Qualitative research found that sport governing bodies might influence a fan's loyalty toward the national team, at least for some fan segments (Bodet et al., 2017). Thus, we suggest that specific direct and indirect drivers of Fan loyalty should be measured towards the sports team and the sport governing body (cf. Table II-17). We end Section Two, which also marks the completion of Part I, with the presentation of the FRM Model.

Table II-17

Definitions of the independent variables in relation to SPT and SGB

Construct	Definition	Reference(s)
Variables influencing Fan loyalty dimensions		
Identification with SPT	Degree of overlap of self-schema and sports team schema.	Bergami and Bagozzi (2000), Gwinner and Swanson (2003)
Trust in SPT	Confidence in a sports team's integrity and ability to deliver on its promises.	Moorman et al. (1992), R. M. Morgan and Hunt (1994), Garbarino and Johnson (1999)
Trust in SGB	Confidence in a governing body's integrity and its ability to carry out the organisation's obligations.	cf. above
Satisfaction with SPT	Overall evaluation of the past experiences with a sports team to date.	Gustafsson et al. (2005), Johnson and Fornell (1991)
Satisfaction with SGB	Overall evaluation of the past experiences with a sport governing body to date.	cf. above
Interactivity disposition of SPT	Perceived sports team's openness and willingness to create and appreciate a two-way communication with individuals outside of the organisation.	Downes and McMillan (2000)
Interactivity disposition of SGB	Perceived sport governing body's openness and willingness to create and appreciate a two-way communication with individuals outside of the organisation.	cf. above

(Continued)

Continued.

Construct	Definition	Reference(s)
Variables influencing Trust		
Reputation of SPT	Aggregate of perceptions, inferences, and beliefs about a sports team, resulting in an overall and specific evaluation of it and its perceived attributes.	T. J. Brown and Dacin (1997), Keh and Xie (2009)
Reputation of SGB	Aggregate of perceptions, inferences, and beliefs about a sport governing body, resulting in an overall and specific evaluation of it and its perceived attributes.	cf. above
Governance of SGB	Perceived sport governing body's operation on normative, ethical principles such as transparency, accountability, democracy, and responsibility.	Henry and Lee (2004), Graham, Amos, and Plumptre (2003), Kartakoullis, Karlis, Walker, and Locke (2015)

Note. SPT = Sports Team; SGB = Sport Governing Body.

1 INDEPENDENT VARIABLES

The FRM Model's independent variables are Identification, Trust, Satisfaction, Interactivity disposition, Reputation, and Governance. We hypothesise that Identification, Trust, Satisfaction, and Interactivity disposition influence the Fan loyalty dimensions directly, and Reputation and Governance influence the two dimensions through Trust.

1.1 Variables influencing Fan loyalty dimensions

In the following, we present four of the six independent variables. These are Identification, Trust, Satisfaction, and Interactivity disposition.

1.1.1 Identification

Every individual holds a self-concept. That is the aggregate of an individual's personal and social identity (Tajfel & Turner, 1985). While, personal identity is composed of distinctive personal characteristics, like abilities and interests. An individual's social identity originates from a self-classification; i.e. a categorisation to which socially defined groups one belongs. The repertoire and characteristics of social group memberships define an individual's social identity. A social group can be age, gender, race, or institutional membership (Mael & Ashforth, 1992).

The perception of being a member of a social group and identifying with it is termed social identification. This self-classification – and classification of others – into social groups enables individuals "to order the social environment and locate themselves and others within it" (Mael & Ashforth, 1992, p. 104).

One manifestation of social identification is organisational identification. By identifying with an organisation "a person comes to view him- or herself as a member of a particular social entity, the organization" (Bergami & Bagozzi, 2000, p. 557; Mael & Ashforth, 1992). Individuals with the "perception of belongingness" to a particular organisation (Mael & Ashforth, 1992, p. 104), "adopt the defining characteristics of the

organization as defining characteristics for themselves" (Dutton, Dukerich, & Harquail, 1994, p. 242). Hence, they feel a "degree of overlap of self-schema and organization schema" (T. J. Brown, Barry, Dacin, & Gunst, 2005, p. 127).

In the same way that one may identify with an organisation, an individual might identify with a sports team. Theory on the comparison between the own group membership (e.g. being a fan of team "Blue") and individuals that are a member of other groups (e.g. fans of team "Yellow"), is coined in-group and out-group membership status. The differentiation between the two statuses is vital to understand identification with a sports team. Its importance lies in the fact that in sport spectatorship and participation, in-group versus out-group comparisons are omnipresent (Funk et al., 2016). In order to reflect identification with a sports team more accurately, it has been proposed that multiple in-groups shape and operate in a sports team setting (Lock & Funk, 2016).

The identification with a sports team has been labelled as spectator identification (Branscombe & Wann, 1992), fan identification (Stevens & Rosenberger III, 2012; Sutton, McDonald, Milne, & Cimperman, 1997), or team identification (Gwinner & Swanson, 2003). Moreover, most definitions of spectator/team/fan identification dwell on an individual's concern with the team's performance (cf. Table II-18).

Table II-18

Definitions of sports team identification

Author(s)	Definition
Branscombe and Wann (1992, p. 1017)	Spectator identification is defined as the extent to which individuals perceive themselves as fans of the team, are involved with the team, are concerned with the team's performance, and view the team as a representation of themselves.
Sutton et al. (1997, p. 15)	Fan identification is defined as the personal commitment and emotional involvement customers have with a sport organization.
Gwinner and Swanson (2003, p. 276)	Team identification is defined as the spectators perceived connectedness to a team and the experience of the team's failings and achievements as one's own.
Stevens and Rosenberger III (2012, p. 222)	Fan identification with a sports team is the personal commitment, perceived connectedness and emotional involvement a spectator has with a team, where the team's failings and achievements are experienced as one's own.

Note. The definitions are direct quotes from the authors.

Although we follow sport-specific work, we embrace a related but distinct definition. Unlike the reviewed definitions (cf. Table II-18), ours excludes involvement, commitment, concern about performance, as we consider these possible antecedents and consequences of sports team identification. Thus, we focus solely on the cognitive state of self-classification (Bergami & Bagozzi, 2000; T. J. Brown et al., 2005) and define identification with a sports team as

> the degree of overlap of self-schema and sports team schema i.e. the cognitive state of recognising the sports team's identity, e.g. its attributes and values, as to some degree overlapping one's attributes and values.

Concepts that are similar to our definition of identification have been associated, empirically and theoretically, with positive consumer behaviours (cf. Table II-19). Authors that defined sports team identification differently, have linked it directly to home game attendance and likelihood of away game attendance (Wann & Branscombe, 1993), decreased price sensitivity and increased performance tolerance (Sutton et al., 1997), sponsor patronage (Gwinner & Swanson, 2003), and Fan loyalty

(McDonald, 2010; Stevens & Rosenberger III, 2012). However, for reasons emphasised below, we believe sports team identification does not influence Fan engagement directly.

Table II-19

Common aliases of consumer identification

Concept	Author(s)
Self-connection	Fournier (1998)
Congruence	Sen and Bhattacharya (2001)
Shared values	R. M. Morgan and Hunt (1994), Heckman and Guskey (1998)
Self-image congruence	Sirgy et al. (1997), Sirgy and Samli (1985)
Position involvement	Pritchard et al. (1999)
Affective commitment	Gruen, Summers, and Acito (2000), Harrison-Walker (2001)

Note. The presentation of common aliases is based on a summary by T. J. Brown et al. (2005, p. 128).

1.1.1.1 Identification and Fan commitment

The theoretical and empirical research that suggests a direct link between sports team identification and positive fan behaviours exhibit one of the following two features. Feature one: The sports team identification conceptualisation includes concepts comparable to Fan commitment (e.g. Sutton et al., 1997). Feature two: Positive fan behaviours are conceptualised as a dimension along with concepts related to Fan commitment (e.g. fan loyalty in Stevens & Rosenberger III, 2012). Thus, Fan commitment is ever-present in the suggested direct sports team identification – positive fan behaviours link. Either as antecedent or as part of the consequence. Similarly, some marketing researchers have argued that psychological commitment contains an identification component (e.g. Garbarino & Johnson, 1999; Gruen et al., 2000; Pritchard et al., 1999). Nevertheless, we follow another stance.

T. J. Brown et al. (2005) emphasised that organisational identification and psychological commitment are two distinct concepts (see also Bergami & Bagozzi,

2000). Furthermore, they showed empirically that consumer commitment moderates the link between consumer identification and positive word-of-mouth behaviours. Likewise, R. M. Morgan and Hunt (1994) found that shared values influence relational commitment positively.

By transferring these findings to the sport context, we argue that sports team identification and Fan commitment are two distinct concepts, whereas the former influences the latter directly and positively. Overall, the increased overlap between a fan's self-schema and a sports team schema will cause an individual "to desire to maintain a relationship with the organisation [while rejecting] the relationship would be to reject one's own identity, when identification is high" (T. J. Brown et al., 2005, p. 128). Concluding, we put forward the ensuing hypothesis.

Hypothesis 2: Identification with a sports team has a positive influence on Fan commitment to the sports team.

1.1.2 Trust

Moorman et al. (1992), emphasised that trust consists of two components. Firstly, a belief that a partner is trustworthy and secondly, a behavioural intention of relying on that partner (i.e. making oneself vulnerable). They stressed this idea as, on the one hand "without *vulnerability,* trust is unnecessary because outcomes are inconsequential for the trustor" (p. 315). Whereas on the other hand, being vulnerable but having a disbelief in the partner's trustworthiness, then one's reliance "may be more a function of power and control than trust" (Moorman et al., 1992, p. 315).

Likewise, frequently cited definitions of trust are built around the term confidence. For R. M. Morgan and Hunt (1994) trust exists "when one party has confidence in an exchange partner's reliability and integrity" (p. 23). In a similar vein, Moorman et al. (1992) defined trust as "a willingness to rely on an exchange partner in whom one has confidence" (p. 315) and analogously, Garbarino and Johnson (1999) characterised trust as the "confidence in the quality and reliability of the services offered" (p. 71).

The aforementioned studies were conducted in a retail (automobile tire retailers; R. M. Morgan & Hunt, 1994), a performing art (theatre company; Garbarino & Johnson, 1999), and an interpersonal context (trust between users and providers of market research information; Moorman et al., 1992). The three study contexts exemplify the findings of Doney and Cannon (1997) on the nature of trust. They concluded that trust might be established towards public institutions, organisations, and individuals. Besides the three separate contexts, there is a further distinction to be made between the studies. Moorman et al. (1992) and R. M. Morgan and Hunt (1994) investigated trust towards an individual or an organisation itself, while Garbarino and Johnson (1999) explored customer trust in the "quality and reliability of the *services* offered" (p.71, emphasis added). In this study's context, sport spectatorship, we define trust as confidence in the integrity and reliability of the sports team itself. In other words,

> trust in a sports team exists when one has confidence in the team's integrity and ability to deliver on its promises.

Apart from trust in the sports team, we argue that an individual might establish trust or distrust in the sport governing body to which the sports team is affiliated. Therefore, we consider the sport governing body and its team as two interlinked, but separate entities towards an individual may have trust or distrust. In relation to our definition of trust in a sports team, we propose that

> trust in a sport governing body exists when one has confidence in the governing body's integrity and its ability to carry out the organisation's obligations.

The definitions and the distinction made between trust in a sports team and trust in its superordinate sport governing body are in line with the work of Sirdeshmukh, Singh, and Sabol (2002). In their study in a retail and air travel context

they distinguished between trust in frontline employee behaviours (here: sports team) and trust in management policies and practices (here: sport governing body).

Table II-20

Trust in the relationship management literature

Author	Trust linked to successful relationships
Spekman (1988, p. 79)	[…] the cornerstone to the strategic partnership is mutual trust.
R. M. Morgan and Hunt (1994, p. 22)	[…] trust is central to successful relationship marketing, not power in its ability to 'condition others'.
Ganesan (1994, p. 1)	Trust and dependence play key roles in determining the long-term orientation of both retail buyers and their vendors.
Berry (1995, p. 242)	Customers who develop trust in service suppliers based on their experiences with them […] have good reason to remain in these relationships: they reduce uncertainty and vulnerability.
Doney and Cannon (1997, p. 36)	To make current purchase decisions and long-term relational commitments, buyers must determine the extent to which they can trust suppliers and their salespeople.
Garbarino and Johnson (1999, p. 71)	Trust generally is viewed as an essential ingredient for successful relationships.
Coulter and Coulter (2002, p. 35)	Trust is a key factor in the establishment of long-term relationships between service representatives and their customers.

Note. The definitions are direct quotes from the authors.

The concept of trust has been widely discussed in the realm of relationship management (e.g. Berry, 1995; Coulter & Coulter, 2002; Doney & Cannon, 1997; Ganesan, 1994; Garbarino & Johnson, 1999; R. M. Morgan & Hunt, 1994; Palmer & Bejou, 1994; Sirdeshmukh et al., 2002; Spekman, 1988) and has been described as the foundation for fruitful and long-term relationships (cf. Table II-20). Or as Gundlach and Murphy (1993, p. 41) put it "the variable most universally accepted as a basis of any human interaction or exchange is trust." Theoretical and empirical studies suggest that in order to establish a long-term relationship with a retailer, trust is inevitable (e.g. R. M. Morgan & Hunt, 1994). Correspondingly, trust as a "building block of relationships" is essential in sport, where fan support rests on relationships with players, coaches and teams (Lee, Bang, & Lee, 2013, p. 237).

1.1.2.1 Trust and Fan commitment

The link between trust and commitment has been well established in the marketing literature. For example, its positive influence on relationship commitment (R. M. Morgan & Hunt, 1994) or its conceptualisation as a precursor of commitment (Garbarino & Johnson, 1999; Hennig-Thurau & Klee, 1997). Likewise, Chaudhuri and Holbrook (2001) argued that "trust and commitment should be associated, because trust is important in relational exchanges and commitment is also reserved for such valued relationships" (p. 83-84). Finally, trust in different entities of the same organisation can have distinct effects on loyalty towards the organisation (e.g. trust in frontline employee behaviours vs trust in management policies and practices; Sirdeshmukh et al., 2002).

To our best knowledge, there are no sport-specific studies that link trust in a sports team or sport governing body directly to commitment. A study touching on this link has been done by S.-H. Wu, Tsai, and Hung (2012) in baseball. For them, trust in a player and trust in a sports team, both mediated through player/team identification, might influence behavioural intentions. They conceptualised behavioural intentions as the attitudinal dimension of loyalty. In a qualitative study on European football fans, Bodet (2013) found that trust is an essential factor "to create a mutual and positive relationship" (p. 74) with a team and its superordinate sport governing body. Similar to Harris and Ogbonna (2008), who did qualitative work on English football supporters, Bodet (2013) found the following. Some fan groups, among the most committed, are strongly distrustful of the formal hierarchy in sport clubs (i.e. administration, governing body). This reinforced us, to distinguish between trust in the team and trust in the sport governing body.

Hypothesis 3.1: Trust in a sports team has a positive influence on Fan commitment to the sports team.

Hypothesis 3.2: Trust in a sport governing body has a positive influence on Fan commitment to the sports team.

1.1.2.2 Trust and Fan engagement

Less literature can be found on customer trust directly linked to customer behaviours. Empirical studies showed that trust has a direct influence on purchase intentions (Chaudhuri & Holbrook, 2001; Garbarino & Johnson, 1999). On the contrary, Sirdeshmukh et al. (2002) showed weak or nonsignificant direct effects of trust on future purchase intentions. These studies are just somewhat helpful to argue for a direct link between trust and Fan engagement. Opposite to our understanding, they conceptualised behavioural intentions as a reflective measure of behaviours. Evidence for a direct link of trust and purchase behaviours is exhibited in a meta-analysis of customer loyalty's antecedents (G. F. Watson et al., 2015).

In a sport context, despite theoretical considerations (Ratten et al., 2011) and qualitative findings (Bodet, 2013) that trust influences sport spectator consumption behaviours, no empirical evidence for this link could be found. Nonetheless, evidence for the contrary, no direct link between the two constructs, is weak as well. Therefore, by relying on Ratten et al. (2011), Bodet (2013), and G. F. Watson et al. (2015), we advance that trust in a sports team and a sport governing body have an effect on Fan engagement.

Hypothesis 4.1: Trust in a sports team has a positive influence on Fan engagement.

Hypothesis 4.2: Trust in a sport governing body has a positive influence on Fan engagement.

1.1.3 Satisfaction

Marketing research is often concerned with a customer's satisfaction, as it is one of customer loyalty's central antecedents (G. F. Watson et al., 2015). Customer satisfaction has been defined as an individual's satisfaction with a product or service that was used and/or experienced. Through comparing expectations towards a product or service with the experienced product or service quality, customers determine their level of satisfaction. In the most basic terms, the confirmation of

expectations leads to satisfaction, whereas disconfirmation of expectations leads to dissatisfaction (Westbrook & Oliver, 1981).

Researchers distinguish between transactional and cumulative satisfaction evaluations (Bitner & Hubbert, 1994; M. A. Jones & Suh, 2000). While transaction-specific satisfaction evaluations take a single experience into account, cumulative satisfaction evaluations consider multiple experiences with a particular service or product (E. W. Anderson, Fornell, & Lehmann, 1994). The resulting transaction-specific satisfaction reflects a complex cognitive and affective post consumption reaction at a given point in time (Oliver, 1997; for a review see Yi, 1990) whereas cumulative satisfaction reflects post consumption reactions in an open or given period (Olsen & Johnson, 2003).

When comparing the two satisfaction evaluations, cumulative satisfaction has been described as "an overall evaluation based on the total purchase and consumption experience with a good or service over time", while it is "a more fundamental indicator of the firm's past, current, and future performance" (E. W. Anderson et al., 1994, p. 54). Similarly, it has been advanced that cumulative satisfaction is a better predictor of customer intentions and behaviours (M. A. Jones & Suh, 2000; Olsen & Johnson, 2003). Therefore, we argue that cumulative satisfaction is the more suitable variable to influence the two Fan loyalty dimensions (i.e. psychological commitment and Fan engagement). Consequently, in the following, we treat satisfaction as cumulative.

In sport theory and research, satisfaction is studied in two main fields; satisfaction in sport participation services (e.g. Bodet, 2006; Bodet, 2008; Petrick & Backman, 2002) and satisfaction in sport spectator services (e.g. Beccarini & Ferrand, 2006; Bodet & Bernache-Assollant, 2009, 2011; Sarstedt, Ringle, Raithel, & Gudergan, 2014; Theodorakis et al., 2013; Van Leeuwen, Quick, & Daniel, 2002; Yoshida & James, 2010). Most sport spectator satisfaction research is focused on either game satisfaction, service satisfaction, or both (Jun Woo, Magnusen, & Yu Kyoum, 2014). While game satisfaction refers to the "overall satisfaction with the game experience in relation to the sport competition on the field", service satisfaction is defined as "overall

satisfaction with the services experienced at a sporting event" (Yoshida et al., 2015, p. 322).

We focus neither on satisfaction with the game nor on service satisfaction at games. Instead, we define a fan's satisfaction with the sports team and with the superordinate sport governing body. Hence, and in accordance with Gustafsson et al. (2005) and Johnson and Fornell (1991) we advance the following definitions

> satisfaction with a sports team is an individual's overall evaluation of the past experiences with the team to date
>
> and
>
> satisfaction with a sport governing body is the individual's overall evaluation of the past experiences with the sport governing body to date.

Analogue to satisfaction with service providers and firms, satisfaction with a sports team and a sport governing body may influence both loyalty dimensions (G. F. Watson et al., 2015).

1.1.3.1 Satisfaction and Fan commitment

We defined psychological commitment as an attitude which is resistant to change. Satisfaction "provides a comparative basis (prior expectation versus actual experience) on which to develop attitudes" (G. F. Watson et al., 2015, p. 792). The link between satisfaction and the attitudinal dimension of loyalty (often repurchase intentions) has been validated by several researchers in different contexts (e.g. Bodet, 2008; M. A. Jones & Suh, 2000; Olsen & Johnson, 2003; Theodorakis et al., 2013; Yoshida & James, 2010).

Therefore, being overall satisfied with the sports team influences the attitudinal dimension of Fan loyalty. Possibly to a lesser extent, the same might hold for satisfaction with the superordinate sport governing body and the Fan loyalty's attitudinal dimension (i.e. Fan commitment).

Hypothesis 5.1: Satisfaction with a sports team has a positive influence on Fan commitment to the sports team.

Hypothesis 5.2: Satisfaction with a sport governing body has a positive influence on Fan commitment to the sports team.

1.1.3.2 Satisfaction and Fan engagement

Satisfaction is regarded as a tenet of engagement behaviours (Pansari & Kumar, 2017). Its link to the behavioural dimension of loyalty has been empirically validated in a meta-analysis based on 163 studies (G. F. Watson et al., 2015). However, contrary findings have been reported in a sport participation setting, where the link between satisfaction and actual repurchases was not supported (Bodet, 2008).

In the light of the reviewed literature, we argue that overall satisfaction with a sports team influences a fan's engagement. Also, we explore if this link holds for the satisfaction with the sport governing body and Fan engagement.

Hypothesis 6.1: Satisfaction with a sports team has a positive influence on Fan engagement.

Hypothesis 6.2: Satisfaction with a sport governing body has a positive influence on Fan engagement.

1.1.4 Interactivity disposition

Two-way communication in the digital age has been described as interactivity (Kiousis, 2002). Interactivity involves at least one individual and a system to stimulate an interactive experience. Thus it appears that many experiences in a technology-driven environment may be termed interactive, despite the absence of a second individual (Downes & McMillan, 2000). In our conceptualisation, the automated exchanges between an individual and a system are not considered as interactivity.

We define interactivity as two-way communication between, at least, two individuals mediated by a device that enables the exchange. In an organisational setting, this translates to: an individual outside of an organisation and an individual

representing the organisation engage in a two-way communication process, that is (1) mediated by technology and (2) the terms receiver and sender can be used interchangeably (Downes & McMillan, 2000). This reflects the main ingredients of an interactive experience, which is a "two-way or multiway communication […] through a mediated channel", in which "the roles of message sender and receiver should be interchangeable among participants" (Kiousis, 2002, p. 368).

Which actions exactly define an online-interaction, that is valuable to the individual outside the organisation, requires exploration. On the one end, it might be just an appreciating reaction by the organisation. That could be "liking[64]" or "retweeting[65]" an organisation-related social media post of an individual. On the other end, it might be a "process of reasoning together" with the intent to create shared meanings, what has been termed a "relationship dialogue" (Grönroos, 2000a, p. 5).

Both interaction extremes share a central feature, that is: a motivation, the receptivity, or at least a disposition to react to input (Grönroos, 2000a on developing and maintaining a dialogue). This may lead to a one-time interaction of an appreciating nature (like or retweet), a multitude of interactions, or something in between. This two-way communication can contribute to the relationship quality and commitment (R. M. Morgan & Hunt, 1994; Ratten et al., 2011; Verma et al., 2016). Hence, it serves as a "relational maintenance strategy that contributes to relational outcomes" (Ariel & Avidar, 2015, p. 21).

We argue that an organisation can evoke similar positive outcomes by going a step beyond the actual interaction. Meaning, being perceived as an organisation that is authentically interested in interacting, offers opportunities for two-way communication, and appreciates interactions with individuals outside the organisation. Giving individuals outside of the organisation the feeling that their effort to get in touch, contribute to or create content, is welcome, will be valued and reacted

[64] "(in the context of social media) indicate one's approval of or support for (someone or something) by means of a particular icon or link" (Oxford Dictionaries, 2017b).
[65] "(on Twitter) repost or forward (a message posted by another user)" (Oxford Dictionaries, 2017c).

to. Hence, we define interactivity disposition of a sports team and a sport governing body as

> the perceived sports team's openness and willingness to create and appreciate a two-way communication with individuals outside of the organisation
>
> and
>
> the perceived sport governing body's openness and willingness to create and appreciate a two-way communication with individuals outside of the organisation.

To the best of our knowledge, there is no literature explicitly on interactivity disposition. Nonetheless, by relying on literature on communication in relationship management, we link interactivity disposition to psychological commitment and engagement behaviours.

1.1.4.1 Interactivity disposition and Fan commitment

Perceived online-interactivity might influence consumer perceptions (McMillan & Hwang, 2002). Similarly, communication has been shown to influence relationship commitment (R. M. Morgan & Hunt, 1994), and reciprocity has been conceptualised as a dimension of relationship quality (Ratten et al., 2011). Further empirical evidence for the link between interactivity and relationship quality was provided in a meta-analysis of 50 studies in online retailing (Verma et al., 2016, p. 209). Although, they emphasised that research, particularly on interactivity and commitment in online retailing, is scarce.

Findings in a sport spectator context indicated that for some fans the reciprocal communication with team and governing body officials is essential, as Bodet (2013) concluded, "the majority of the fans appear in demand for more contacts and interaction, which implies a two-way process" (p.32). Being perceived as a team or

sport governing body that is welcoming and appreciating interactions might influence the psychological commitment towards it.

Hypothesis 7.1: Interactivity disposition of a sports team has a positive influence on Fan commitment to the sports team.

Hypothesis 7.2: Interactivity disposition of a sport governing body has a positive influence on Fan commitment to the sports team.

1.1.4.2 Interactivity disposition and Fan engagement

Interactivity can create extra value in a relationship and enhance positive WoM behaviours (Grönroos, 2000a). Therefore, organisations should facilitate it. Online Fan engagement behaviour is more likely to occur if one is assured that any effort (e.g. contributing to content or creating new content) will be genuinely acknowledged. Hence, teams and sport governing bodies that are perceived as enabling and recognising the urge for interactivity might profit from higher engagement levels.

Hypothesis 8.1: Interactivity disposition of a sports team has a positive influence on Fan engagement.

Hypothesis 8.2: Interactivity disposition of a sport governing body has a positive influence on Fan engagement.

1.2 Variables influencing Trust

Trust is one of the essential ingredients of a fruitful and healthy relationship (Berry, 1995; Coulter & Coulter, 2002; Doney & Cannon, 1997; Ganesan, 1994; Garbarino & Johnson, 1999; R. M. Morgan & Hunt, 1994; Palmer & Bejou, 1994; Sirdeshmukh et al., 2002; Spekman, 1988). Its influence on the Fan loyalty dimensions has been described above and empirically validated most recently by G. F. Watson et al. (2015).

The antecedents of trust, investigated in this study, are depicted in the following subsection. These are: reputation and governance. Governance is, based on

qualitative findings (Bodet, 2013), for the first time linked directly to trust towards sport governing bodies.

1.2.1 Reputation

A favourable corporate reputation can be the basis for loyalty and purchase decisions (Keh & Xie, 2009). Reason enough for academics from the management, economics, sociology, and marketing fields to investigate that promising concept (T. J. Brown, Dacin, Pratt, & Whetten, 2006; Keh & Xie, 2009).

In marketing, the concept of corporate reputation describes what individuals outside of an organisation believe and know about it (T. J. Brown et al., 2006). Earlier publications defined corporate reputation in a similar vein. For example, "reputation reflects how well it has done in the eyes of the marketplace" (Weiss, Anderson, & MacInnis, 1999, p. 75) or "a corporate reputation is a stakeholder's overall evaluation of a company over time" (Gotsi & Wilson, 2001, p. 29). Subsequent publications used complementary definitions (cf. Table II-21). An element of reputation's definition are corporate associations, a conception defined as

> Perceptions, inferences, and beliefs about a company; a person's knowledge of his or her prior behaviors with respect to the company; information about the company's prior actions; moods and emotions experienced by the person with respect to the company; and overall and specific evaluations of the company and its perceived attributes. (T. J. Brown & Dacin, 1997, p. 69)

The notion of corporate associations is closely related to brand associations, a concept coined by Aaker (1991) and Keller (1993). Like T. J. Brown and Dacin (1997), both advanced a theory integrating mental associations, but instead of corporate associations, they targeted brand associations; defining it around a corporation's products and services and not on the corporation itself (T. J. Brown & Dacin, 1997). Hence, Aaker (1991) and Keller (1993) labelled a set of brand associations, held mentally by an individual, brand image.

Table II-21

Overview of reputation definitions

Author(s)	Definition reputation
Weiss et al. (1999, p. 75)	Thus, whereas image reflects what a firm stands for, reputation reflects how well it has done in the eyes of the marketplace.
Gotsi and Wilson (2001, p. 29)	A corporate reputation is a stakeholder's overall evaluation of a company over time. This evaluation is based on the stakeholder's direct experiences with the company, any other form of communication and symbolism that provides information about the firm's actions and/or a comparison with the actions of other leading rivals.
T. J. Brown et al. (2006, p. 104)	We suggest using the label *reputation* to capture the set of corporate associations that individuals outside an organisation believe are CED [central, enduring, distinctive] to the organization.
G. Walsh and Beatty (2007, p. 129)	The customer's overall evaluation of a firm based on his or her reactions to the firm's goods, services, communication activities, interactions with the firm and/or its representatives or constituencies (such as employees, management, or other customers) and/or known corporate activities.
Parent and Foreman (2007, p. 17)	Aggregate of the impressions that external stakeholders have about the organization and, furthermore, as an accumulation of these images over an extended time […].
Keh and Xie (2009, p. 733)	We define corporate reputation as an overall evaluation of the extent to which a firm is substantially 'good' or 'bad'.

Note. The definitions are direct quotes from the authors.

Directly linked to the distinction between corporate and brand associations is what the authors specified as the characteristics of associations. As emphasised above, while corporate associations resemble perceptions, inferences, and beliefs about a company (T. J. Brown & Dacin, 1997), Aaker (1991) and Keller (1993) took a similar view and included *meaning*. Both argued that everything a customer links cognitively to a brand plus the brand's meaning to the customer is considered a brand association. For example, Keller (1993, p. 3) emphasised that brand associations "contain the meaning of the brand for consumers" and Aaker (1991, p. 110) stressed that "the underlying value of a brand name often is its set of associations", namely its meaning to people.

We adopt the definition of corporate associations. Therefore, adhere to the stream of literature that regards a set of corporate associations as corporate reputation (T. J. Brown et al., 2006). Hence, we define the reputation of a sports team as

> aggregate of perceptions, inferences, and beliefs about a sports team, resulting in an overall and specific evaluation of it and its perceived attributes.

Equivalently we define the reputation of a sport governing body as

> aggregate of perceptions, inferences, and beliefs about a sport governing body, resulting in an overall and specific evaluation of it and its perceived attributes.

1.2.1.1 Reputation and Trust

In the sport marketing literature, the majority of it focused on sports teams' brand image (e.g. H. H. Bauer et al., 2008; Gladden & Funk, 2002; Kaynak, Salman, & Tatoglu, 2008) and based their research on the conceptualisation of Keller (1993). The studies suggested a positive effect of team image on brand loyalty. Furthermore, stating that a positive team image may facilitate the differentiation "from competing clubs or other leisure activities" (H. H. Bauer et al., 2008, p. 206).

More recent research on spectator based sports team reputation (Wonseok, Yong Jae, & Chan-Olmsted, 2015) confirmed a strong link between reputation and trust (Keh & Xie, 2009). Similarly, and by referring to Herbig and Milewicz (1993), Shonk and Bravo (2010) argue that a positive reputation "provides a sense of credibility and trustworthiness" (p. 281). The studies cited above indicate a positive reputation can contribute to the perceived integrity and honesty of an organisation. By transferring these findings to sports teams and sport governing bodies, we suggest:

Hypothesis 9.1: The reputation of the sports team has a positive influence on trust in the sports team.

Hypothesis 9.2: The reputation of the sport governing body has a positive influence on trust in the sport governing body.

1.2.2 Governance

In marketing, the term governance and the notion of good governance do not seem fully integrated. In isolation, the conceptualisation of governance has been dealt with in the field of social policy and political economy (e.g. Leftwich, 1994; Rhodes, 1997; J. N. Rosenau, 1992). To claim its potential utility in customer relationship management, we intend to firstly present literature on and definitions of governance, secondly clarify our understanding of it and thirdly stress its relevance in buyer-seller (sports fan–sports team) relationships.

In general terms, governance is defined as "the action or manner of governing a state, organisation, etc." (Oxford Dictionaries, 2016a), or as a "mode of organizing transactions" (Williamson & Ouchi, 1981 cited in Heide, 1994, p. 71). In a publication for the *Institute On Governance*[66], Graham et al. (2003) emphasised that governance is a process about "how governments and other social organizations interact, how they relate to citizens, and how decisions are taken in a complex world" (p. 1).

Before delving deeper into the concept of governance, an important distinction must be made between government and governance. These two are not synonyms (Graham et al., 2003; J. N. Rosenau, 1992). Both describe a process, whereas the former is guided through "activities that are backed by formal authority", and governance is characterised by "activities backed by shared goals" (J. N. Rosenau, 1992, pp. 3-6).

In reference to Leftwich (1994), Henry and Lee (2004) presented three interrelated perspectives how the academic and policy literature approached the concept of governance; a systematic, an organisational, or a political approach (cf. Table II-22). The systematic approach tackles the concept from an analytic or explanatory stance. More specifically, scholars are concerned with "the competition, cooperation and mutual adjustment between organisations in business and/or policy

[66] „The Institute On Governance (IOG) is a non-profit organization founded in 1990. Its mission is to explore, share and promote good governance in Canada and abroad (…)" (Graham et al., 2003, p. ii).

systems" (Henry & Lee, 2004, p. 25). Rhodes' (1997) definition of governance as the management of self-organised and inter and intra-linked networks suits that research stream. The organisational approach is dominated by literature, which addresses the normative, ethically informed principles on how organisations should operate. The third approach is, again, a more analytic one. Scholars dedicated to this research stream try to identify, how governments or governing bodies seek to "'steer', rather than directly control, the behaviour of organisations" (Henry & Lee, 2004, p. 25).

Table II-22

Three approaches to governance

Approach	Systematic	Organisational	Political
Use of concept	analytic/explanatory	normative/ethical	analytic/explanatory
Concerned with	How are the organisations inter- and intra-linked?	What are the normative, ethical principles an organisation should operate on?	How do policy makers try to steer organisations rather than commanding them?

Note. Approaches are adopted from Henry and Lee (2004) and Leftwich (1994).

In this study's context, we use the organisational approach to governance. Therefore, the further conceptualisation of governance shall be coined by the review of accepted norms and values the literature agrees on, on which (sport) governing bodies should operate on. In other words, the principles that inform good organisational governance shall be the tenor of the ensuing paragraph.

Graham et al. (2003) started their discussion of the principles of good governance by citing the set of principles developed by The United Nations Development Programme (1997) in the *Human Development Report 1997*. These are: participation, consensus orientation, strategic vision, responsiveness, effectiveness, efficiency, accountability, transparency, equity, and rule of law. For an advanced presentation of these principles and the application in a sport context, we refer to Henry and Lee (2004). Their list of the seven "key principles for the management of sporting and other public-welfare-oriented organisations" (p. 33; cf. Table II-23)

reflects most of the principles developed in the *Human Development Report 1997* and adopted by Graham et al. (2003) and Kartakoullis et al. (2015).

Table II-23

The seven principles of good governance for sporting and other public-welfare-orientated organisations by Henry and Lee (2004)

Principle	Description
Transparency	Clarity in procedures and decision-making, particularly in resource allocation. Organisations charged with care of a public good such as sport have a particular obligation not simply to act in a fair and consistent manner but also to be seen to do so. Thus their inner workings should as far as possible be open to public scrutiny.
Accountability	Sporting organisations are not only responsible to financial investors through financial reporting procedures, but also to those who invest other resources in the organisation – athletes, coaches, parents, supporters, sponsors and so on, even where that investment is largely emotional rather than material.
Democracy	Access to representation in decision-making should be available to those who make up the organisation's 'internal constituencies' – with for example representation on Boards of such organisations for constituencies such as players, supporters, and managers as well as owners.
Responsibility	For the sustainable development of the organisation and its sport, and stewardship of their resources and those of the community served.
Equity	In treatment of constituencies – for example gender equity in treatment of sports participants and in terms of positions within the organisation; and equity in treatment of sports participants (and employees) with disabilities.
Effectiveness	The establishing and monitoring of measures of effectiveness with measurable and attainable targets.
Efficiency	The achievement of such goals with the most efficient use of resources.

Note. The descriptions of the seven principles are direct quotes from Henry and Lee (2004, pp. 33-34).

The stated principles of good governance are the foundation for the conceptualisation of our governance variable. Hence, in relation to sport governing bodies we define governance variable as

> the perceived sport governing body's operation on normative, ethical principles such as transparency, accountability, democracy, and responsibility.

However, Henry and Lee (2004) stressed, and we agree, that "notions of, and practical means of achieving, democracy, accountability, and other values, will vary with different political, cultural, or temporal contexts [and therefore the descriptions] should be treated as a Eurocentric account" (p. 33). In 2005, Dr Jacques Rogge president of the International Olympic Committee from 2001 to 2013, put it similarly

> It is in style to say that ethics have disappeared in sports; ethics are an un-definable and evolutionary concept, and the base is respect for others. However, sport might be a universal language that is approached from very different angles by different cultures and nations. The vision of ethics is not universal therefore let us be very careful in approaching ethics. (Dr Jacques Rogge cited in Kartakoullis et al., 2015, pp. 67-68)

1.2.2.1 Governance and Trust

The conceptualisations of governance might exhibit that the management of an organisation based on the principles of good governance is closely related to ethical behaviour. Indeed Henry and Lee (2004) emphasised that "principles of corporate or good governance are in effect normative ethical principles on how organisations should operate" (p. 33). Following this stance, we argue that organisations which are committed to acting on the principles of good governance are more likely to be perceived ethical in their behaviours and therefore facilitate to be perceived trustworthy. At the same time, the perception of unethical behaviour of an organisation might enhance distrust, or at least prevents the development of trust.

Downe, Cowell, Chen, and Morgan (2013) for example showed, that ethical standards and behaviours of councillors are determinants of public trust. Similarly, Román (2003) demonstrated a positive effect of ethical sales behaviour on trust towards the company. In a sport context, Bodet (2013) found that some fans associated transparency, a principle of good governance, with trustworthy behaviour of sport organisations. Furthermore, Huiszoon et al. (2018) found a strong influence of the perceived governance of a sport governing body on the trust towards it. Furthermore, and related to the connection between good governance and trust is the following. Fan

representatives have been appointed to national sport organisation boards to render governing bodies more accountable and democratic (García & Welford, 2015) and counter distrust.

Concluding, as mentioned before, we believe that an individual aware of a specific sports team and its superordinate sport governing body develops different attitudes towards these entities. Nonetheless, the concept of governance is closely related to the behaviours of organisations, whether profit or not-for-profit oriented.

Hypothesis 10: Good governance of the sport governing body has a positive influence on trust in the sport governing body.

1.3 The Fan Relationship Management Model

Through the FRM Model we intend to describe the sport spectator sports team and sport spectator sport governing body relationship quality and its impact on a sport spectator's loyalty towards the team.

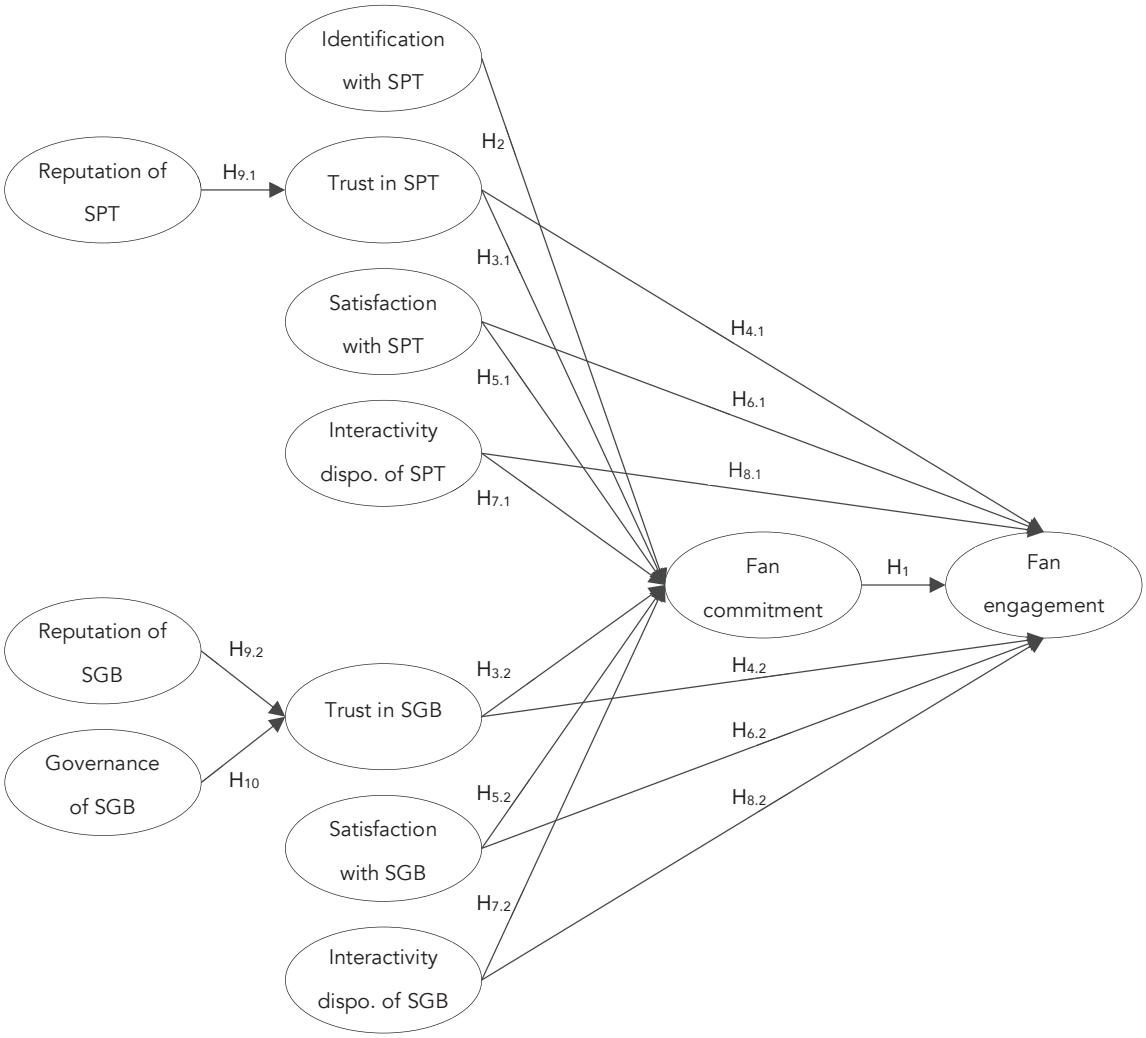


Figure II-10. The Fan Relationship Management Model

Note. SPT = Sports Team; SGB = Sport Governing Body.

CONCLUSION CHAPTER II

Using a two-dimensional conceptualisation of loyalty and linking six independent variables to it, we developed our FRM Model. By differentiating between the sports team and the sport governing body, we tried to map the relationships within the governing body–team–consumer triad. Different from other conceptualisations that model Fan loyalty, our FRM Model also exhibits the possible relationship between sport governing bodies and Fan loyalty. The model is our attempt to broaden the perspective on which relationships might influence a sport spectator's loyalty in order to manage customer acquisition and retention on sports better.

Part II – Philosophical and methodological foundations, the FRM Model and spectator profiles

CHAPTER III – METHODOLOGICAL CONSIDERATIONS, MEASUREMENT OF VARIABLES AND DATA ANALYSIS WITH RESULTS

In Chapter I and II we built the study's theoretical foundation. Now, in Chapter III, we first lay out our methodological approach and techniques how we test the hypotheses of the FRM Model. Secondly, we establish the measurements of the variables we defined in Chapter II. We close this chapter by an extensive analysis culminating in presenting a validated FRM Model and several spectator profiles depending on Fan loyalty.

Section One – Methodological considerations

The testing of our hypotheses is preceded by methodological considerations that guide our course of action. We underpin it with a philosophical and methodological basis that clarify our research philosophy, approach, methodological choice, and the study's time horizon. Furthermore, we present the principles that led to the questionnaire development and conclude this first section by presenting the two populations from which the study's samples have been taken.

1 PHILOSOPHICAL AND METHODOLOGICAL BASIS

Five preliminary considerations inform a study's data collection and data analysis. In analogy to an onion, data collection and analysis are a research's innermost layer enveloped by five outer layers: Research philosophy, research approach, methodological choice, research strategy, and time horizon (Saunders, Lewis, & Thornhill, 2012). We use this onion-structure as a guide to our justifications of philosophical stance and methodological choices. An overview of these is presented right next to the research onion (cf. Figure III-1).

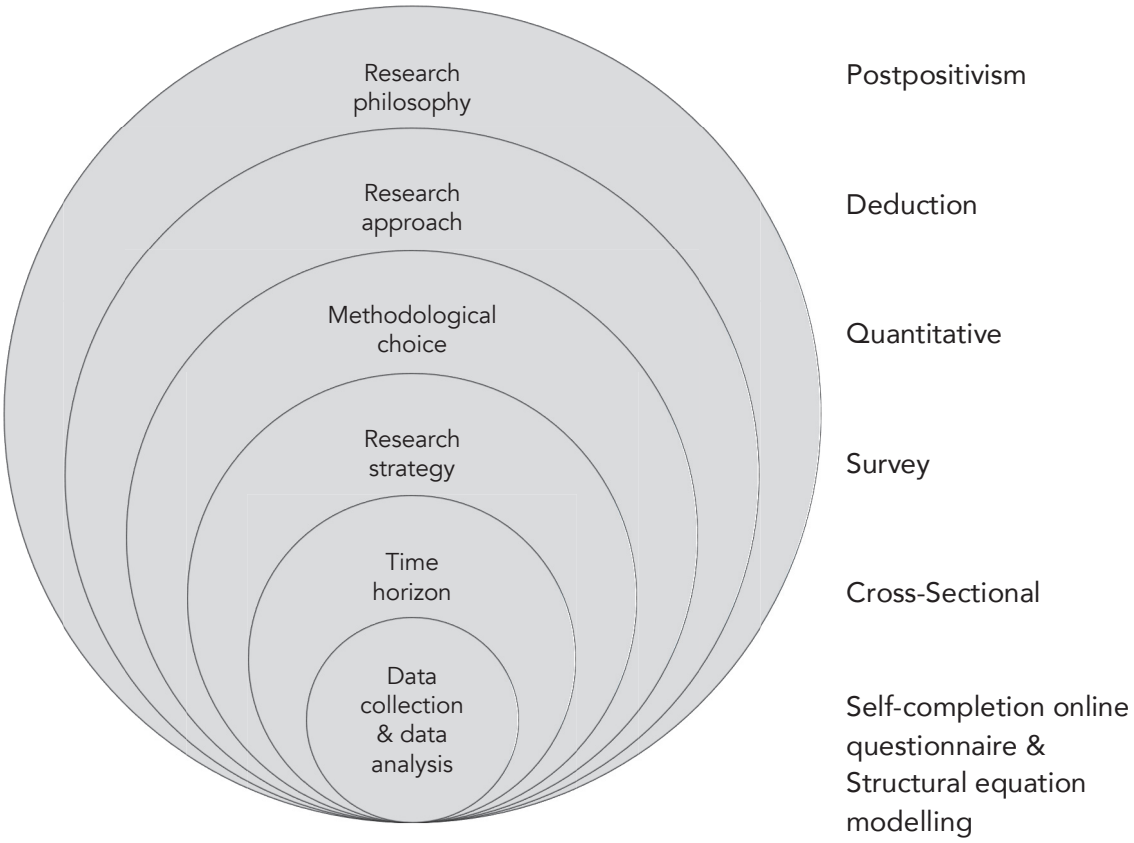


Figure III-1. The Research Onion

Note. Illustration adapted from Saunders et al. (2012, p. 128).

1.1 Research philosophy

A research's philosophy is a rather abstract representation of a scholar's philosophical mindset underlying a study. One might consider it the product of how the researcher views the nature of reality and what he/she believes, constitutes acceptable knowledge (Saunders et al., 2012; Wahyuni, 2012). That is to say, a researcher has to justify his/her own ontological and epistemological positions, whose combination defines the research philosophy (cf. Figure III-2). Yet, this is not always the case. Bryman (2012) for example, presents ontological and epistemological considerations but does not merge them into a research philosophy, and while Saunders et al. (2012) depict four research philosophies (pragmatism, positivism, realism, and interpretivism), they are almost identical with the three epistemological positions they suggest (positivism, realism, and interpretivism).

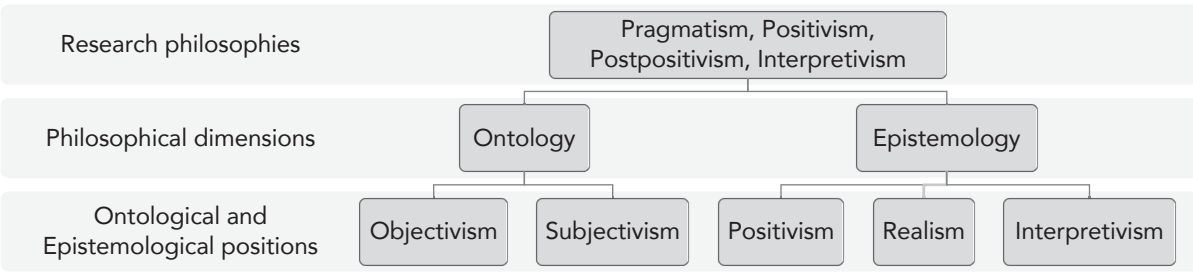


Figure III-2. Simplified representation of the research philosophy

Note. Research philosophies following Wahyuni (2012); Philosophical dimensions following Saunders et al. (2012).

In particular, ontology and epistemology are the two philosophical dimensions of the research philosophy. The former theorises the nature of reality and social entities, the latter theorises knowledge and in particular what is considered acceptable knowledge. Ontological positions are objectivism and subjectivism (constructionism), epistemological positions are positivism, realism, and interpretivism (Bryman, 2012;

Saunders et al., 2012). In what follows, we define our ontological and epistemological positions and discuss the resulting research philosophy[67].

As stated above, an ontological position reflects the researcher's understanding of the nature of reality (Wahyuni, 2012). Its two antithetical positions are objectivism and subjectivism. Bryman (2012) defined objectivism as "an ontological position that asserts that social phenomena and their meanings have an existence this is independent of social actors" (p. 713) and subjectivism as "an ontological position (often referred to as constructivism) that asserts that social phenomena and their meanings are continually being accomplished by social actors" (p. 713). Epistemological positions (views on what constitutes acceptable knowledge; Wahyuni, 2012) are positivism, realism, and interpretivism (Bryman, 2012; Saunders et al., 2012).

- Positivism being "an epistemological position that advocates the application of the methods of the natural sciences to the study of social reality and beyond" (p. 714),
- Realism being "an epistemological position that acknowledges a reality independent of the senses that is accessible to the researcher's tools and theoretical speculations. It implies that the categories created by scientists refer to real objects in the natural or social worlds" (p. 715), and
- Interpretivism being "an epistemological position that requires the social scientist to grasp the subjective meaning of social action" (Bryman, 2012, p. 712).

[67] Our elaborations are primarily based on three sources. We chose Bryman (2012) representing social research methods, Saunders et al. (2012) as illustrative for business (marketing) research methods, and Wahyuni (2012) for a holistic approach to the "research design maze" (p. 69). The three sources do not approach ontological and epistemological position fundamentally different, yet the different manners in accessing and presenting the topic add to a more nuanced understanding.

In order to find and justify one's ontological and epistemological positions, it has been suggested not to consider the respective positions as fixed contrasting pairs (Niglas, 2010; Saunders et al., 2012). Rather each position reflects a point along a continuum, resulting in a research philosophy derived from a multidimensional set of continua (cf. Figure III-3).

In this study, the nature of reality is believed to be rather external and objective, thus existing independently from the social actors' thoughts. In that vein, we interpreted behaviours and attitudes of sport spectators as constituents of an independent football-subculture with its values and customs "into which people are socialized so they can function (…) as full participants" (Bryman, 2012, p. 32). In other words, we looked at reality[68] as independent of a sport spectator's interpretation of it (Wahyuni, 2012). The ontological position associated with this type of approach is called objectivism.

Philosophical dimension		Continua	
Ontology	What is the nature of reality?	External	Socially constructed
		Objective	Subjective
Epistemology	What is considered acceptable knowledge?	Observable phenomena	Subjective meanings
		Law-like generalisations	Details of specifics

Figure III-3. Research philosophy as a multidimensional set of continua

Note. Illustration partially adopted from Saunders et al. (2012, p. 129).

[68] Admittedly, since the spectacle (the false reality), "in all its particular manifestations—news, propaganda, advertising, entertainment—(…) is the *model* of the prevailing way of life", it has become difficult/unfeasible to grasp reality beyond "this real society's unreality" (Debord, 1967/2014, p. 3, emphasis in original).

Epistemologically, we believe that credible knowledge is attained through standardised measurement, excluding subjective meaning. Data is used in the search for regularities; therefore phenomena are reduced to its simplest elements (Saunders et al., 2012). For example, we gathered highly structured data from sport spectators, without asking for the respondents' meaning or motivation behind his/her responses. In this manner, our approach to studying social reality was partially related to the methods of natural sciences[69] (Bryman, 2012), that included a value-free way of gathering analysing data (Saunders et al., 2012). However, we believe that acceptable knowledge can come from other sources than directly observable phenomena only. Thus, we except that there are phenomena that are not "amenable to observation" and therefore included hypothetical entities (i.e. generative mechanisms[70]) into our search for natural and social orders (Bryman, 2012, p. 29). That is to say, we accepted that our research is directed toward latent concepts that are per se not observable, but its effects are measurable/observable.

Additionally, our stance on the generalisability is not that absolute like the far-left position on the epistemological continuum (cf. Figure III-3). We rather focused on interpreting the observations in context (sport spectator services; Bryman, 2012; Saunders et al., 2012; Wahyuni, 2012). The epistemological position that is in line with our philosophical assumptions is a called critical realism, which is a form of realism.

Critical realism shares two features with positivism[71]. Yet, as mentioned above, critical realists include structures in their research, that may not be amenable to the senses and focus on explanations within a specific context (Bryman, 2012; Saunders et al., 2012). Thus, whereas positivism adheres to empiricism, critical realism does not (Bryman, 2012). Furthermore, the research's outputs are not law-like generalisations

[69] Cf. empiricism: "An approach to the study of reality that suggests that only knowledge gained through experience and the senses is acceptable" (Bryman, 2012, p. 711).

[70] "Generative mechanisms entail the entities and processes that are constitutive of the phenomenon of interest" (Bryman, 2012, p. 29, referring to Bhaskar, 1975).

[71] Firstly, they both suggest the application of natural scientific approaches to social sciences and secondly, they belief that "there is a reality that is separate from our descriptions of it" (Bryman, 2012, p. 29).

but rather predictability within the particular research context, thus being not applicable across contexts (Wahyuni, 2012).

In conclusion, an ontological stance leaning toward objectivism and an epistemological stance leaning toward critical realism, suggests that this study's research philosophy is postpositivism[72] (Wahyuni, 2012). Distinctly reflected are the ontological and epistemological positions in Wahyuni's (2012) definition of postpositivism:

> Postpositivists challenge the belief of this [positivist] absolute truth, especially in relation to human behaviour in social science. The postpositivist approach also believes in generalisation, but admits that knowledge is a result of social conditioning. This is called the critical realist stance, which means that understanding social reality needs to be framed in a certain context of relevant law or dynamic social structures which have created the observable phenomena within social world. (Wahyuni, 2012, p. 71)

Ensuing, we clarify briefly on the research-philosophy-level why we have chosen postpositivism and not pragmatism, positivism, or interpretivism. Pragmatists researchers are not so much concerned with ontological and epistemological positions; their emphasis is on "what works best to address the research problem at hand" (Wahyuni, 2012, p. 71). That is to say, pragmatists believe that it is feasible and appropriate to work with different philosophical positions, as the interpretation of the world and its associated research cannot rely on a single point of view (Saunders et al., 2012). In reference to Kelemen and Rumens (2008), authors claimed that pragmatists not "always use multiple methods, rather they use the method or methods that enable credible, well-founded, reliable and relevant data to be collected that advance the research" (Saunders et al., 2012, p. 130). Interpreting the research philosophy that way, we might label our approach pragmatist as well, since we implemented a method that enabled the collection of credible, reliable, relevant, etc. data to drive our research.

[72] According to Blaikie (2000), postpositivism is a not fully acknowledged version of critical rationalism (Popper, 1959) by Guba (1990) and Guba and Lincoln (1994).

However, the fact that we followed two philosophical positions only, which suggested rather unambiguously postpositivism as research philosophy, we concluded to adhere to it, in order to generate as much clarity as possible in the multi-layered realm of research philosophies.

To some extent, interpretivism is the fusion of ontological and epistemological positions antithetical to those taken in the postpositivist research philosophy. It is all about subjective meaning, details of situations and the construction and constant change of social reality (Wahyuni, 2012). Data is collected through qualitative in-depth investigations, again the exact opposite of our data collection approach[73] (Saunders et al., 2012). Furthermore, we were aiming at testing theory (associated with positivism/postpositivism) instead of generating theory (associated with interpretivism, cf. also below 1.2 Research approach).

Last but not least, we acknowledge that the difference between positivism and postpositivism is not that lucid as between the research philosophies just discussed. The critical differences lie within the epistemological positions as discussed above and the interpretation of social reality through social conditioning. Further differentiation is beyond the scope of this work and part of a "paradigm war" that we intend not to enter (Tashakkori & Teddlie, 1998, cited in Wahyuni, 2012, p. 71).

1.2 Research approach

The research approach describes the relationship between theory and research. The most common approaches are deduction and induction. The former is mostly used to test theory and the latter to generate theory. Meaning, in a deductive approach, scholars deduce a hypothesis (or hypotheses) and falsify or verify them using appropriate data and analysing techniques (Bryman, 2012). In inductive approaches, data is gathered with the goal to generate theory, thus "drawing generalizable inferences out of observations" (Bryman, 2012, p. 26). In addition to the two strategies,

[73] We implemented findings from Bodet et al. (2017) who generated preliminary knowledge through an interpretivist research approach.

which are better seen as tendencies than clear-cut approaches (Bryman, 2012), abduction constitutes another research approach (Saunders et al., 2012). This approach is characterised by moving back and forth between induction and deduction, thereby blending the two approaches. Using this approach, researchers move from data to theory (induction) and then from theory to data (deduction), or vice versa (Saunders et al., 2012). An overview of the research approaches' logic of interference, generalisability, use of data, and the role of theory is given in Table III-1.

Table III-1

Deduction, induction and abduction

	Deduction	Induction	Abduction
Logic	In a deductive inference, when the premises are true, the conclusion must also be true.	In an inductive inference, known premises are used to generate untested conclusions.	In an abductive inference, known premises are used to generate testable conclusions.
Generalisability	Generalising from the general to the specific.	Generalising from the specific to the general.	Generalising from the interactions between the specific and the general.
Use of data	Data collection is used to evaluate propositions or hypotheses related to an existing theory.	Data collection is used to explore a phenomenon, identify themes and patterns and create a conceptual framework.	Data collection is used to explore a phenomenon, identify themes and pat-terns, locate these in a conceptual frame- work and test this through subsequent data collection and so forth.
Theory	Theory falsification or verification.	Theory generation and building.	Theory generation or modification; incorporating existing theory where appropriate, to build new theory or modify existing theory.

Note. Table adopted and directly quoted from Saunders et al. (2012, p. 144). For the sake of completeness, Blaikie (2000) advanced a fourth research approach called retroductive. Further elaboration on abduction and retroduction is beyond this study's scope.

Following our research question, the conception of our model, and the hypotheses associated with it, our research approach is deductive. Specifically, we

constructed a theory from existing literature and deduced hypotheses with the aim to test them by matching the hypotheses with data (the logic of research approaches; Blaikie, 2000). The objective beyond model generation was to evaluate and assess impacts within the hypothesised model, which furthermore indicates a deductive research approach (Blaikie, 2000, p. 124). Moreover, a deductive research approach has been characterised by six essential steps (cf. Popper, 1959, pp. 32-33, cited in Blaikie, 2000, p. 106). In the following, we match these steps to the process of deduction (cf. Bryman, 2012, p. 24) to further illustrate the deductive nature of our study (cf. Table III-2).

Table III-2

The six essential steps in the process of deduction

	Essential steps of a deductive research approach	Process of deduction	Corresponding Chapters
1.	Begin by putting forward a tentative idea, a conjecture, a hypothesis or a set of hypotheses that form a theory.	Theory	Chapter I + II
2.	With the help, perhaps, of other previously accepted hypotheses, or by specifying the conditions under which the hypotheses are expected to hold, deduce a conclusion, or a number of conclusions.	Hypothesis	Chapter II
3.	Examine the conclusions and the logic of the argument that produced them. Compare this argument with existing theories to see if it constitutes an advance in our understanding. If you are satisfied with this examination, then:		
4.	Test the conclusion by gathering appropriate data; make the necessary observations or conduct the necessary experiments.	Data collection	Chapter III
5.	If the test fails, i.e. if the data are not consistent with the conclusion, the theory must be false. If the original conjecture does not match the data, it must be rejected.	Findings	Chapter III + IV
6.	If, however, the conclusion passes the test, i.e. the data are consistent with it, the theory is temporarily supported; it is *corroborated*, but not proven to be true.	Hypotheses confirmed or rejected	Chapter IV
		Revision of theory	

Note. The chapter indications are referring to the present study. The six essential steps of a deductive research approach are direct quotes from Popper (1959, pp. 32-33, cited in Blaikie, 2000, p. 106, emphasis in original). The process of deduction is adopted from Bryman (2012, p. 24).

1.3 Methodological choice

Broadly speaking, a study's methodological choice determines whether a study utilises measurements or not (Bryman, 2012). Measurements are associated with the collection and/or treatment of numeric data (numbers). Non-numeric data that do not include measurement can be words, images, or video clips (Saunders et al., 2012). The choice of using a quantitative or qualitative method is deeply intertwined with the implemented research philosophy and approach (Bryman, 2012; Saunders et al., 2012).

As we have argued above, our research philosophy and approach are postpositivism and deduction. Typically, for the testing of theory (deduction) and research philosophies influenced by positivism (postpositivism), the methodological choice is quantitative (Bryman, 2012; Saunders et al., 2012). In order to test our theory, i.e. our framework, we needed to investigate relationships within it, using highly structured data and statistical methods. This approach is well reflected in the characteristics of quantitative research:

> Quantitative research examines relationships between variables, which are measured numerically and analysed using a range of statistical techniques. It often incorporates controls to ensure the validity of data, as in an experimental design. Because data are collected in a standard manner, it is important to ensure that questions are expressed clearly so they are understood in the same way. This methodology often uses probability sampling techniques to ensure generalisability. The researcher is seen as independent from those being researched, who are usually called respondents. (Saunders et al., 2012, pp. 162-163)

Criticism of quantitative research mostly questions its applicability to social science. For example, it has been argued that a quantitative methodological approach "reifies the social world" and the measurement process "possesses an artificial and spurious sense of precision and accuracy" (Bryman, 2012, pp. 178-179). We are aware of these issues, that are often raised by scholars adhering to interpretivist research philosophies (Bryman, 2012). Furthermore, and also at the risk of repeating, this study

used qualitative research to conceptualise a framework. Testing the framework, thus verifying/falsifying the associated hypotheses, has been a conscious choice over accessing meaning and subjective in-depth understanding (Saunders et al., 2012).

To conclude, subjective in-depth understanding is provided already by preliminary qualitative work (cf. Bodet et al., 2017) and partly affirmed by quantitative investigation (cf. Huiszoon et al., 2018). This groundwork helped to implement a research strategy that was free from open-ended questions or any qualitative elements since the just mentioned previous studies allowed an advanced level of accuracy with question and response selection (cf. Tapp & Clowes, 2000, for a similar approach).

1.4 Research Strategy

A research strategy is a plan of action how the data that is needed to answer a research question is going to be collected. The research strategy is closely linked to the methodological choice (quantitative/qualitative). For example, experiments and surveys are suitable to collect quantitative data, while ethnography, action research, grounded theory, and narrative inquiry are linked to qualitative data. Quantitative and/or qualitative data is collected using archival research or case study research strategies (Saunders et al., 2012). The same authors, in reference to Deniz and Lincoln (2005), defined research strategy as:

> [A] plan of how a researcher will go about answering her or his research question. It is the methodological link between your philosophy and subsequent choice of methods to collect and analyse data. (Saunders et al., 2012, p. 173)

Apart from this, the choice of a research strategy is guided by pragmatic considerations, such as availability of resources like time, tools, access to potential participants and data, and the breadth of existing knowledge (Saunders et al., 2012). This study's aim, with our philosophical and methodological considerations derived therefrom, suggested a survey research strategy. In particular, it was the most suitable strategy to tackle our research question, because, as mentioned above, a survey can

generate quantitative or quantifiable data that is systematic and standardised (Bryman, 2012). Hence, this data is suitable to test frameworks and quantify the influencing strength of variables within it (Saunders et al., 2012).

A survey research strategy is associated with three data collection techniques: Questionnaires, structured observations, and structured interviews (Saunders et al., 2012). Again, considering our research aim and the research team's resources, the most suitable technique was the online questionnaire. Preconditions were favourable to an online questionnaire in so far as an advanced online-survey-tool was available, questionnaire-dissemination-options were numerous, the know-how of fitting data analysing techniques was profound, and, as already mentioned, due to preliminary studies prior knowledge was well-grounded. Timewise, the use of a self-administrated online questionnaire has been of advantage (further elaborations below in 2 Questionnaire configuration).

1.5 Time horizon

The study's time horizon was cross-sectional. Meaning, the research's participants answered our questionnaire at a single point in time. Therefore, the results can be considered a "snapshot" of the investigated phenomena. In comparison to longitudinal studies, a cross-sectional time horizon does not have the capacity to study phenomena's developments and changes (Saunders et al., 2012).

What cross-sectional studies can provide, and what is in line with our research aim, is data that enables a comparison of differences across individuals at a point in time (Downward, 2013). That is to say, this approach allows to examine associations or patterns of association between individuals/variables, but not casualty (Bryman, 2012; Downward, 2013). In fact, as Bryman (2012, p. 59) put it, there is an "ambiguity about the direction of causal influence":

> If the researcher discovers a relationship between two variables, he or she cannot be certain whether this denotes a causal relationship, because the features of an experimental design are not present. All that can be said is the variables are related. (Bryman, 2012, p. 59)

As a consequence, if causality cannot be derived from cross-sectional surveys, the direction of the causal influence has to be *inferred* from common sense and theoretical ideas (Bryman, 2012). Hence, the quality of cross-sectional quantitative research is based on "the extent to which there is confidence in the researcher's causal inferences" (p.176), since the nature of inferences always allows "the possibility that the real pattern of causal direction is the opposite of that which in anticipated" (Bryman, 2012, p. 341).

2 QUESTIONNAIRE CONFIGURATION

In what follows, we explain our strategic decision to implement a self-completion (sometimes referred to as self-administrated) online questionnaire. Furthermore, the questionnaire development including testing and translation, and the questionnaire design are elucidated.

2.1 Self-completion online questionnaire

The advantages of self-completion online questionnaire over other data collection techniques can be divided into two categories: Questionnaire administration (self-completion vs completion by or in the presence of a researcher/interviewer) and questionnaire deployment (online vs offline).

2.1.1 Questionnaire administration

Bryman (2012, pp. 233-234) listed five essential advantages of self-completion questionnaires over those completed by or in the presence of a researcher/interviewer.

1. Cheaper and
2. quicker to administer,
3. interviewer effects are absent,
4. interviewer variability is not an issue, and
5. the process is more convenient for respondents.

The difference between interviewer effects and interviewer variability is that interviewer effects refer to the bias an interviewer's ethnicity, gender, and social background might have on the answers that participants provide. Whereas, interviewer variability emphasises the issue of how or in which order questions are asked by different interviewers.

2.1.2 Questionnaire deployment

Using the internet to deploy a questionnaire and collect data is said to be efficient time- and moneywise. Three main reasons are that the geographic reach is

high, data collection can be quick, and the entry of data is often not necessary. Possible disadvantages are coverage bias, reliance on software, and a possible overload of online surveys[74] (Sue & Ritter, 2012). Relying on software did not involve issues in our study.

In accordance with our survey research strategy, we implemented an online social survey[75] (Bryman, 2012). Specifically, we utilised a web survey[76]. Hence, the questionnaire was hosted on a website. Via a web link, prospective respondents were able to call up the questionnaire (cf. 3.3.1 Questionnaire dissemination) and complete it immediately or at a later point in time. Special features provided in some web survey tools enhance the often-emphasised efficiency of online surveys. Examples are: Respondent-friendly design possibilities, filtering or branching of questions, adaptability to a respondent's device, access restrictions, and live-tracking of response and completion rates.

2.2 Questionnaire development

By questionnaire development we are referring to the process of translating the questionnaire from English into French and German as well as the implementation of a pilot study and the consequential adjustments. The core of the questionnaire, i.e. the specific variables used in this study, is presented in Section Two – Measurement of variables.

[74] An administrator of an internet blog, where we posted a survey link, did raise exactly this "overload" issue: "Be aware you may not get any responses to your survey as we are getting surveys daily just now and members are getting fatigued with them" (Personal conversation, original email in Appendix B).

[75] Other research strategies that use the internet are (1) online ethnography or the ethnography of the internet, (2) qualitative research using online focus groups, (3) qualitative research using personal interviews (Bryman, 2012).

[76] Another form of online social survey is an email survey. The questionnaire can either be embedded in an email or attached to it (cf. Bryman, 2012, pp. 670-671, for the pros and cons of email surveys).

2.2.1 Translation

The importance of translation accuracy in international research cannot be overstated. In particular, the meaning of questions and instructions ought to be the same between languages, i.e. between the source and target questionnaire (Saunders et al., 2012). Paraphrasing Usunier (1998), Saunders et al. (2012) listed four essential meaning-related issues when translating a questionnaire:

- **lexical meaning** – the precise meaning of individual words (e.g. the French word *chaud* can be translated into two concepts in English and German, 'warm' and 'hot');
- **idiomatic meaning** – the meanings of a group of words that are natural to a native speaker and not deducible from those of the individual words (e.g. the English expression for informal communication, 'grapevine', has a similar idiomatic meaning as the French expression *téléphone arabe,* meaning literally 'Arab telephone' and the German expression *Mundpropaganda,* meaning literally 'mouth propaganda');
- **experiential meaning** – the equivalence of meanings of words and sentences for people in their everyday experiences (e.g. terms that are familiar in the source questionnaire's context such as 'dual career household' may be unfamiliar in the target questionnaire's context);
- **grammar and syntax** – the correct use of language, including the ordering of words and phrases to create well-formed sentences (e.g. in Japanese the ordering is quite different from English or Dutch, as verbs are at the end of sentences).

  (The list's style and content have been adopted/directly quoted from Saunders et al., 2012, p. 442, emphasis in original)

Moreover, Usunier (1998, p. 52) suggested four translation techniques: Direct translation, back-translation, parallel translation, and mixed techniques. In our case, we used direct translation with elements of back-translation[77]. From the four possible techniques, the direct translation is the most inexpensive, and through back-

[77] Direct translation: From source questionnaire to target questionnaires. Back-translation: "Source questionnaire to target questionnaire to source questionnaire; comparison of two new source questionnaires; creation of final version" (Saunders et al., 2012, p. 442).

translation elements, it is likely to uncover most translation issues (Saunders et al., 2012). Consequently, in a first step we translated the source questionnaire (English) into French and German. In a second step, native French and German speakers with excellent English knowledge reviewed the translations and suggested, when necessary, edits. Finally, remaining ambiguous meanings and/or issues in grammar and syntax have been revised and removed in the course of the pilot study. The final English version, as well as its translation into French and German, can be found in Appendix C and Appendix D respectively.

2.2.2 Pilot study

An essential part of the questionnaire development was a pilot study, i.e. "a small scale study to test a questionnaire" (Saunders et al., 2012, p. 677). Pilot studies are of particular importance in research based on self-completion questionnaires, as possible confusion or misunderstandings cannot be clarified by the survey conductor (Bryman, 2012). The overall goal is:

> [T]o minimise the likelihood of respondents having problems in answering the questions and of data recording problems as well as to allow some assessment of the questions' validity and the reliability of the data that will be collected. (Saunders et al., 2012, pp. 677-678)

The source questionnaire (English) was tested by two native speakers, one from the UK (via Skype) and one from the US (live). The French version was tested by five native speakers (live) and the German version by four native speakers (via Skype/Facetime). The eleven participants were members of the population from which the sample for the full study has been taken. This also meant they were excluded from participating in the full study.

Common feedback for the French as well as for the German version was to simplify the language, i.e. to use as much common language as possible. This was not just the case for instructions but also for the questions themselves. Closely related issues were inaccuracies and lack of clarity in wording and meaning. These were

eminent learnings. Furthermore, it highlighted the four essential meaning-related issues when translating questionnaires (Usunier, 1998). A list of all changes suggested in the pilot study can be found in Appendix E.

2.3 Questionnaire design and structure

The questionnaire design/structure was driven by the aspiration to find the optimal balance between the number of questions required to meet our research needs and the likelihood that respondents complete the questionnaire. Research has shown that the relative impact of shorter versus longer questionnaires is very high (Saunders et al., 2012, p. 453, quoting research by Anseel, Lievens, Schollaert, & Choragwicka, 2010; Edwards et al., 2002). Yet, it has also been suggested that an appealing questionnaire layout is likely to improve response rates (Dillman, Smyth, & Christian, 2009).

We chose a survey tool that was rated well for its questionnaire layout and layout adaptability to laptops, desktop computers, tablets, and smartphones. Despite the layout adaptability, questionnaire testing on different devices was done. It was necessary to ensure, for example, that answer options (pull-down menu vs display of all answers options) matched usability across devices. Meaning, on small displays (smartphones) it is better to use a pull-down menu through which the participant can scroll, instead of displaying all answer options that will take notable page space. Furthermore, we followed four general recommendations on designing self-completion questionnaires:

- Do not cramp the presentation,
- clear presentation ("layout is easy on the eye"),
- clear instructions about how to respond,
- keep questions and answers together (Bryman, 2012, pp. 237, 239, partially referring to Dillman et al., 2009).

The questionnaire consisted of three clearly defined parts. The three parts were framed by a landing page and a "Thank you" page. The landing page consisted of a brief introduction to the study, a statement on anonymity and confidentiality of the answers given, information on how to contact the research team, conditions of participation estimated time to complete the questionnaire (using a computer 10 min, using a smartphone/tablet 15 min), structure of the questionnaire, and five questions for conditional branching[78]. Part one addressed the national football team, part two the national football association, and part the asked seven demographical questions. The "Thank you" page again offered information on how to contact the research team. Additionally, respondents were asked to share the survey link via social media (Twitter, Facebook, LinkedIn, and Google+).

Conditional branching was a key element of the questionnaire to make it as user-friendly as possible. With five simple yes/no questions, we were able to customise the questions in part one to a great extent. For example, if the respondent did not have a social media account, we did not ask him/her about his/her social media activities involving the team or association. Similarly, if he/she did not watch a national team's match live in a stadium in the past three years, we did not ask any questions about his/her live consumption.

[78] "Conditional branching (or Skip logic) is a feature that changes what question or page a respondent sees next based on how they answer the current question. Conditional branching creates a custom path through the survey that varies based on a respondent's answers" (Moodle, 2013).

3 POPULATION

A research's population depicts the "universe of units from which a sample is to be selected" (Bryman, 2012, p. 714). For this study, we collected data from two "universes" simultaneously. Population "A" was comprised of individuals that are 18 years of age or older and considered the French national football team "their" national football team. Population "B" was comprised of individuals that are 18 years of age or older and considered the German national football team "their" national football team. The allocation in population A and B is entirely unbiased and solely based on alphabetic order.

The age restriction was chosen because of practical reasons. In both countries, individuals at the age of 18 are considered to be of full age. Data collection involving underage persons includes high administrative constraints, which are difficult to overcome reliably in web surveys (e.g. parental consent; Benfield & Szlemko, 2006). The amendment about the national football team was considered necessary since making citizenship (French/German) a condition of participation has its drawbacks. Meaning, one can be a French or German citizen, but consider the national football team of another country his/her national football team. Reason for that could be dual citizenship or family ties. For similar reasons, one can consider the French or German national football team one's national team, despite the citizenship of another country.

Official data on the number of individuals that consider the French or German national football team their national football team is – to the best of our knowledge – unavailable. Yet, we assumed that the just mentioned exceptional cases do not influence the population size significantly. Therefore, we concluded that population A consisted of French citizens 18 years of age or older (51.600.975[79]) and population B of German citizens 18 years of age or older (68.068.043[80]).

[79] Calculated using Eurostat data from 2015. "Eurostat is the statistical office of the European Union situated in Luxembourg. Its mission is to provide high quality statistics for Europe. (…) Providing the European Union with statistics at European level that enable comparisons between countries and regions is a key task" (European Commission, 2018).
[80] Calculated using Eurostat data from 2015.

3.1 Population A

Basic information about France and the level of success and professionalisation in football is displayed in Table III-3. The Human Development Index indicates a very high human development (rank 21 worldwide). Their league football is highly successful (rank 5 out of all 55 UEFA member associations).

The French football association (FFF; Fédération Française de Football) was founded in 1919. Its predecessor organisations were already affiliated with FIFA since 1904. UEFA affiliation followed 1954. The French men's senior national football team (national team) is a two-time UEFA European football champion (UEFA EURO; 1984 and 2000) and won the FIFA World Cup 1998 in France (UEFA, 2018a).

In total, the FFF has about 2.2 Mio members of which 160.000 are women. With the help of 400.000 volunteers and 700 employees, the FFF organises 836.135 matches per year in 13 regional and 9 oversea leagues (FFF, 2017). The FFF's Facebook page has 363.000 likes, the national team's page 5.5 Mio.

Table III-3

Profile of France

Population (000; 2017) [a]	GDP per capita (000; 2017; €) [a]	Human Dev. Index (2015) [b]	Most popular sports to watch [c]	UEFA ranking for club comp. [d]	No. of teams in the top tiers of the league structure
64.980	29.537	0.897	Football Cycling Bocce	5	58 (2017/18) 20 – Ligue 1 20 – Ligue 2 18 – National

Note. GDP: gross domestic product; UEFA: Union of European Football Associations.
[a] UN data France (2018); [b] HDR Report France (2015); [c] CSA (2017), ranking based on the distribution of the hourly volume of sports broadcasts by discipline on free television in 2016; [d] UEFA ranking (2018).

3.2 Population B

The information provided about Germany and the German football association (DFB; Deutscher Fußball-Bund) is presented in a similar structure to the French's. Basic information about Germany and the level of success and professionalisation in football is displayed in Table III-4. Just as for France, the Human Development Index indicates a very high human development (rank 4 worldwide). Their league football is highly successful (rank 6 out of all 55 UEFA member associations).

The DFB was founded in 1900. It is affiliated with FIFA since 1904. UEFA affiliation followed 1954. The German men's senior national football team (national team) is a three-time UEFA European football champion (UEFA EURO; 1972, 1980, and 1996) and won the FIFA World Cup in 1954, 1974, 1990, and 2014 (UEFA, 2018b).

The DFB has more than 7 Mio members. Overall, 157.313 teams (incl. 5819 women teams) are organised in 24.958 clubs (DFB, 2017). The DFB's/national team's Facebook page has 6.2 Mio likes and "Fan Club Nationalmannschaft" (the supporter's club of the national team) has more than 50.000 members (DFB, 2015).

Table III-4

Profile of Germany

Population (000; 2017) [a]	GDP per capita (000; 2017; €) [a]	Human Dev. Index (2015) [b]	Most popular sports to watch [c]	UEFA ranking for club comp. [d]	No. of teams in the top tiers of the league structure
82.114	33,916	0.926	Football Winter sports Motor sport	6	56 (2017/18) 18 – 1. Bundesliga 18 – 2. Bundesliga 20 – 3. Bundesliga

Note. GDP: gross domestic product; UEFA: Union of European Football Associations.
[a] UN data Germany (2018); [b] HDR Report Germany (2015); [c] Goldmedia (2017), ranking based on interest in a type of sport (excluding the Olympics); [d] UEFA ranking (2018).

3.3 Selecting samples

For selecting a sample (i.e. a subset of the population), two sampling techniques are available; probability sampling[81] (representative sampling) and non-probability sampling[82] (Saunders et al., 2012). In this study, we used non-probability sampling. Specifically, we implemented a combination of convenience and snowball sampling. The questionnaire link was distributed through outlets available to the research team (cf. 3.3.1 Questionnaire dissemination). Additionally, study participants were asked to forward the link and post it in their social networks, creating a snowball effect.

Using these methods, it is unlikely to generate a generalisable sample (Bryman, 2012). Moreover, in the case of online surveys, one has to acknowledge that internet-users per se represent a biased sample of the population. They tend to be younger, wealthier, better educated, and not representative in ethnic terms (Couper, 2000, cited in Bryman, 2012). However, through standardised measures for sociodemographic data (e.g. ISCED levels for educational attainment[83]), we were able to compare our sample to Eurostat data and analyse to what extent our data matches the populations.

Probability sampling (e.g. simple random, systematic, and stratified random sampling) was not feasible since it relies on sampling frames[84], which are unavailable for our widely dispersed populations (Bryman, 2012). Quota sampling, a form of non-probability sampling, which is said to be as generalisable as probability sampling, would have been an option. However, it is rarely used in academic social research (Bryman, 2012) and would have exceeded this study's recourses, especially financially. This is because we would have to contract external services of a polling firm. They have the resources to collect data with the right quota of different categories, like

[81] "A sample that has been selected using random sampling and in which each unit in the population has a known probability of being selected" (Bryman, 2012, p. 714).
[82] "A sample that has not been selected using a random sampling method. Essentially, this implies that some units in the population are more likely to be selected than others" (Bryman, 2012, p. 713).
[83] International Standard Classification of Education (ISCED); "ISCED is the reference international classification for organising education programmes and related qualifications by levels and fields. ISCED 2011 (levels of education) is implemented in all EU data collections from 2014" (European Commission, 2016).
[84] "The listing of all units in the population from which a sample is selected" (Bryman, 2012, p. 715).

gender, age and socio-economic groups, the region of residence, and ethnicity to represent our populations well (Bryman, 2012).

3.3.1 Questionnaire dissemination

Both questionnaires (French and German version) were ready to be deployed from mid-November 2016. For the dissemination we applied an omnichannel strategy and encouraged further distribution by the respondents, hoping to create a snowball effect. Since the study's population were not defined to exhibit high affinity for football, the research team spread the weblinks randomly. The diverse distribution channels can be clustered in three groups; Social media, email, and print.

The weblinks to the questionnaires were repeatedly posted on Facebook, Twitter, and LinkedIn. Furthermore, within Facebook and LinkedIn we specifically targeted groups with numerous members and asked if the administrators were so kind as to promote our study. On Twitter, we particularly targeted accounts with more than 250 followers and asked if they would share the survey link. Through email, and especially through mailing lists and newsletters, the research team was able to distribute the questionnaire link widely. Examples are student cohorts, academic associations, and a supporter club's newsletter. Besides the online distribution channels, we also asked a local information bulletin to incorporate the link and a brief introduction in one of their publications.

3.3.1.1 Incentive

It has been shown that response rates to a questionnaire increase if the response is linked to a monetary incentive. In particular, the relative impact of monetary incentive vs. no incentive is very high (Saunders et al., 2012, p. 453, quoting research by Anseel et al., 2010; Edwards et al., 2002). In our case, we included a lottery with the chance to win one of two Amazon vouchers worth 25 € each.

3.3.2 Data collection

First responses were collected on November 17th, 2016 (Germany) and November 24th, 2016 (France). Initially, it was planned to close the data collection end of March 2017. The reason for this time period (November 15th, 2016 to March 22nd, 2017) was that no national football team's matches were staged during this time. Yet, it was impossible to collect a sufficient amount of completed questionnaires. Therefore, the data collection period was extended till September 1st, 2017 (Germany) and September 4th, 2017 (France). The extension did not involve any issues. However, we had to end the lottery on March 22nd, 2017, since we announced that the two winners will be contacted by the end of March. In subsequent communications, we refrained from mentioning the lottery and changed the introduction to the questionnaire accordingly.

The timelines in Figure III-4 and Figure III-5 illustrate the response processes for the French and German questionnaire versions. The graphs show quite noticeable when a channel was "successful". That is to say, the channel in which the questionnaire link was posted, trigged a fairly high amount of responses (cases). For example, the two outliers in the French sample toward the end of the data collection. Or for the German sample the outliers at the beginning and end of the data collection. During most of the time, a continuous promotion of the survey was needed, so that almost every peak in the graphs corresponds to promotion activity by the research team. The snowball effect did not gain as much momentum as anticipated.

Overall, we recorded 797 cases for France and 665 cases for Germany. These numbers include complete and incomplete responses. For France, the number of incomplete cases was 341 and for Germany 148. Resulting in completion rates of 57.21% (France) and 76.24% (Germany).

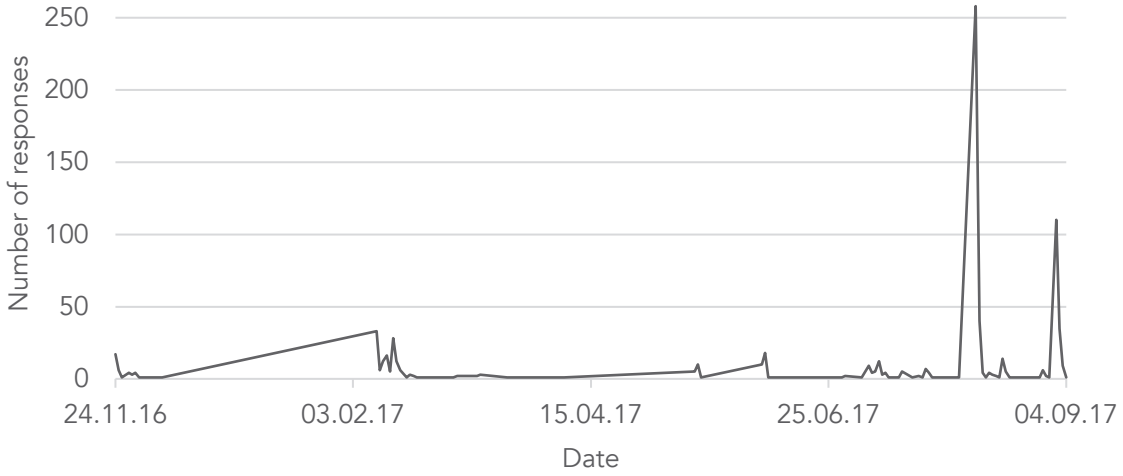


Figure III-4. Total number of responses over time for French sample.

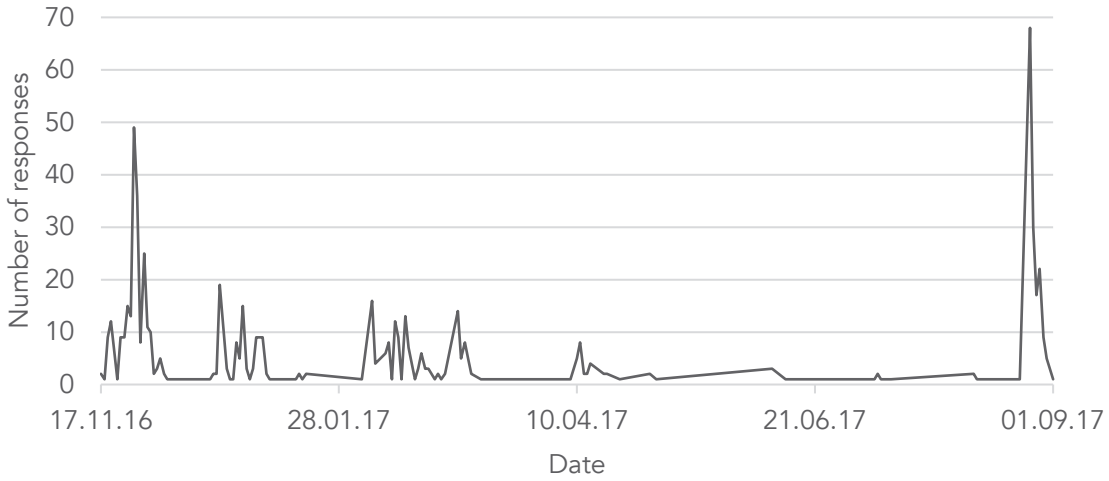


Figure III-5. Total number of responses over time for German sample.

3.3.2.1 Data protection

The European Union's data protection legislation includes clear guidelines on how personal data may be processed, used, stored, and moved (cf. Directive 95/46/EC; Saunders et al., 2012, pp. 247-249). These are requirements followed by national data protection acts. In the United Kingdom, for example, anyone processing personal

data[85] must comply with the Data Protection Act 1998 (Stationery Office, 1998). Its content has been summarised in eight key points: "Personal data must be:

1. processed fairly and lawfully;
2. obtained for specified, explicit and lawful purposes and not processed further in a manner incompatible with those purposes;
3. adequate, relevant and not excessive in relation to the purpose for which they are processed;
4. accurate and, where necessary, kept up to date;
5. kept (in a form that allows identification of data subjects) for no longer than is necessary;
6. processed in accordance with the rights granted to data subjects by the Act;
7. kept securely;
8. not transferred to a country outside the European Economic Area unless it ensures an adequate level of protection in relation to the rights of data subjects" (Saunders et al., 2012, p. 248).

Our data treatment, usage, and storage are in accordance with these rules. Sensitive personal data[86], for which additional regulations apply, have not been collected in this study. Furthermore, study participants were informed that their responses are anonymous and will be kept confidential. In case of participation in the lottery or the agreement to take part in a follow-up study, we needed to collect the email address. This was accompanied with the notice that (1) entering the email address is optional, (2) with entering of the email address, survey responses will not be anonymous anymore, but they will be confidential, and (3) email addresses will not be shared with a third party, nor will they be sold or used for advertising purposes.

[85] "Personal data are defined as data that relate to a living person which allow that individual to be identified, perhaps in combination with other information known to the controller of the data" (Saunders et al., 2012, p. 247).

[86] "A data subject's racial or ethnic origin, political opinions, religious or other similar beliefs, trade union membership, physical or mental health or condition, sexual life, commission or alleged commission of any offence, or any proceedings or sentence related to an (alleged) offence" (Saunders et al., 2012, p. 248).

Section Two – Measurement of variables

Next, we present how we measured the variables of the FRM Model and which demographic and further variables we assessed to characterise the samples. A detailed overview of the studies from which the measurement scales for the FRM Model-variables were adopted/adjusted, can be found in Appendix F. The overview includes the original item wordings, factor loadings, Cronbach's alphas, AVEs, Likert response format, number of study participants, the study's context, literature on which these studies based their item conceptualisations, and further research that used the same/similar measurement scales.

Already indicated above, most of the study's variables have been measured towards the sports team (SPT) and the sport governing body (SGB). To distinguish between variables that have been measured towards the SPT and those measured toward the sport governing body (SGB), the ending of each variable-code indicates it (XXX_SPT and XXX_SGB). Concerning the item-codes, we implemented a system in the same logic as with the variable-code extensions (_SPT and _SGB). That is to say, items that belong to an SPT variable have the extension "_1" and items that belong to an SGB variable have the extension "_2".

1 DEPENDENT VARIABLES

The Fan loyalty dimensions (i.e. Fan engagement and Fan commitment) form the study's dependent variables. While Fan commitment is a first order construct, Fan engagement is a second order construct. The two dimensions were assessed using 31 items (cf. Table III-5).

Table III-5

Overview dependent variables

				Measured toward	
Code	Variable	Based on	Number of items	SPT	SGB
ATT_SPT [a]	Attendance	Kunkel et al. (2013), Yoshida et al. (2015)	3	x	-
MER_SPT [a]	Merchandise purchases	Hart (2015)	3	x	-
TVS_SPT [a]	TV/Screen	Kunkel et al. (2013), Pritchard and Funk (2006)	3	x	-
SON_SPT [a]	Social online behaviours Facebook/Twitter	Vale and Fernandes (2018)	14	x	-
SOF_SPT [a]	Social offline behaviours	Yoshida et al. (2014)	3	x	-
COM_SPT	Fan commitment	T. J. Brown et al. (2005), Kunkel et al. (2013)	5	x	-

Note. [a] Variable of the second order construct Fan engagement.

1.1 Fan engagement

Fan engagement has been measured as a second order construct and was composed of five first order constructs: Attendance, Merchandise purchases, TV/Screen, Social online behaviours, and Social offline behaviours. Ensuing, we present the derivation of the respective variable measurements.

1.1.1 Attendance

The number of live attended matches is a frequently used measure of loyalty's behavioural dimension. For example, Kunkel et al. (2013) used it in their study on drivers of brand loyalty in professional sport, and Yoshida et al. (2015) adopted the measure for a study on the predictability of loyalty's behavioural dimension.

We utilised the measure as well and made two amendments particularly for the context of national teams. Since attendance behaviour might change depending on the competition a team is competing in, we prompted the attendance in a "World Cup-year" (2014), a "Non-tournament-year" (2015), and a "EURO-year" (2016). In addition, as it might be hard to remember how many matches one attended three years ago, we provided small assistance by indicating the number of matches a team played in the respective year (cf. Table III-6). For each year (2014, 2015, 2016) we presented a distinct drop-down menu that featured all possible numbers of matches attended.

The Attendance measure was part of conditional branching (cf. 2.3 Questionnaire design and structure). That is to say, in the very beginning of the questionnaire if one replied to the question "Have you watched at least one match of [*country's*] national team live in a stadium in the time period January 2014 to today?" with "No", the questions about attendance were excluded, i.e. not displayed.

Table III-6

Measurement of Attendance [ATT_SPT]

Code	Item
ATT_1_1	In 2014 the [*country*] national team played [x] matches at the World Cup and [x] other matches. In total, how many did you attend?
ATT_2_1	In 2015 the [*country*] national team played [x] matches. How many did you attend?
ATT_3_1	In 2016 the [*country*] national team played [x] matches at the EURO 2016 and [x] other matches. In total, how many did you attend?

Note. Responses captured through drop-down menu [0] to [x].

1.1.2 Merchandise purchases

Next to match attendance, spending on team-related merchandise reflects a sport spectator's transactional behaviour. This type of question has been applied in prior research on national teams (Hart, 2015). Using a drop-down menu, the amount of money spent on team-related merchandise in 2014, 2015, and 2016 was prompted (cf. Table III-7). Through the use of conditional branching (cf. 2.3 Questionnaire design and structure), these questions were shown only to participants who answered the question "Have you spent money on [*country*] national team-related merchandise in the time period January 2014 to today (e.g. jersey, scarf, cup)?" with "Yes".

Table III-7

Measurement of Merchandise purchased [MER_SPT]

Code	Item
MER_1_1	How much money did you spend on [*country*] national team-related merchandise in 2014?
MER_2_1	How much money did you spend on [*country*] national team-related merchandise in 2015?
MER_3_1	How much money did you spend on [*country*] national team-related merchandise in 2016?

Note. Responses captured through drop down menu [0€] to [>990€] in 10€ intervals.

1.1.3 TV/Screen

In analogy to the three items on match attendance, the number of matches watched on TV or screen has been prompted (cf. Table III-8). They reflect the non-transactional version of watching one or several matches. Researchers in sport management implemented this measure before (Kunkel et al., 2013; Pritchard & Funk, 2006). Again, this set of items was part of conditional branching (cf. 2.3 Questionnaire design and structure). The preliminary question was "Have you watched at least one match of [*country's*] national team on TV or on screen in the time period January 2014 to today?".

Table III-8

Measurement of matches watched on TV/Screen [TVS_SPT]

Code	Item
TVS_1_1	In 2014 the [*country*] national team played [x] matches at the World Cup and [x] other matches. In total, how many did you watch on TV or on screen?
TVS_2_1	In 2015 the [*country*] national team played [x] matches. How many did you watch on TV or on screen?
TVS_3_1	In 2016 the [*country*] national team played [x] matches at the EURO 2016 and [x] other matches. In total, how many did you watch on TV or on screen?

Note. Responses captured through drop down menu [0] to [x].

1.1.4 Social online behaviour

By employing research on social media engagement behaviours (Dolan, Conduit, Fahy, & Goodman, 2016), consumers' online brand-related activities (COBRA; Muntinga et al., 2011), and consumer's engagement with brand-related social media content (Schivinski, Christodoulides, & Dabrowski, 2016), Vale and Fernandes (2018) developed measurement scales to asses social engagement behaviours toward football clubs on Facebook. We followed their structure of three different engagement behaviours (consuming, contributing to, and creating content) and added a second social media platform; Twitter (cf. Table III-9).

Conditional branching was utilised to display the social media related items just to study participants, who have the respective social media account. Therefore, we promoted "Do you have a Facebook account?" and "Do you have a Twitter account?".

Table III-9

Measurement of Social online behaviour [SON_SPT]

Code	Item
Facebook	
FBO_1_1	How frequently do you choose to read status updates or posts on Facebook that are related to the [*country*] national team when the team is participating in a tournament (e.g. FIFA-World Cup, UEFA-Euro)?
FBO_2_1	How frequently do you like or share content on Facebook that is related to the [*country*] national team when the team is participating in a tournament (e.g. FIFA-World Cup, UEFA-Euro)?
FBO_3_1	How frequently do you comment on posts on Facebook that are related to the [*country*] national team when the team is participating in a tournament (e.g. FIFA-World Cup, UEFA-Euro)?
FBO_4_1	How frequently do you post something on Facebook that is related to the [*country*] national team when the team is participating in a tournament (e.g. FIFA-World Cup, UEFA-Euro)?
Twitter	
TWI_1_1	How frequently do you choose to read tweets that are related to the [*country*] national team when the team is participating in a tournament (e.g. FIFA-World Cup, UEFA-Euro)?
TWI_2_1	How frequently do you like or retweet something on Twitter that is related to the [*country*] national team when the team is participating in a tournament (e.g. FIFA-World Cup, UEFA-Euro)?
TWI_3_1	How frequently do you tweet something on Twitter that is related to the [*country*] national team when the team is participating in a tournament (e.g. FIFA-World Cup, UEFA-Euro)?
Probing	And how frequently are you doing this if neither a FIFA-World Cup, nor any other tournament is taking place?

Note. Responses captured through five-point Likert response format: [1] *never* to *daily* [5].

1.1.5 Social offline behaviour

The counterpart to social media engagement behaviours are social engagement behaviours of a non-transactional nature exhibited in an offline setting. To a great extent, Yoshida et al. (2014) based their definition of Fan engagement on these behaviours. Particularly, they listed a number of non-transactional fan behaviours: Displays of sport fandom, social interactions, play, and rituals (D. B. Holt, 1995), behaviours that support a fan community (Fisher & Wakefield, 1998), positive word-of-mouth and performance tolerance (De Ruyter & Wetzels, 2000), behaviour to support positive attitudes toward a team (Bristow & Sebastian, 2001), sharing knowledge about a game/team and engaging in social communication in the stands (Westerbeek & Shilbury, 2003), supportive word-of-mouth behaviours (Swanson, Gwinner, Larson, & Janda, 2003).

Our measurement of Social offline behaviour is similar to what has been labelled "Prosocial behaviour" (Yoshida et al., 2014). However, we replaced the third item of "Prosocial behaviour" since it included social media behaviour, that is part of our Social online behaviour measure. Instead, we included an item reflecting the display of fandom (cf. Table III-10).

The set of items was linked to the conditional branching questions about match attendance and matches watched on TV or screen. If both questions were answered with "No", the Social offline behaviour items were not displayed, as watching/attending a match is the situation in which these behaviours may be expressed.

Table III-10

Measurement of Social offline behaviour [SOF_SPT]

Code	Item
SOF_1_1	I interact with other spectators to talk face to face about issues related to the [*country*] national team.
SOF_2_1	I encourage others to support the [*country*] national team.
SOF_3_1	I support the [*country*] national team through singing, clapping, cheering, etc.

Note. Responses captured through five-point Likert response format: [1] *never* to *always* [5].

1.2 Fan commitment

Fan commitment has been measured through validated items used in a retail (T. J. Brown et al., 2005) and a sport context (Kunkel et al., 2013). The first three items (COM_1_1 to COM_3_1) have formerly been applied to measure commitment to a dealership. They are based on marketing literature classics (Moorman et al., 1992; R. M. Morgan & Hunt, 1994). Item four (COM_4_1) was originally implemented in a team/league setting (Kunkel et al., 2013). Following these authors, item five (COM_5_1) has been added to give a further specific example of commitment (cf. Table III-11).

Table III-11

Measurement of Fan commitment [COM_SPT]

Code	Item
COM_1_1	I am committed to my relationship with the [*country*] national team.
COM_2_1	I really care about maintaining my relationship with the [*country*] national team.
COM_3_1	The relationship that I have with the [*country*] national team is something I am very committed to.
COM_4_1	I would watch the [*country*] national team regardless of which team they were playing against at that time.
COM_5_1	I would watch the [*country*] national team regardless of whether they are playing a tournament (e.g. FIFA-World Cup, UEFA-Euro) or not.

Note. Responses captured through five-point Likert response format: [1] *strongly disagree* to *strongly agree* [5].

2 INDEPENDENT VARIABLES

In order to measure the model's six independent variables (Figure II-10), we adopted measurement scales from established marketing and sport marketing literature. We adjusted these to prompt attitude questions regarding the SPT and SGB. That is to say, for each variable, an inter-related set of items was adjusted/constructed, in which each item captured "logically predefined 'units of information' about the variable and construct being measured" (Carifio & Perla, 2007, p. 112). The inter-related set of items were then deemed "to measure the intensity with which respondents feel about an issue" (Bryman, 2012, p. 712). These "rating questions" that allow study participants to express how strongly one agrees or disagrees with a statement are called Likert-style rating questions (Saunders et al., 2012). An overview of the measurement scales is given below (cf. Table III-12).

Table III-12

Overview independent variables

Code	Variable	Based on	Number of items	Measured toward	
				SPT	SGB
IDE	Identification	T. J. Brown et al. (2005)	2	x	-
TRU	Trust	Dagger, Danaher, and Gibbs (2009)	3	x	x
SAT	Satisfaction	Bodet and Bernache-Assollant (2009), Gwinner and Swanson (2003)	3	x	x
INT	Interaction disposition	Suh, Ahn, and Pedersen (2014), Huiszoon et al. (2018)	3	x	x
REP	Reputation	Keller (2003), Huiszoon et al. (2018)	3	x	x
GOV	Governance	Beccarini and Ferrand (2006)	3	-	x

2.1 Variables influencing Fan loyalty dimensions

In our model, Identification, Trust, Satisfaction, and Interaction disposition are the four variables that influence the Fan loyalty dimensions directly.

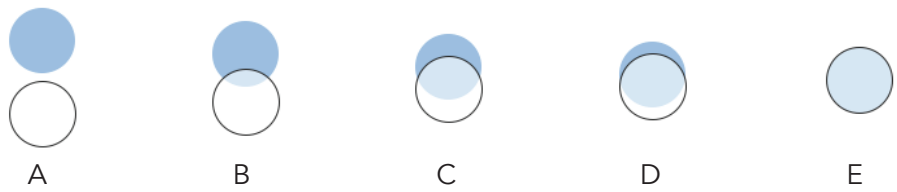
2.1.1 Identification

Like Fan commitment, the measurements of Identification have been adopted from research in retailing (T. J. Brown et al., 2005) and are based on work in social psychology by Bergami and Bagozzi (2000). The first item (IDE_1_1) has also been applied in Tropp and Wright (2001). In another psychology research context, this kind of measure is known as "Real-Ideal Discrepancy Abstract Measure" to assess real-ideal and real-ought discrepancies (N. Watson, Bryan, & Thrash, 2010).

In their study with 397 participants, T. J. Brown et al. (2005) found that the correlation between the visual identification (IDE_1_1; using eight sets of circles) and item two (IDE_2_1; on a 7-point Likert response format) is strong (r = .79). Due to graphic representability on smartphones and tablets, we had to reduce the sets of circles to five and adjust the Likert response format accordingly (cf. Table III-13).

Table III-13

Measurement of Identification [IDE_SPT]

Code	Item
IDE_1_1	The blue circle represents your identity (e.g. attributes and values). The white circle represents the identity of the [*country*] national team. Which of the following set of circles (A, B, C, D, or E) represents best, how much your identity and the [*country*] national team's identity overlap? 
IDE_2_1	The way I see myself overlaps _____ with everything the [*country*] national team stands for.

Note. Response to IDE_2_1 captured through five-point Likert response format: [1] *not at all* to *completely* [5].

2.1.2 Trust

For the measurement of Trust, we utilised items formerly implemented in a study on relationship duration across service industries (Dagger et al., 2009). Originally, the measurement consisted of four items. Yet, we excluded the fourth item (The leadership of the [*country*] national team is trustworthy), since its wording is too close to the wording of item one (TRU_1_1; cf. Table III-14). Dagger et al. (2009) based the development of the items on recognised marketing/trust literature (Doney & Cannon, 1997; R. M. Morgan & Hunt, 1994) and showed, in their study with 591 participants, that the measurement has high reliability (Cronbach's α of .97).

Table III-14

Measurement of Trust [TRU_SPT], [TRU_SGB]

Code	Item
TRU_1_1	The leadership of the [*country*] national team (e.g. captain, coach, team manager) can be trusted.
TRU_2_1	The leadership of the [*country*] national team (e.g. captain, coach, team manager) can be counted on to do what is right.
TRU_3_1	The leadership of the [*country*] national team (e.g. captain, coach, team manager) has high integrity.
TRU_1_2	The board of the [SGB] can be trusted.
TRU_2_2	The board of the [SGB] can be counted on to do what is right.
TRU_3_2	The board of the [SGB] has high integrity.

Note. Responses captured through five-point Likert response format: [1] *strongly disagree* to *strongly agree* [5].

2.1.3 Satisfaction

For measuring Satisfaction with the SPT and the SGB we worked with two slightly different sets of items (cf. Table III-15). This was done since research has found that the players' behaviours and the quality of play need to be taken into consideration when assessing Satisfaction with the team (Bodet & Bernache-Assollant, 2009).

Therefore, we based the measurement of Satisfaction with the SPT on sport-specific satisfaction measures (Bodet & Bernache-Assollant, 2009).

Satisfaction with the SGB was adopted from a study evaluating overall satisfaction with a firm sponsoring a sport organisation (Gwinner & Swanson, 2003). They, in turn, based their conceptualisation on research comparing encounter satisfaction to overall satisfaction and quality (Bitner & Hubbert, 1994). Gwinner and Swanson (2003) applied the measurement in a study with 922 participants and showed high reliability (Cronbach's α of .93).

Table III-15

Measurement of Satisfaction [SAT_SPT], [SAT_SGB]

Code	Item
SAT_1_1	Considering the last 12 months, how satisfied are you with the players' behaviours of the [*country*] national team?
SAT_2_1	Based on you experiences in the last 12 months, how satisfied are you with the quality of the [*country*] national team's matches?
SAT_3_1	Considering the last 12 months, how satisfied are you with the [*country*] national team?
SAT_1_2	Based on your experiences in the last 12 months, how satisfied are you with the work of the [SGB]?
SAT_2_2	Compared to other, similar sport associations, how would you rate your satisfaction with the work of the [SGB]?
SAT_3_2	In general, how satisfied are you with the work of the [SGB]?

Note. Responses captured through five-point Likert response format: [1] *very unsatisfied* to *very satisfied* [5].

2.1.4 Interaction disposition

In a study on sport website interactivity effects with 235 participants, Suh et al. (2014) demonstrated high reliability for the scores of their measure of two-way communication (AVE of .83). In accordance with their work, we adjusted the items to our context (SPT and SGB instead of website interactivity; cf. Table III-16). In a similar

manner, Interactivity disposition of an SGB has been measured before, exhibiting an expectable AVE of .58 (Huiszoon et al., 2018).

Table III-16

Measurement of Interactivity disposition [INT_SPT], [INT_SGB]

Code	Item
INT_1_1	I believe that the [*country*] national team appreciates the fans' input on its social media channels.
INT_2_1	In my opinion, the communication channels of the [*country*] national team enable a two-way communication between fans and the team.
INT_3_1	I think the [*country*] national team is interested in interacting with its fans.
INT_1_2	I believe that the [SGB] appreciates the fans' input on its social media channels.
INT_2_2	In my opinion, the communication channels of the [SGB] enable a two-way communication between fans and the association.
INT_3_2	I think that the [SGB] is interested in interacting with individuals outside the association.

Note. Responses captured through five-point Likert response format: [1] *strongly disagree* to *strongly agree* [5].

2.2 Variables influencing trust

The two variables in our model that influence Trust are Reputation and Governance. The measurement scales of these two variables are presented next.

2.2.1 Reputation

In reference to the seminal work of Keller (1993) on brand equity, brand image, and brand associations, we utilised Reputation measures previously validated with an AVE of .79 (Huiszoon et al., 2018). Considering the items' wording, one could argue we measure image instead of reputation. To what extent these two concepts differ while relying on a similar definition of brand associations, has been discussed earlier (cf. 1.2.1 Reputation). Furthermore, taking into account the translated versions of the questionnaire (French and German), it has been more suitable to adhere to Reputation

as concept label. This is because we tried to avoid Anglicism in the country-specific questionnaires (cf. Table III-17). In French, "image" is best translated as "reputation" and while in German the term "image" is well known, it is actually translated as "Ruf" or "Reputation" (cf. translation of items in Appendix D).

Table III-17

Measurement of Reputation [REP_SPT], [REP_SGB]

Code	Item
REP_1_1	The [*country*] national team has a positive reputation.
REP_2_1	If I were asked to describe the image of the [*country*] national team I would say positive things.
REP_3_1	The [*country*] national team has a reputation that I like.
REP_1_2	The [SGB] has a positive reputation.
REP_2_2	If I were asked to describe the image of the [SGB] I would say positive things.
REP_3_2	The [SGB] has a reputation that I like.

Note. Responses captured through five-point Likert response format: [1] *strongly disagree* to *strongly agree* [5].

2.2.2 Governance

To measure Governance, we drew on research that was concerned with assessing satisfaction with a football club (Beccarini & Ferrand, 2006). Through qualitative research, these authors developed three items they labelled "Efficient management". While one item prompted the goodness of training facilities, the other two involved favourableness of management and the club's freedom from scandals. Overall, Beccarini and Ferrand's (2006) measurement, based on a study with 512 participants, showed high reliability (Cronbach's α of .77). In reference to the latter two items and earlier research involving Governance (Huiszoon et al., 2018), we developed a set of three items (cf. Table III-18).

Table III-18

Measurement of Governance [GOV_SGB]

Code	Item
GOV_1_2	The conduct of the [SGB] is led by high ethical standards.
GOV_2_2	Confronted with scandals, the [SGB] is dedicated to a full clearance of it.
GOV_3_2	The [SGB] is managed responsibly.

Note. Responses captured through five-point Likert response format: [1] *strongly disagree* to *strongly agree* [5].

3 DEMOGRAPHICS AND FURTHER INDIVIDUAL VARIABLES

Below we present the measurements of seven socio-demographic and seven further individual variables. Table III-19 provides a brief overview.

Table III-19

Overview socio-demographic variables

Code	Variable	Based on	Number of choices
GEN	Gender	-	3
AGE	Age	-	81
EDA	Educational attainment	European Commission (2016)	22 (FRA); 12 (GER)
EMS	Employment situation	-	9
INI	Individual income	-	8
COR	Country of residence	-	2
POS	Postcode area	-	Open text

Note. FRA = France; GER = Germany.

3.1 Demographics

The socio-demographic measures included Gender, Age, Educational attainment, Employment situation, Individual income, Country of residence, and the Postcode area. In order to compare the samples to the populations, the measurement structure of Gender, Age, and Educational attainment was chosen in reference to Eurostat data. Like all measures in the questionnaire, an answer was mandatory. However, in the case of the seven socio-demographic related questions, an option "Prefer not to answer" was given. All answer options were displayed in drop-down menus.

3.1.1 Gender

In addition to the dichotomous assessment of Gender (Male/Female), a third category was added (cf. Table III-20). In 2017, the German Federal Constitutional court ruled that a third gender category has to be included in civil status documents, or any gender categories need to be removed from such documents (Reuters, 2017).

Table III-20

Measurement of Gender [GEN]

Code	Item
GEN_1	Male
GEN_2	Female
GEN_3	Other
GEN_4	Prefer not to answer.

3.1.2 Age

The participants' age was measured through a drop-down menu ranging from 18 to >99. The list to select one's age from started at 18, since younger individuals were excluded from study participation. On the very top of the drop-down menu, the answer option "Prefer not to answer" was presented. This was done since it seemed more convenient for participants than placing the "Prefer not to answer" option at the end of the extensive drop-down list (numbers ranging from 18 to 99).

3.1.3 Educational attainment

The International Standard Classification of Education 2011 (ISCED 2011) is an education classification system that helps to compare education programmes around the world. It was developed by UNESCO (United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organisation) in the mid-1970s and has been revised in 1997, 2009, and 2011 (European Commission, 2016).

We implemented this classification to measure Educational attainment and compare it to data collected in the European Union Labour Force Survey 2016. What kind of degrees and qualifications are represented by the eight ISCED levels, is country specific (cf. Table III-21, Table III-22).

Table III-21

Measurement of Educational attainment Germany [EDA]

Code	Item	ISCED level	Educational level
EDA_1	Hauptschulabschluss	2	Low
EDA_2	Realschulabschluss	2	Low
EDA_3	Hochschulreife	3	Medium
EDA_4	Fachhochschulreife	3	Medium
EDA_5	Abschluss Lehrausbildung	3	Medium
EDA_6	Meisterprüfung	5/6	High
EDA_7	Erzieherausbildung	6	High
EDA_8	Bachelor	6	High
EDA_9	Master	7	High
EDA_10	Diplom	7	High
EDA_11	Promotion	8	High
EDA_12	Other	-	-
EDA_13	Prefer not to answer.	-	-

Note. Low Education: ISCED 0_Early childhood education, ISCED 1_Primary education, ISCED 2_Lower secondary education; Medium Education: ISCED 3_Upper secondary education, ISCED 4_Post-secondary non-tertiary education; High Education: ISCED 5_Short-cycle tertiary education, ISCED 6_Bachelor's or equivalent level, ISCED 7_Master's or equivalent level, ISCED 8_Doctoral or equivalent level.

Table III-22

Measurement of Educational attainment France [EDA]

Code	Item	ISCED level	Educational attainment
EDA_1	Diplôme national du brevet	2	Low
EDA_2	Brevet d'études professionnelles (BEP)	3	Medium
EDA_3	Certificat d'aptitude professionnelle (CAP)	3	Medium
EDA_4	Brevet professionnel (BP)	3	Medium
EDA_5	Baccalauréat professionnel	3	Medium
EDA_6	Baccalauréat général et technologique	3	Medium
EDA_7	Diplôme de moniteur éducateur	3	Medium
EDA_8	Diplôme de technicien de l'intervention sociale et familiale	3	Medium
EDA_9	DU et certificats d'écoles post-secondaires	4	Medium
EDA_10	Diplôme de capacité en droit	4	Medium
EDA_11	Diplôme d'accès aux études universitaires	4	Medium
EDA_12	Diplôme universitaire de technologie DUT.	5	High
EDA_13	Brevet de technicien supérieur (BTS)	5	High
EDA_14	Diplôme des métiers d'art (DMA)	5	High
EDA_15	Licence (LMD)	6	High
EDA_16	Licence professionnelle	6	High
EDA_17	Diplôme ou certificat d'école de commerce	7	High
EDA_18	Diplôme ou certificat d'école de commerce bac+5	7	High
EDA_19	Diplôme de docteur en médicine, pharmacie et chirurgie dentaire	7	High
EDA_20	Master (LMD)	7	High
EDA_21	Diplôme de docteur	8	High
EDA_22	Other	-	-
EDA_23	Prefer not to answer.	-	-

Note. Low Education: ISCED 0_Early childhood education, ISCED 1_Primary education, ISCED 2_Lower secondary education; Medium Education: ISCED 3_Upper secondary education, ISCED 4_Post-secondary non-tertiary education; High Education: ISCED 5_Short-cycle tertiary education, ISCED 6_Bachelor's or equivalent level, ISCED 7_Master's or equivalent level, ISCED 8_Doctoral or equivalent level.

3.1.4 Employment situation

For participants to indicate their employment situation, we displayed eight possible employment situations to choose from, plus "Other" and "Prefer not to answer" options (cf. Table III-23).

Table III-23

Measurement of Employment situation [EMS]

Code	Item
EMS_1	Employed Full-Time
EMS_2	Employed Part-Time
EMS_3	Self-employed
EMS_4	Unoccupied
EMS_5	Homemaker
EMS_6	Retired
EMS_7	Student
EMS_8	Apprentice
EMS_9	Other
EMS_10	Prefer not to answer.

3.1.5 Individual income

To measure annual individual income, eight income ranges plus the "Prefer not to answer" option were listed in a drop-down menu for selection (cf. Table III-24).

Table III-24

Measurement of Individual income [INI]

Code	Item
INI_1	≤ €20,000
INI_2	€20,001 - €30,000
INI_3	€30,001 - €40,000
INI_4	€40,001 - €50,000
INI_5	€50,001 - €75,000
INI_6	€75,001 - €100,000
INI_7	€100,001 - €150,000
INI_8	≥ €150,001
INI_9	Prefer not to answer.

3.1.6 Country of residence and postcode area

The query of the country of residence was restricted to whether or not the participant lives in the country in which the team is based (cf. Table III-25). If the question was answered with "Yes", the postcode was prompted (POC: Please indicate your postcode). Again, the participant could either enter a postcode or select "Prefer not to answer".

Table III-25

Measurement Country of residence [COR]

Code	Item
COR	Is your main place of residence [*county*]?

Note. Response options: [1] Yes, No [2], Prefer not to answer [3].

3.2 Further individual variables

In order to characterise the sport spectators beyond demographic variables, we included further individual variables. We used multi-item scales and dichotomous measures to assess the following variables (cf. Table III-26). Unlike most of the measurements above, the majority was not utilised and validated in preceded studies.

Table III-26

Overview further individual variables

Code	Variable	Based on	Number of items/choices	Measured toward	
				SPT	SGB
ATI	Attitude SGB	Kulczycki and Koenigstorfer (2016)	3	-	x
KNO	Knowledge	Gladden and Funk (2002)	3	x	x
DIS	Distinction SPT and SGB	Huiszoon et al. (2018)	2	-	-
OSC	Official supporter's club member	-	2	-	-
USC	Unofficial supporter's club member	-	2	-	-
SCL	Supporter's club member of league team	-	2	-	-
APM	Active, playing football club member	-	2	-	-
PNM	Passive, non-playing football club member	-	2	-	-
FWA	Football playing without affiliation to club	-	2	-	-
RFL	Regularity of following league football	-	5	-	-

3.2.1 Attitude toward sport governing body

The measurement of attitude toward an SGB (cf. Table III-27) was adopted from a study on corruption as a mega sport event syndrome (Kulczycki & Koenigstorfer, 2016). They measured "Attitude toward the event-governing body", in their case FIFA, and showed high reliability across three studies and a follow-up study (an average Cronbach's α of .92).

Table III-27

Measurement of Attitude toward sport governing body [ATI_SGB]

Code	Item
ATI_1_2	I feel positive when I think about the [SGB].
ATI_2_2	I like the [SGB] as an organisation.
ATI_3_2	I think the [SGB] is a good organisation.

Note. Responses captured through five-point Likert response format: [1] *strongly disagree* to *strongly agree* [5].

3.2.2 Knowledge about team and sport governing body

A measure of knowledge about sports teams has been suggested in Gladden and Funk (2002). They based the measure's development on earlier work that assessed Knowledge through self-reports on how knowledgeable one feels about an object (Davidson, Yantis, Norwood, & Montano, 1985). Among their 929 study participants, Gladden and Funk's (2002) measure showed high reliability (Cronbach's α of .89). We adopted their measurement scale and applied it to the SGB as well (cf. Table III-28).

Table III-28

Measurement of Knowledge [KNO_SPT], [KNO_SGB]

Code	Item
KNO_1_1	I know a lot about the [*country*] national team.
KNO_2_1	If I were to list everything I knew about the [*country*] land national team, the list would be quite long.
KNO_3_1	I consider myself an expert about the [*country*] national team.
KNO_1_2	I know a lot about the [SGB].
KNO_2_2	If I were to list everything I knew about the [SGB], the list would be quite long.
KNO_3_2	I consider myself an expert about the [SGB].

Note. Responses captured through five-point Likert response format: [1] *strongly disagree* to *strongly agree* [5].

3.2.3 Distinction of team and sport governing body

A further, very specific aspect of SPT and SGB Knowledge is an individual's distinction between the two entities (cf. Table III-29). To assess it, we adopted a dichotomous measure from previous research (Huiszoon et al., 2018).

Table III-29

Measurement distinction of national team and its sport governing body [DIS]

Code	Item
DIS	In your opinion, are the [*country*] national team and the [*country*] [SGB] one and the same thing?

Note. Response options: [1] *Yes* and *No* [2].

3.2.4 Membership supporters' club, participation, interest in league

The membership in an official or unofficial national team supporters' club, membership in supporters' club of a league team, and the active or passive practice of football have been queried as follows (cf. Table III-30).

Table III-30

Measurement of membership supporter's club, active/passive participation

Code	Item
OSC	Are you member of the official [*country*] national team supporters' club?
USC	Are you a member of any [*country*] national team football supporters' club?
SCL	Are you a supporters' club member of a [*league name*] team?
APM	Are you an active (playing) member of a local football club?
PNM	Are you a passive (non-playing) member of a local football club?
FWA	Are you playing football on a regular basis without affiliation to a local football club?

Note. Response options: [1] *Yes* and *No* [2].

The regularity of following league football (first division) has been measured through a Likert response format with the anchors *Never* and *Weekly* (cf. Table III-31). In this case, we did not differentiate between live attendance and consumption through various media.

Table III-31

Measurement of Regularity of following league [RFL]

Code	Item
RFL	During a [*league name*] season, how regularly do you watch [*league name*] matches (either live in the stadium, on TV or on screen)?

Note. Response captured through five-point Likert response format: [1] *never* to *weekly* [5].

Section Three – Data analysis techniques and results

Preceding the data analysis techniques and the study's results is a brief subsection on the sample characteristics. After, we describe in detail the statistical analyses we applied and explain why we implemented them. The remainder of Section Three deals with the results; First the descriptive measures and the measurement model validation, then the structural model analysis and examination of interaction effects, and finally a profile approach to identify distinct spectator profiles.

I SAMPLE CHARACTERISTICS FRANCE AND GERMANY

In total, 1462 individuals took part in this study's survey. The French (FRA) sample included 797 and German (GER) sample 665 cases. Not all participants completed the survey. The completion rate for the FRA sample was 57.21% (456 complete questionnaires), and for GER sample it was 76.24% (507 complete questionnaires). Furthermore, one case from the FRA sample and two cases from the GER sample had to be deleted since their extraordinary short completion times of around three minutes indicated random answer selections. The average questionnaire completion time[87] was 10:56 min (FRA) and 14:15 min (GER). Overall, the following characterisation of the two samples is based on 455 cases for the FRA sample and 505 cases for the GER sample.

To start with, we highlight the number of individuals that considered themselves loyal fans of their national team. From all 455 individuals in the FRA sample, 57% agreed or strongly agreed that they were a loyal fan of the French national team. In the GER sample of 505 individuals, 69% agreed or strongly agreed with being a loyal fan of the German national team (Figure III-6).

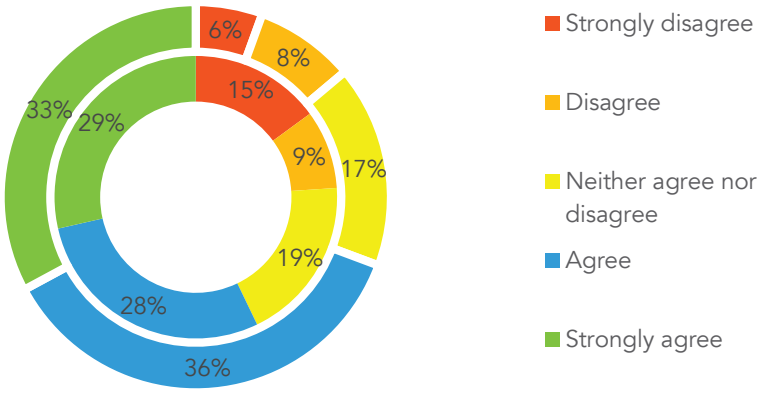


Figure III-6. Level of agreement regarding being a loyal fan of the national team

Note. FRA sample (inner circle) and GER sample (outer circle).

[87] Excluding five outliers with a completion time greater than four hours. Complementary information on the data collection process can be found in Chapter III, Section 1, 3.3.2 Data collection.

1.1 Sociodemographic

We labelled the two samples FRA and GER. However, as indicated above (cf. Chapter III, Section 2, 3 Population), this did not refer to the main place of residence. In fact, 4% of the FRA sample and 5% of the GER sample did not have their main place of residence in the respective country. For the responses given within France or Germany, we were able to illustrate the answer distribution across countries (Figure III-7). Within France, the survey participation was concentrated in and around Paris and Lyon. In Germany, answers came from the mid- and south-west (e.g. Cologne and Frankfurt area). The distribution seemed plausible as the team of researchers conducting this survey was based in Lyon with strong ties to Cologne and Frankfurt.

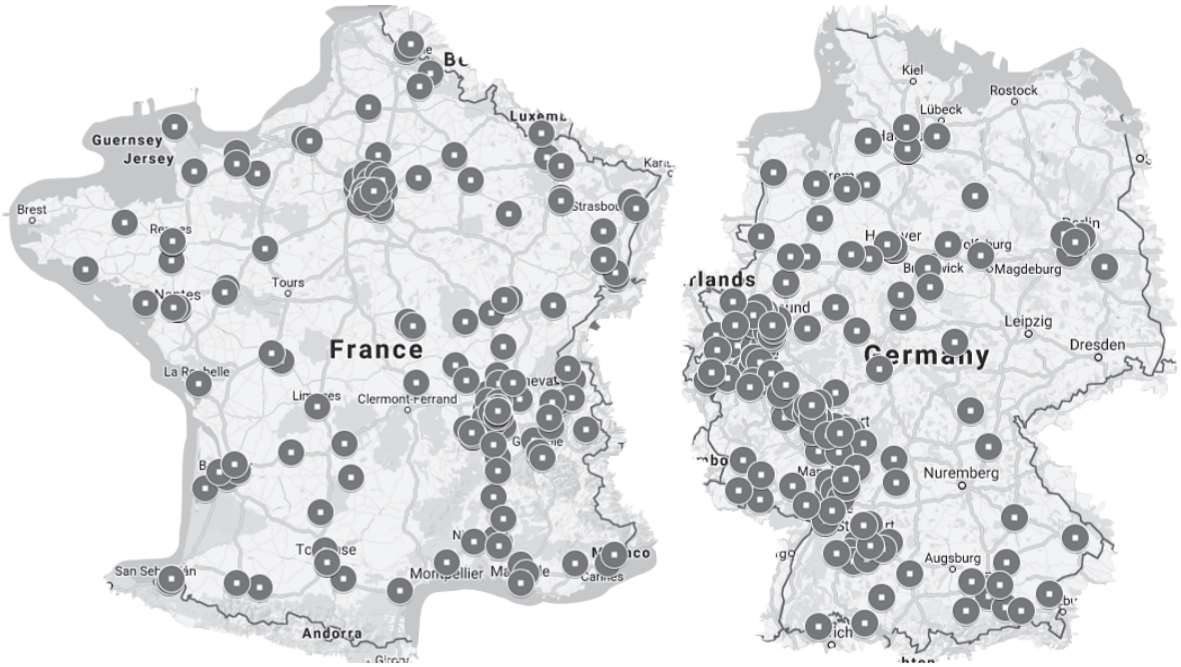


Figure III-7. Answer distribution across France and Germany

Note. Maps represent 68% (FRA sample) and 58% (GER sample) of all responses since not every participant provided a postcode, a valid postcode, or a postcode in France/Germany. A map point indicates that at least one answer has been given at this location.

In both samples, females were the minority (25% in FRA sample; 30% in GER sample), while males made up 75% (FRA sample) and 70% (GER sample). Almost half of the FRA sample was 21 to 30 years old, in the GER sample, only 34% were in that same age range. The proportion of over 60-year old respondents was higher in the GER

sample (14% versus 1% in FRA sample). Concerning the level of educational attainment, 10% in the GER sample have attained an education that is classified as low, in the FRA sample, only 0.4% fell in this category. Overall, high educational attainment was reached by 72% in the FRA sample and by 58% in the GER sample. Both samples showed almost the same percentage of individuals working in full-time (around 55%). Within the FRA sample, the number of students was more than double the number in the GER sample (32% versus 12%). This employment distribution was also reflected by a higher percentage in the lower incomes in the FRA sample. A complete listing of all sociodemographic data can be found below (Table III-32).

Table III-32

Sociodemographic for French and German sample

	FRA (n = 455)		GER (n = 505)	
Sociodemographic	Frequency	Percentage	Frequency	Percentage
Gender				
Male	341	74.95	354	70.1
Female	112	24.62	149	29.5
No answer (N/A)	2	0.44	2	0.40
Age				
≤ 20 years	51	11.21	10	1.98
21 to 30 years	204	44.84	170	33.66
31 to 40 years	124	27.25	89	17.62
41 to 50 years	53	11.65	80	15.84
51 to 60 years	11	2.42	80	15.84
> 60 years	5	1.10	69	13.66
N/A	7	1.54	7	1.39
Education attained				
Low	2	0.44	48	9.50
Medium	97	21.32	134	26.53
High	327	71.87	292	57.82
Other	20	4.40	20	3.96
N/A	9	1.98	11	2.18

(Continued)

Continued.

	FRA (n = 455)		GER (n = 505)	
Sociodemographic	Frequency	Percentage	Frequency	Percentage
Employment situation				
Employed Full-Time	243	53.4	279	55.25
Employed Part-Time	10	2.20	38	7.52
Self-employed	25	5.50	55	10.89
Unoccupied	14	3.10	4	0.79
Homemaker	0	0	1	0.20
Retired	5	1.10	55	10.89
Student	144	31.60	61	12.08
Apprentice	2	0.40	0	0
Other	1	0.20	6	1.19
N/A	11	2.40	6	1.19
Individual income p.a.				
≤ €20,000	157	34.51	63	12.48
€20,001 - €30,000	101	22.20	31	6.14
€30,001 - €40,000	59	12.97	62	12.28
€40,001 - €50,000	41	9.01	61	12.08
€50,001 - €75,000	14	3.08	84	16.63
€75,001 - €100,000	5	1.10	33	6.53
€100,001 - €150,000	3	0.66	23	4.55
≥ €150,001	1	0.22	19	3.76
N/A	74	16.26	129	25.54

To get a better understanding of our samples, we compared them to representative data from the European Union Labour Force Survey 2016 (Population by sex, age and educational attainment level; EU LFS, 2016). For the FRA sample, the comparison showed that males are overrepresented, and the females are underrepresented. Moreover, the age distribution did not match representative data. Especially, the 21 to 30 years old respondents were highly overrepresented, and the over 60-year olds were highly underrepresented. A similar pattern was observed in the level of educational attainment; the samples distribution did not resemble the EU LFS data (Table III-33).

Table III-33

Sociodemographic data of FRA sample compared to EU LFS 2016

Sociodemographic	FRA (n = 455)		EU LFS FRA (n = 51.600.975) [a,b]	
	Frequency	Percentage	Frequency	Percentage
Gender				
Male	341	75	24.606.550	48
Female	112	25	26.994.425	52
No answer (N/A)	2	0	-	-
Age				
18 to 20 years	51	11	2.328.516	5
21 to 30 years	204	45	7.838.885	15
31 to 40 years	124	27	8.267.716	16
41 to 50 years	53	12	9.121.866	18
51 to 60 years	11	2	8.606.942	17
> 60 years	5	1	15.437.050	30
N/A	7	2		
Education attained				
Low	2	0	13.515.6	29
Medium	97	21	20.015.9	42
High	327	72	13.649.5	29
Other	20	4	-	-
N/A	9	2	149.3	0.3

Note. [a] n is based on Eurostat data from 2015 for individuals ≧ 18 years (EU LFS, 2016); [b] n for Education attained is slightly different (n=47.330.3) since the dataset provided refers to 15 to 74 olds.

In the GER sample the gender, age, and level of educational attainment distributions did not meet the representative data for Germany in the EU LFS 2016. Again, males are overrepresented, and the females are underrepresented. Younger age rages were overrepresented, and the percentage of over 60-year olds was just half of the percentage in the population (14% vs 31%). Regarding the level of educational attainment, the data showed an underrepresentation of low educational attainment and an overrepresentation of high educational attainment (Table III-34).

Table III-34

Sociodemographic data of GER sample compared to EU LFS 2016

Sociodemographic	GER (n = 505)		EU LFS GER (n = 68.068.043) [a,b]	
	Frequency	Percentage	Frequency	Percentage
Gender				
Male	354	70	33.102.121	49
Female	149	30	34.965.922	51
No answer (N/A)	2	0	-	-
Age				
18 to 20 years	10	2	2.480.664	4
21 to 30 years	170	34	9.911.901	15
31 to 40 years	89	18	9.764.956	14
41 to 50 years	80	16	12.401.713	18
51 to 60 years	80	16	12.357.415	18
> 60 years	69	14	21.151.394	31
N/A	7	1		
Education attained				
Low	48	10	12.324.6	20
Medium	134	27	34.711.9	56
High	292	58	14.987.7	24
Other	20	4	-	-
N/A	11	2	139.2	0.2

Note. [a] n is based on Eurostat data from 2015 for individuals ≧ 18 years (EU LFS, 2016); [b] n for Education attained is slightly different (n=47.330.3) since the dataset provided refers to 15 to 74 olds.

Besides the sociodemographic data, we collected further data that helped to characterise the two samples. In both, almost everyone has watched at least one match of their national football team on TV or Screen in 2014, 2015, or 2016 (FRA sample 94%, GER sample 95%). Furthermore, the percentage of individuals that have attended at least one match of their national football team was quite similar in both samples (FRA sample 29%, GER sample 32%). Substantial differences were apparent in being a member of the official national football team's supporters club. While in the FRA sample only 3% were members, in the GER sample almost 25% were. A little lesser, but still noticeable, was the difference between the samples concerning membership in a supporter club of a first division team (FRA sample 14%, GER sample 21%). Active

(playing) members of a local football club were 22% in the FRA sample and 14% in the GER sample, whereas the percentages were opposite for passive (non-playing) members of a local football club (FRA sample 11%, GER sample 22%). One of the largest differences was in the percentages of individuals that play football on a regular basis without affiliation to a local football club. While in the FRA sample 41% did so, only 15% in the GER sample play football on a regular basis without affiliation to a local football club. Asked about whether or not the national team and its governing body were the same organisation, 15% in the FRA sample and 27% in the GER sample answered "Yes".

1.2 Fan engagement

The five Fan engagement behaviours, Attendance, Merchandise purchases, TV/Screen consumption, Social online behaviours Facebook/Twitter, and Social offline behaviours were exhibited in the following frequencies. When interpreting the numbers, it might be helpful to keep in mind that Germany won the FIFA World Cup in 2014 and France hosted the UEFA EURO in 2016.

1.2.1 Attendance

In 2014, 12% of the FRA sample attended at least one match of their national football team. In the GER sample, it was 21%. In the non-tournament year 2015, 9% in the FRA sample and 18% in the GER sample attended at least one match of their national football team. For 2016 the numbers were 18% (FRA sample) and 22% (GER sample).

1.2.2 Merchandise purchases

In the FRA sample, 28% purchased merchandise of the national football team in 2014, 2015, or 2016. In the GER sample, it was 44%. In details, the average amount of money spent on the French national team's merchandise was € 8 (2014), € 3 (2015), and € 16 (2016). For the German national team's merchandise, the numbers were: € 26 (2014), € 10 (2015), and € 22 (2016).

1.2.3 TV/Screen consumption

The percent of individuals that watched matches of their national football team on TV or Screen differed between the FRA and GER samples (Table III-35). For example, in the FRA sample, the percentage of individuals that watched the maximum number of matches was stable over three years (always at around 20%). In the GER sample, it was 6-9% less. Noticeable were also the higher percentages of none matches watched in 2015 (a non-tournament year).

Table III-35

Percent of individuals that watched matches on TV or Screen

Number matches	Percentages of matches watched					
	2014		2015		2016	
	FRA	GER	FRA	GER	FRA	GER
0	10	6	14	13	8	7
1	2	1	4	4	2	2
2	4	1	5	9	4	1
3	4	3	6	8	4	1
4	3	3	6	10	2	5
5	5	4	9	13	2	7
6	3	4	6	11	2	11
7	6	9	7	11	7	3
8	6	4	13	9	2	9
9	2	3	10	14	3	4
10	11	13	19	-	9	11
11	2	2	-	-	2	2
12	9	10	-	-	7	6
13	9	4	-	-	3	6
14	6	6	-	-	5	9
15	19	11	-	-	14	4
16	-	4	-	-	7	11
17	-	13	-	-	20	-

1.2.4 Social online behaviours

In both samples, not all participants had a Facebook and/or Twitter account. In the FRA sample 82% (n = 371) had a Facebook account and 67% (n = 307) had a Twitter account. In the GER sample, the numbers were lower; 67% (n = 337) had a Facebook account and 18% (n = 89) had a Twitter account. No matter the sample, the platform, or the kind of social online behaviour, during tournaments the respective behaviours were exhibited more frequently.

In both samples, the social online behaviours on Facebook showed that commenting is performed less frequently than creating content. Twitter users performed less complex behaviour more frequently. More detailed numbers on the kinds of social online behaviour are illustrated in the ensuing four Figures.

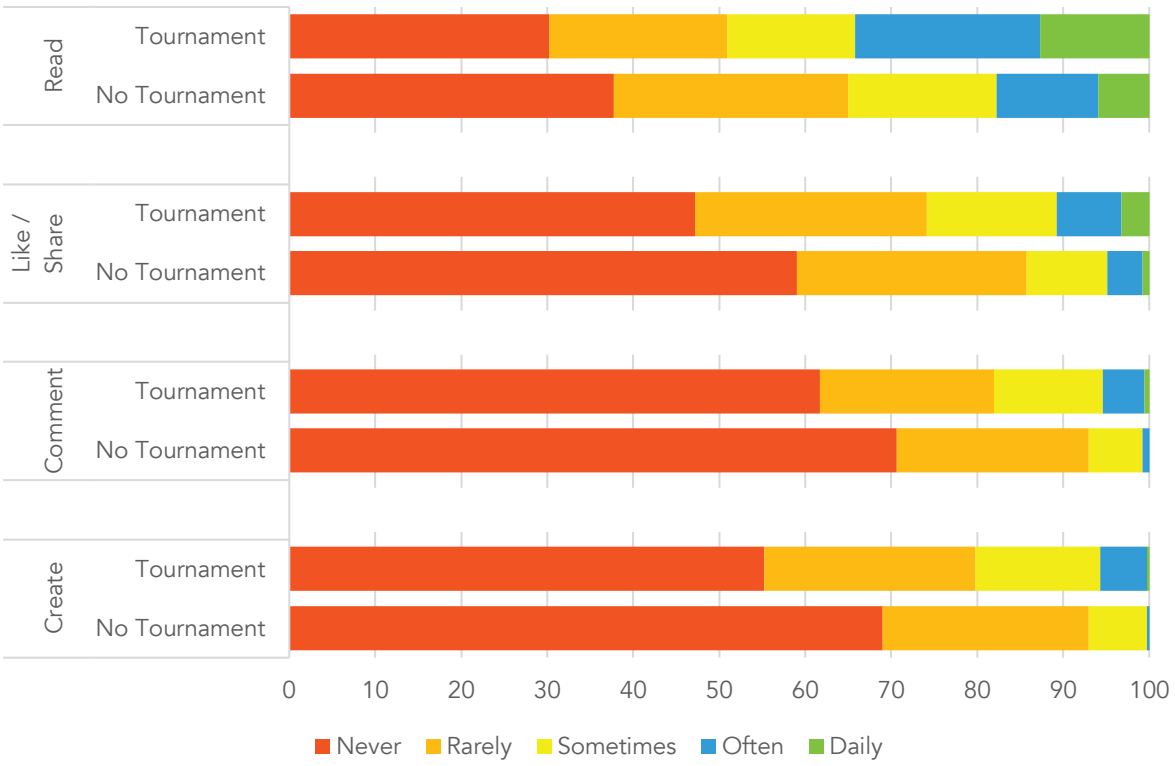


Figure III-8. Social online behaviours on Facebook in FRA sample

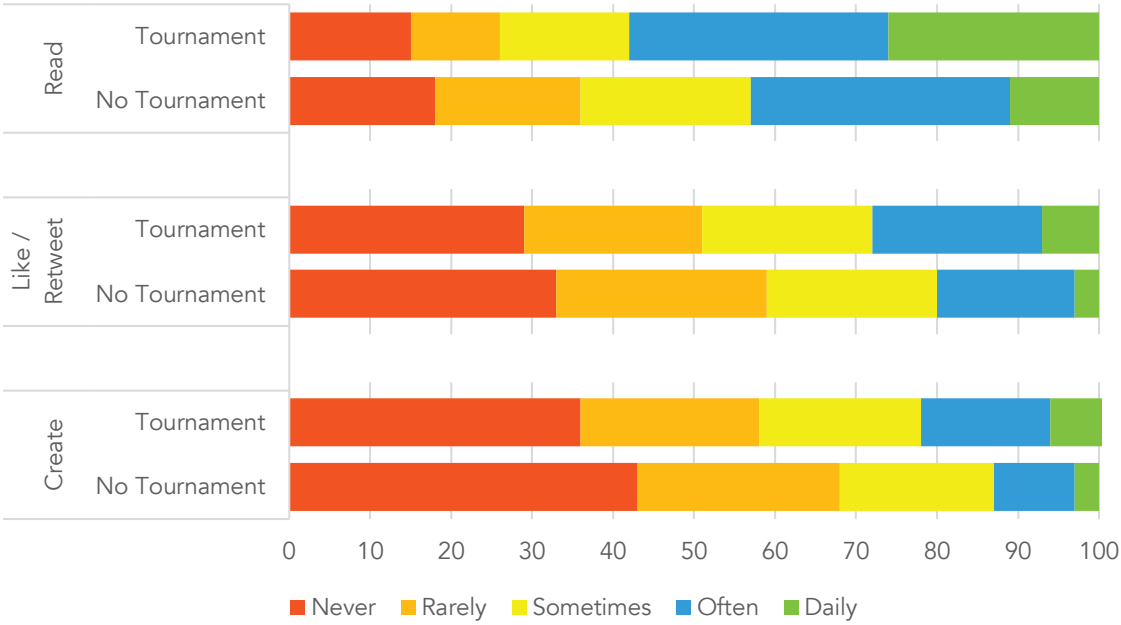


Figure III-9. Social online behaviours on Twitter in FRA sample

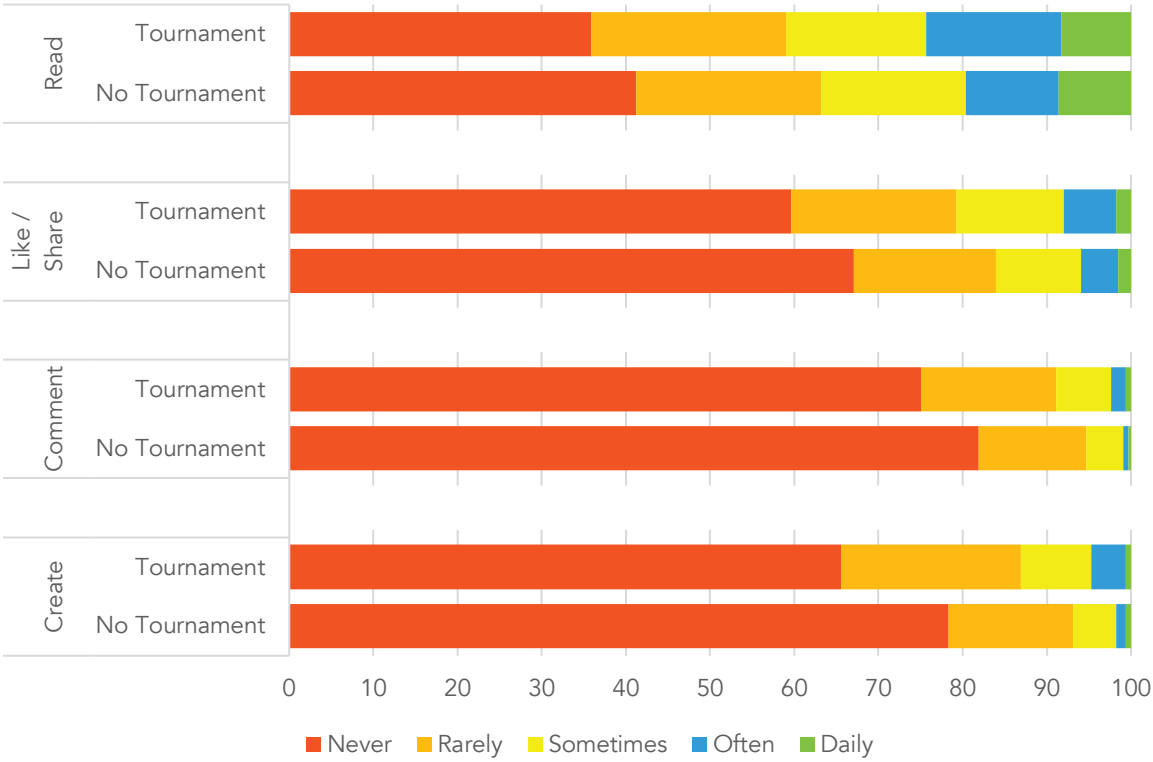


Figure III-10. Social online behaviours on Facebook in GER sample

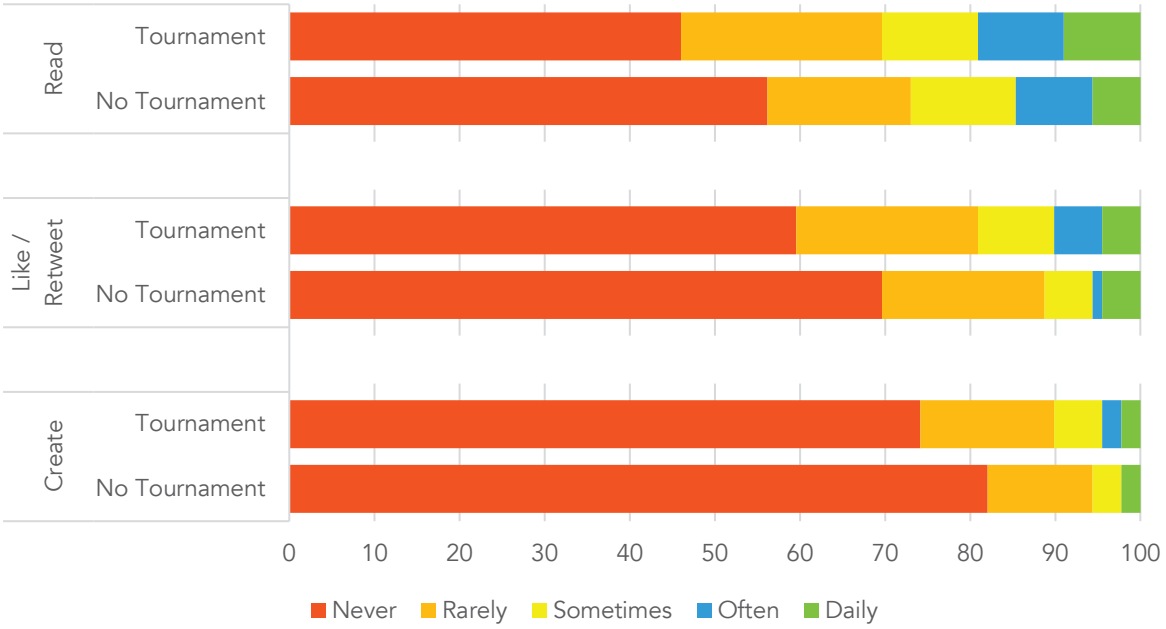


Figure III-11. Social online behaviours on Twitter in GER sample

1.2.5 Social offline behaviours

The frequencies for the Social offline behaviours are presented in Figure III-12. In both samples, half interacted always or often with other spectators when watching a match. Team support was higher in the GER sample, while more than 13% of the FRA sample indicated that they always encouraged others to support the team.

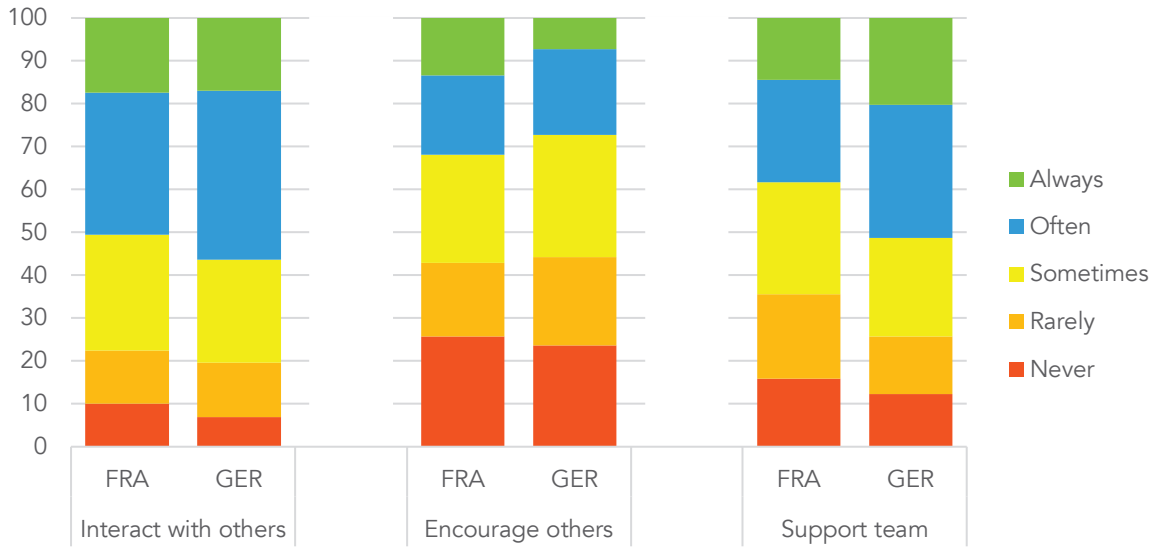


Figure III-12. Social offline behaviours in FRA and GER sample

2 STATISTICAL ANALYSES

The study's data was analysed through variable- and person-centred approaches, using five different data analysis methodologies, performed with two different statistical software packages. The two statistical software packages were Mplus7 (Muthén & Muthén, 2012-2015) and SPSS (IBM Corp., 2015). The syntax we used for each analysis can be found in Appendix G. Ensuing, we present the methodologies and explain why we implemented them. An overview of all methodologies implemented is displayed in Table III-36. The Table simultaneously represents the subsection's structure.

Table III-36

Overview data analysis methodologies and statistical software packages

			Sample	
Analysis type	Software	Aim	FRA	GER
Variable-centred approaches				
CFA	Mplus	Validate measurement model	x	x
MCFA	Mplus	Explore factor invariance of scores across countries	x	x
SEM I	Mplus	Test initial structural model		x
SEM II, III	Mplus	Test follow-up structural models		x
SEM III	Mplus	Validate final structural model	x	
SEM IV	Mplus	Examine interaction effects between IVs of SPT and SGB	x	x
Person-centred approaches				
MD	SPSS	Prepare LPA, detect outliers	x	x
LPA I	Mplus	Select the number of profiles	x	x
LPA II	Mplus	Include covariates, examine confounding variables	x	x

Note. CFA = Confirmatory factor analysis; MCFA = Multi-group confirmatory factor analysis; SEM = Structural equation modelling; MD = Mahalanobis distance; LPA = Latent profile analysis; FRA = France; GER = Germany; SPT = Sports team; SGB = Sport governing body; IV = Independent variable.

2.1 Variable-centred approaches

Variable-centred approaches describe associations between variables and are "well suited for addressing questions that concern the relative contributions that predictor variables make to an outcome" (Laursen & Hoff, 2006, p. 377). Confirmatory factor analysis (CFA), multi-group confirmatory factor analysis (MGCFA), and structural equation modelling (SEM) are variable-centred analyses approaches.

2.1.1 Confirmatory factor analysis

We used CFA, a form of factor analysis, to test our measurement model. The measurement model represents the structure and relations between constructs (i.e. latent variables) and sets of items (i.e. sets of manifest variables; G. Sanchez, 2013; Weston & Gore, 2006). This study is based on a measurement model of 16 latent variables (e.g. Attendance, Merchandise purchases, Fan commitment, Identification, Trust) each measured by, at least, three manifest variables (cf. Section two, Measurements).

2.1.2 Multi-group confirmatory factor analysis

We used MGCFA to test measurement invariance across our two samples (FRA and GER). One can consider this a preparatory analysis for the ensuing comparison of the two samples. That is to say, by verifying invariance between the manifest variables, we could rule out the possibility that potential group-related differences are due to measurement. In other words, a "legitimate comparison of means or structural relations across groups requires equivalence of the measurement structures underlying the indicators" (Steinmetz, Schmidt, Tina-Booh, Wieczorek, & Schwartz, 2009, p. 600).

A. D. Wu, Li, and Zumbo (2007) described the process of a MGCFA as "a sequence of hypothesis tests of nested models beginning with the least constrained model, often the configural model (Horn & McArdle, 1992), and then progressively placing equality constraints on the parameters across groups" (p. 5). In this vein, we followed a statistical methodology proposed by Gregorich (2006) and formerly used

in sport psychology context (Martinent, Guillet-Descas, & Moiret, 2015b). This methodology involved the testing for configural invariance (no equality constraints), metric invariance (equal item loadings), strong invariance (equal item loading and item intercepts concurrently) and strict invariance (equal item loadings, item intercepts and item error variances concurrently).

2.1.3 Structural equation modelling

An analysis method to test multivariate models is SEM. It is comparable to other quantitative methods, like correlation, multiple regression, and analysis of variance. All these methods rely on linear models, need to fulfil specific preconditions to deliver valid results, and do not imply causality (Weston & Gore, 2006).

An advantage of SEM is its combination of factor analysis and path analysis. In a two-step process, it allows researchers utilise multiple measures to represent constructs (cf. 2.1.1 Confirmatory Factor Analysis), followed by estimating and testing the hypothesised relationships among the constructs (Weston & Gore, 2006). That is to say, SEM consists of two components: the measurement model (tested through CFA) and the structural model (tested through path analysis). Taken together, the two models are called composite or full structural model (Weston & Gore, 2006).

As indicated above, the measurement model consists of 16 latent variables each measured by at least three manifest variables. Through the structural model, we tested 17 paths between the latent variables.

2.2 Person-centred approaches

In order to identify particular profiles within the sample, we used latent profile analysis (LPA), and LPA with covariates. These approaches are person-centred approaches, they "identify groups of individuals who share particular attributes or relations among attributes" (Laursen & Hoff, 2006, p. 377). A further person-centred approach used, which has the function as preparatory-analysis for LPAs, is Mahalanobis distance (MD).

2.2.1 Mahalanobis distance

Mahalanobis distance is a distance measure applied in outlier detection (De Maesschalck, Jouan-Rimbaud, & Massart, 2000; Mahalanobis, 1936). The detection of outliers is applied to "identify errors and remove their contaminating effect on the data set and as such to purify the data for processing" (Hodge & Austin, 2004, p. 85). In our case, an outlier is not considered an error, rather an outlying observation "that appears to deviate markedly from other members of the sample in which it occurs" (Grubbs, 1969, cited in Hodge & Austin, 2004, p. 85), or as Barnett and Lewis (1994) put it,

> An observation (or subset of observations) which appears to be inconsistent with the remainder of that set of data. (Barnett & Lewis, 1994, cited in Hodge & Austin, 2004, p. 86)

Applying MD for multivariate outliers to our samples, helped to detect considerable deviations of study participants' attitudes and behaviours relative to other participants within the samples. This procedure was beneficial as the ensuing LPAs were not distorted by naturally occurring, but extremely divergent attitudes and behaviours.

2.2.2 Latent profile analysis

We used LPA to detect groups of individuals within our samples that share similar behaviours and attitudes. This approach is defined as a "multivariate statistical model that posits that an underlying grouping variable (a latent class) is not observed but can be inferred from a set of indicators" (Martinent & Nicolas, 2016, p. 223).

In addition, we examined the influence of covariates on the identified latent classes. The aim was to understand which variables of the model do have the most substantial influence on latent class belongingness and which can be considered drivers for change.

3 DESCRIPTIVE MEASURES AND MEASUREMENT MODEL VALIDATION

3.1 Means and standard deviations

Comparing the variables' means of the FRA and GER samples showed that, of the total 16 variables, half differed significantly. It is noticeable that most variables' means did not differ when assessed toward the SGB (Table III-37).

Table III-37

Means and Standard Deviations for FRA and GER samples

Latent variable	FRA		GER	
	Mean	SD	Mean	SD
Fan loyalty dimensions				
Fan engagement behaviours				
Attendance	0.36**	1.48	0.70**	1.93
Merchandise	1.89**	2.25	2.92**	3.62
TV/Screen	8.60	4.55	8.10	3.94
Social online	2.00**	0.88	1.43**	0.66
Social offline	3.04	1.09	3.16	0.99
Fan commitment				
SPT	3.13**	1.11	3.52**	0.98
Variables influencing fan loyalty dimensions				
Identification				
SPT	2.43**	0.94	2.61**	0.93
Trust				
SPT	3.35**	0.87	3.80**	0.77
SGB	2.49	0.85	2.51	0.92
Satisfaction				
SPT	3.55**	0.79	3.88**	0.61
SGB	2.84	0.80	2.93	0.82
Interaction disposition				
SPT	3.17	0.77	3.16	0.84
SGB	2.81	0.80	2.70	0.89

(Continued)

Continued.

Latent variable	FRA Mean	FRA SD	GER Mean	GER SD
Variables influencing trust				
Reputation				
SPT	3.33**	0.92	4.14**	0.74
SGB	2.52	0.85	2.61	0.93
Governance				
SGB	2.58	0.87	2.48	0.92

Note. *, ** = Means differ significantly at *$p \leqq .05$ or **$p \leqq .01$ level.

3.2 Correlations

The correlation matrices for the FRA and the GER samples revealed three issues (Table III-38, Table III-39). The particularly high correlation coefficients for SGB's Governance and SGB Trust, for SGB's Governance and SGB Reputation, and for SGB Reputation and SGB Trust, indicated that study participants did not differentiate between these three, theoretically distinct, latent variables. In their view, the three variables are the same. Further investigation affirmed that the latent variables cannot be distinguished statistically from another[88].

Overall, these results implied that in both samples there is a linear dependency between at least two latent variables. For this reason, further analyses were not possible, since SEM cannot be run without error if there is a linear dependency between two or more variables present. In consequence, a new latent variable had to be created, which combines all manifest variables of Trust in, Reputation of, and Governance of the SGB. The new latent variable, with nine manifest variables, has been labelled *SGB Credibility* (CRE_SGB).

[88] To distinguish two concepts statistically from another the correlation coefficient between two latent variables plus twice its standard error has to be < 1. For the three variables mentioned above, this is not the case or almost not the case.
FRA: GOV_SGB and TRU_SGB = .98+2x.02 = 1.02; GOV_SGB and REP_SGB = .96+2x.02 = 1; REP_SGB and TRU_SGB = .92+2x.02 = .96.
GER: GOV_SGB and TRU_SGB = 1+2x.01 = 1.02; GOV_SGB and REP_SGB = .94+2x.02 = .98; REP_SGB and TRU_SGB = .93+2x.01 = .95.

Table III-38

Correlation matrix of variables for FRA sample

	Variable	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18
1	ATT_SPT	–																	
2	MER_SPT	.04	–																
3	TVS_SPT	.10	.31	–															
4	FBO_SPT	.06	.19	.46	–														
5	TWI_SPT	.06	.19	.45	.28	–													
6	SOF_SPT	.09	.28	.65	.41	.40	–												
7	COM_SPT	.10	.33	.79	.49	.49	.70	–											
8	IDE_SPT	.08	.26	.61	.39	.38	.55	.79	–										
9	TRU_SPT	.04	.14	.33	.20	.20	.29	.47	.52	–									
10	TRU_SGB	.01	.04	.09	.06	.06	.08	.24	.31	.48	–								
11	SAT_SPT	.04	.13	.32	.20	.20	.28	.43	.48	.61	.33	–							
12	SAT_SGB	.01	.04	.09	.06	.06	.08	.21	.30	.41	.79	.39	–						
13	INT_SPT	.03	.11	.25	.16	.15	.22	.39	.48	.40	.44	.45	.36	–					
14	INT_SGB	.00	.00	.00	.00	.00	.00	.07	.17	.20	.64	.28	.58	.65	–				
15	REP_SPT	.06	.20	.47	.30	.29	.42	.62	.68	.59	.36	.56	.34	.51	.24	–			
16	REP_SGB	.02	.06	.15	.09	.09	.13	.28	.38	.47	**.92**	.37	.79	.47	.62	.46	–		
17	GOV_SGB	.03	.08	.19	.12	.12	.17	.34	.43	.54	**.98**	.41	.78	.49	.64	.42	**.96**	–	
18	FEB_SPT	.11	.36	.86	.54	.53	.76	.92	.72	.38	.11	.37	.11	.29	.00	.55	.18	.22	–

Note. ATT_SPT = Attendance, MER_SPT = Merchandise purchases, TVS_SPT = TV/Screen, FBO_SPT = Social online behaviours on Facebook, TWI_SPT = Social online behaviours on Twitter, SOF_SPT = Social offline behaviours, COM_SPT = Fan commitment, IDE_SPT = Identification with SPT, TRU_SPT = Trust in SPT, TRU_SGB = Trust in SGB, SAT_SPT = Satisfaction with SPT, SAT_SGB = Satisfaction with SGB, INT_SPT = Interactivity disposition of SPT, INT_SGB = Interactivity disposition of SGB, REP_SPT = Reputation of SPT, REP_SGB = Reputation of SGB, GOV_SGB = Governance of SGB, FEB_SPT = Fan engagement behaviours as second order construct. Bold numbers = Latent variables cannot (almost not) be distinguished statistically from another.

Table III-39

Correlation matrix of variables for GER sample

	Variable	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18
1	ATT_SPT	–																	
2	MER_SPT	.19	–																
3	TVS_SPT	.27	.32	–															
4	FBO_SPT	.16	.20	.27	–														
5	TWI_SPT	.08	.10	.14	.08	–													
6	SOF_SPT	.35	.43	.60	.36	.18	–												
7	COM_SPT	.33	.40	.56	.34	.17	.74	–											
8	IDE_SPT	.26	.32	.45	.27	.13	.59	.69	–										
9	TRU_SPT	.19	.23	.32	.19	.10	.42	.63	.55	–									
10	TRU_SGB	.08	.10	.14	.09	.04	.19	.32	.34	.43	–								
11	SAT_SPT	.20	.24	.34	.20	.10	.44	.60	.56	.65	.39	–							
12	SAT_SGB	.06	.07	.10	.06	.03	.13	.27	.34	.36	.78	.40	–						
13	INT_SPT	.07	.09	.13	.08	.04	.17	.32	.43	.51	.45	.46	.43	–					
14	INT_SGB	.03	.04	.05	.03	.02	.07	.21	.35	.35	.78	.38	.65	.73	–				
15	REP_SPT	.20	.24	.33	.20	.10	.44	.66	.52	.75	.39	.66	.41	.53	.37	–			
16	REP_SGB	.07	.09	.12	.07	.04	.16	.31	.38	.39	**.93**	.37	.81	.45	.77	.43	–		
17	GOV_SGB	.10	.12	.16	.10	.05	.21	.34	.37	.42	**1.00**	.41	.79	.48	.80	.38	**.94**	–	
18	FEB_SPT	.40	.48	.67	.41	.20	.89	.84	.66	.47	.21	.50	.15	.19	.08	.49	.18	.24	–

Note. ATT_SPT = Attendance, MER_SPT = Merchandise purchases, TVS_SPT = TV/Screen, FBO_SPT = Social online behaviours on Facebook, TWI_SPT = Social online behaviours on Twitter, SOF_SPT = Social offline behaviours, COM_SPT = Fan commitment, IDE_SPT = Identification with SPT, TRU_SPT = Trust in SPT, TRU_SGB = Trust in SGB, SAT_SPT = Satisfaction with SPT, SAT_SGB = Satisfaction with SGB, INT_SPT = Interactivity disposition of SPT, INT_SGB = Interactivity disposition of SGB, REP_SPT = Reputation of SPT, REP_SGB = Reputation of SGB, GOV_SGB = Governance of SGB, FEB_SPT = Fan engagement behaviours as second order construct; Bold numbers = Latent variables cannot (almost not) be distinguished statistically from another.

3.3 Confirmatory factor analysis

To assess the measurement models, we compared several goodness-of-fit indicators to cut-off levels for determining model fit (Table III-40). In general, we followed the suggestion: "if the vast majority of the indexes indicate a good fit, then there is probably a good fit" (Schreiber, Nora, Stage, Barlow, & King, 2006, p. 327). The same goodness-of-fit indicators and cut-off levels for determining model fit were used to evaluate the ensuing structural model (i.e. path analysis within SEM).

Table III-40

Cut-off criteria for model fit indexes for CFA and SEM

Indexes	Shorthand	Schreiber et al. (2006)	Weston and Gore (2006)
Root mean square error of approximation	RMSEA	< .06	< .06
Root mean square error of approximation 90% Confidence interval	RMSEA 90% C.I.	< .06 to .08	–
Standardized root mean square residual	SRMR	≤ .08	≤ .08
Comparative fit index	CFI	≥ .95 for acceptance	≥ .95 for acceptance
Tucker-Lewis Index	TLI	≥ .95 for acceptance	–
Chi-square p-value	χ^2 p-value	–	≥ .05 for acceptance
Ratio of χ^2 value to χ^2 DF	–	≤ 2 or 3	–
Akaike information criterion [a]	AIC	Smaller the better	–
Bayes information criterion [a]	BIC	Smaller the better	–

Note. [a] Used for model comparison only, not applied in CFA, just in assessment of the structural model (cf. 4 Model analysis and interaction effects); DF = Degrees of freedom.

The CFAs for the FRA and GER samples exhibited an acceptable to excellent fit (Table III-41 for an overview). An excellent fit is indicated by a Root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA) of .046 for FRA and of .041 for GER. The RMSEA 90% Confidence intervals and the Standardized Root Mean Square Residuals (SRMR) confirmed this excellent fit. Comparative fit indexes (CFIs) and Tucker-Lewis Indexes (TLIs) are slightly below the cut-off criteria suggested by Schreiber et al. (2006) and Weston and Gore (2006). However, CFI and TLI indexes between .90 and .95 may not be excellent but are still acceptable (Hu & Bentler, 1995). Ideally, the Chi-square value (χ^2) should be non-significant, for our CFAs it is significant.

Table III-41

Model fit information for confirmatory factor analyses

Sample	RMSEA	RMSEA 90% C.I.		SRMR	CFI	TLI	χ^2 p-value
FRA	.046	.043	.048	.064	.93	.92	.00
GER	.041	.038	.043	.059	.94	.94	.00

Note. RMSEA = Root mean square error of approximation, RMSEA 90% C.I. = Root mean square error of approximation 90% confidence interval, SRMR = Standardized root mean square residual, CFI = Comparative fit index, TLI = Tucker-Lewis Index, χ^2 = Chi-square.

To further evaluate the reliability and validity of the measurement model, we examined the Factor loadings, Average variance extracted (AVE) values, and Dillon-Goldstein's rho (ϱ) values. A Factor loading, which is a composite measure of correlations between a latent variable and its manifest variables, is acceptable if the value is ≥ .40 (Martinent, Guillet-Descas, & Moiret, 2015a). An AVE value describes "the variance captured by measurement errors as opposed to the variance attributable to the latent factors" (Martinent et al., 2015a, p. 121). A value of ≥ .50 signifies good reliability since the variance of the construct is greater than the error variance (Fornell & Larcker, 1981; Martinent et al., 2015a). The ϱ value signifies the "variance of the sum of manifest variables in the latent variable", whereby ϱ values of ≥ .70 are considered acceptable (Martinent et al., 2015a, p. 121).

All AVE values and ϱ values for the FRA and GER samples met the thresholds mentioned above. The only exception was the Merchandise purchased measure in the FRA sample, having an AVE value of .45. The vast majority of Factor loadings were well above the threshold of .40. A few exceptions were found the Fan Engagement behaviours measures in both samples. Overall, Factor loadings, AVE values and ϱ values confirmed high reliability and validity for all the constructs examined. A detailed presentation of all latent and manifest variables with their associated Factor loadings, AVE and ϱ values can be found on the following six pages (FRA sample: Table III-42, Table III-43, Figure III-13; GER sample: Table III-44, Table III-45, Figure III-14).

Table III-42

Reliability measures for fan loyalty dimensions of FRA sample

Latent and manifest variables	EST	ERV	AVE	ρ
Fan engagement behaviours [FEB_SPT] [a]			.69	.98
ATT_SPT	.11	.99		
MER_SPT	.36	.87		
TVS_SPT	.86	.27		
FBO_SPT	.54	.71		
TWI_SPT	.53	.72		
SOF_SPT	.76	.43		
Attendance [ATT_SPT]			.87	.95
ATT_1_1	.93	.14		
ATT_2_1	.98	.04		
ATT_3_1	.88	.22		
Merchandise [MER_SPT]			.45	.71
MER_1_1	.72	.48		
MER_2_1	.73	.47		
MER_3_1	.55	.70		
TV/Screen [TVS_SPT]			.89	.96
TVS_1_1	.95	.10		
TVS_2_1	.94	.11		
TVS_3_1	.93	.13		
Social online [SON_SPT] [b]				
Facebook [FBO_SPT]			.59	.85
FBO_1_1	.71	.50		
FBO_2_1	.83	.31		
FBO_3_1	.75	.43		
FBO_4_1	.77	.40		
Twitter [TWI_SPT]			.80	.92
TWI_1_1	.82	.32		
TWI_2_1	.97	.05		
TWI_3_1	.89	.21		
Social offline [SOF_SPT]			.59	.81
SOF_1_1	.69	.52		
SOF_2_1	.80	.36		
SOF_3_1	.80	.36		
Fan commitment [COM_SPT]			.62	.89
COM_1_1	.79	.37		
COM_2_1	.76	.42		
COM_3_1	.85	.29		
COM_4_1	.77	.41		
COM_5_1	.77	.41		

Note. [a] Fan engagement behaviours as second order construct, [b] Social online behaviours as notion for Social online behaviours on Facebook and/or on Twitter; EST = Estimates, ERV = Estimates residual variance, AVE = Average variance extracted, ρ = Dillon-Goldstein's rho.

Table III-43

Reliability measures for variables influencing fan loyalty dimensions and trust of FRA sample

Latent and manifest variables	EST	ERV	AVE	ρ
Identification [IDE_SPT]			.72	.84
IDE_1_1	.84	.29		
IDE_2_1	.86	.26		
Trust [TRU_SPT]			.68	.86
TRU_1_1	.85	.28		
TRU_2_1	.83	.32		
TRU_3_1	.80	.37		
Credibility [CRE_SGB] [a]			.68	.95
TRU_1_2	.91	.20		
TRU_2_2	.88	.27		
TRU_3_2	.85	.30		
REP_1_2	.76	.43		
REP_2_2	.88	.23		
REP_3_2	.83	.32		
GOV_1_2	.80	.36		
GOV_2_2	.74	.46		
GOV_3_2	.81	.34		
Satisfaction [SAT_SPT]			.66	.85
SAT_1_1	.71	.49		
SAT_2_1	.76	.43		
SAT_3_1	.95	.10		
Satisfaction [SAT_SGB]			.78	.91
SAT_1_2	.87	.24		
SAT_2_2	.82	.32		
SAT_3_2	.95	.09		
Interactivity [INT_SPT]			.51	.75
INT_1_1	.65	.57		
INT_2_1	.65	.58		
INT_3_1	.83	.32		
Interactivity [INT_SGB]			.54	.78
INT_1_2	.66	.56		
INT_2_2	.80	.36		
INT_3_2	.73	.47		
Reputation [REP_SPT]			.69	.87
REP_1_1	.79	.38		
REP_2_1	.83	.32		
REP_3_1	.88	.24		

Note. [a] New latent variable, because of the linear dependency between TRU_SGB, REP_SGB, GOV_SGB; EST = Estimates, ERV = Estimates residual variance, AVE = Average variance extracted, ρ = Dillon-Goldstein's rho.

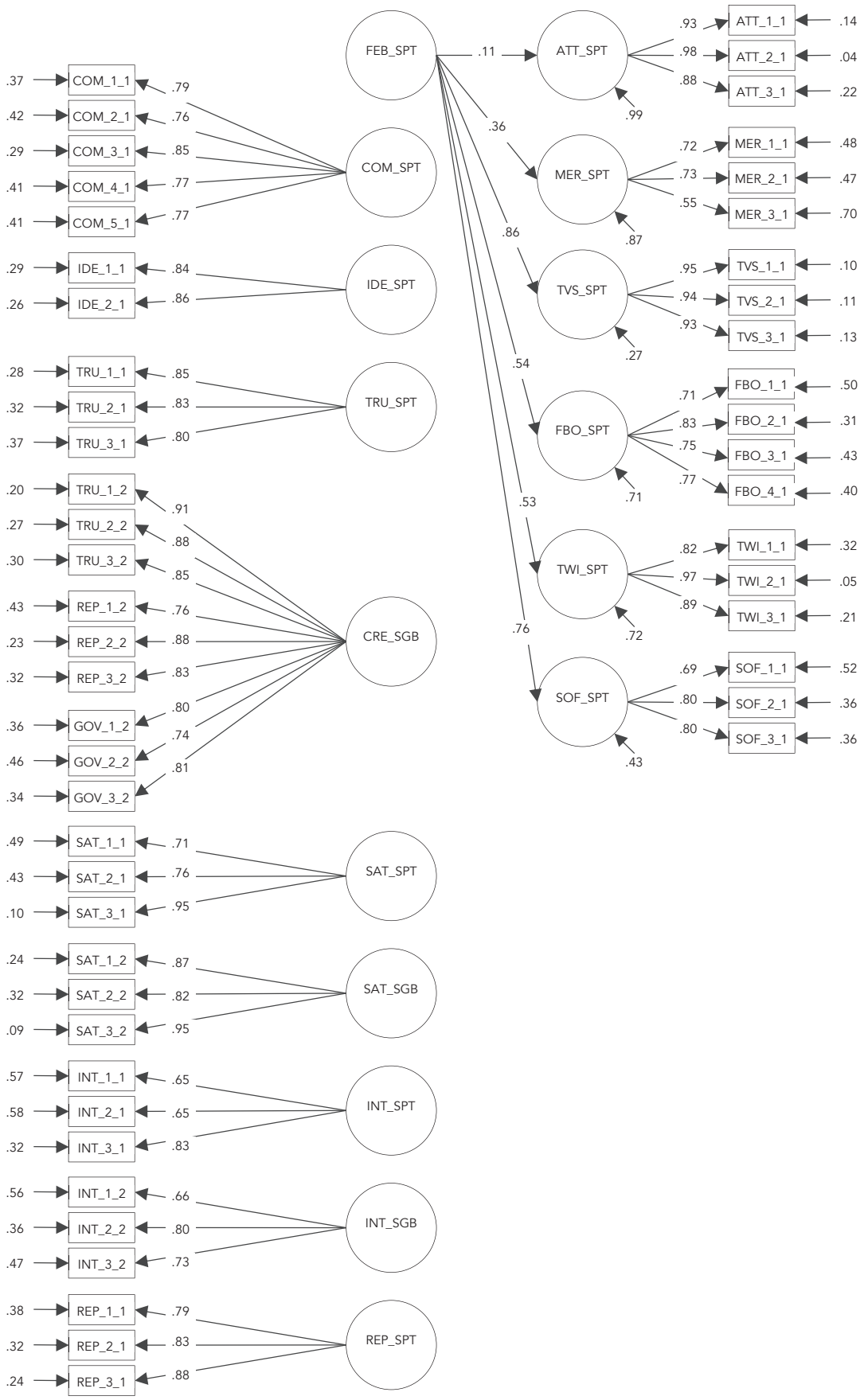


Figure III-13. Factor loadings for FRA sample

Note. For reasons of clarity the covariates are not indicated.

Table III-44

Reliability measures for fan loyalty dimensions of GER sample

Latent and manifest variables	EST	ERV	AVE	ρ
Fan engagement behaviours [FEB_SPT] [a]			.70	.98
ATT_SPT	.40	.84		
MER_SPT	.48	.77		
TVS_SPT	.67	.55		
FBO_SPT	.40	.84		
TWI_SPT	.20	.96		
SOF_SPT	.89	.21		
Attendance [ATT_SPT]			.86	.95
ATT_1_1	.90	.19		
ATT_2_1	.94	.12		
ATT_3_1	.95	.10		
Merchandise [MER_SPT]			.60	.82
MER_1_1	.68	.54		
MER_2_1	.72	.48		
MER_3_1	.91	.18		
TV/Screen [TVS_SPT]			.82	.93
TVS_1_1	.92	.15		
TVS_2_1	.87	.24		
TVS_3_1	.93	.14		
Social online [SON_SPT] [b]				
Facebook [FBO_SPT]			.67	.89
FBO_1_1	.73	.46		
FBO_2_1	.88	.22		
FBO_3_1	.80	.36		
FBO_4_1	.85	.28		
Twitter [TWI_SPT]			.74	.89
TWI_1_1	.86	.26		
TWI_2_1	.98	.04		
TWI_3_1	.72	.48		
Social offline [SOF_SPT]			.51	.76
SOF_1_1	.63	.60		
SOF_2_1	.76	.43		
SOF_3_1	.75	.44		
Fan commitment [COM_SPT]			.60	.88
COM_1_1	.83	.32		
COM_2_1	.89	.21		
COM_3_1	.87	.24		
COM_4_1	.58	.66		
COM_5_1	.66	.57		

Note. [a] Fan engagement behaviours as second order construct, [b] Social online behaviours as notion for Social online behaviours on Facebook and/or on Twitter; EST = Estimates, ERV = Estimates residual variance, AVE = Average variance extracted, ρ = Dillon-Goldstein's rho.

Table III-45

Reliability measures for variables influencing fan loyalty dimensions and trust of GER sample

Latent and manifest variables	EST	ERV	AVE	ρ
Identification [IDE_SPT]			.68	.81
IDE_1_1	.82	.33		
IDE_2_1	.83	.32		
Trust [TRU_SPT]			.68	.87
TRU_1_1	.86	.27		
TRU_2_1	.82	.33		
TRU_3_1	.80	.36		
Credibility [CRE_SGB] [a]			.73	.96
TRU_1_2	.89	.21		
TRU_2_2	.89	.22		
TRU_3_2	.87	.25		
REP_1_2	.83	.30		
REP_2_2	.86	.26		
REP_3_2	.86	.27		
GOV_1_2	.84	.30		
GOV_2_2	.80	.36		
GOV_3_2	.88	.23		
Satisfaction [SAT_SPT]			.68	.86
SAT_1_1	.78	.39		
SAT_2_1	.78	.39		
SAT_3_1	.91	.17		
Satisfaction [SAT_SGB]			.80	.92
SAT_1_2	.91	.17		
SAT_2_2	.84	.29		
SAT_3_2	.92	.15		
Interactivity [INT_SPT]			.59	.81
INT_1_1	.74	.45		
INT_2_1	.75	.43		
INT_3_1	.81	.34		
Interactivity [INT_SGB]			.68	.87
INT_1_2	.85	.28		
INT_2_2	.84	.29		
INT_3_2	.79	.37		
Reputation [REP_SPT]			.70	.87
REP_1_1	.77	.40		
REP_2_1	.85	.29		
REP_3_1	.89	.21		

Note. [a] New latent variable, because of the linear dependency between TRU_SGB, REP_SGB, GOV_SGB; EST = Estimates, ERV = Estimates residual variance, AVE = Average variance extracted, ρ = Dillon-Goldstein's rho.

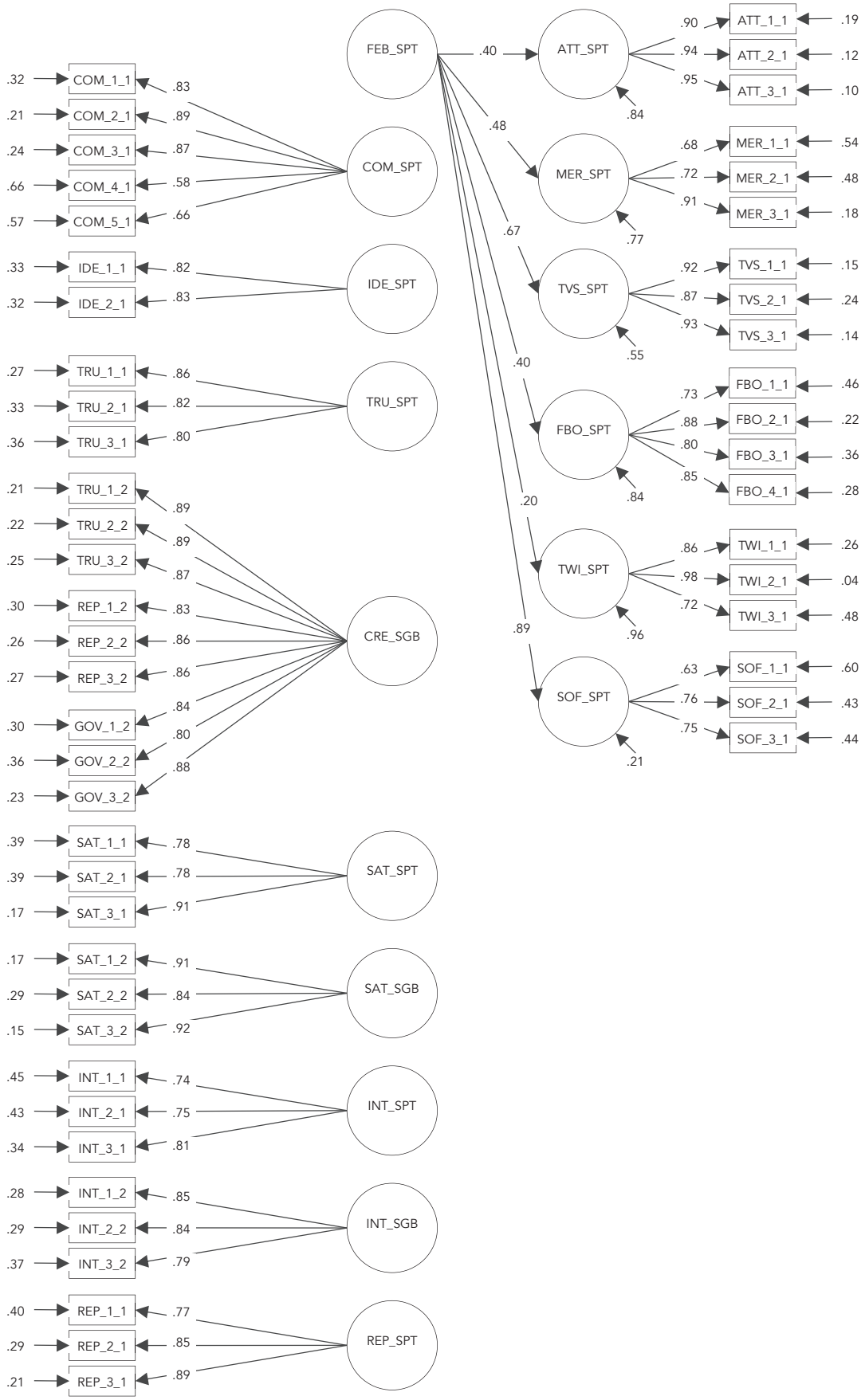


Figure III-14. Factor loadings for GER sample

Note. For reasons of clarity the covariates are not indicated.

3.3.1 Multi-group confirmatory factor analysis

The outset for the MGCFA was the configural model with an acceptable fit (RMSEA < .06, RMSEA 90% C.I. < .08, ratio of χ^2 Value and χ^2 DF < 3), although CFI values were not optimal. The difference between the configural and the more restricted models was judged on the basis of the CFI value; "A value equal to or less .010 indicates no difference between models and thus tenability of equality constraints" (Martinent et al., 2015b, p. 35).

Table III-46

Model fit information for tests of multiple group measurement and structural invariance

Model	Free Parms	χ^2 Value	χ^2 Scale factor	χ^2 DF	χ^2 p-value	RMSEA	RMSEA 90% C.I.	RMSEA p-value	SRMR	CFI
Configural	498	6614.891	1.0824	2470	0	.059	.057 .061	0	.207	.88
Metric	460	6850.236	1.1071	2508	0	.060	.058 .062	0	.233	.87
Strong	407	8395.138	1.1047	2561	0	.069	.067 .071	0	.235	.83
Partial strong	421	7231.744	1.1045	2547	0	.062	.060 .064	0	.236	.86
Partial strict	382	7529.032	1.1326	2586	0	.063	.061 .065	0	.241	.85

From configural to metric model (loadings held equal across the FRA and GER samples) the CFI-drop was at .006, indicating no difference across the models. From metric to strong model (loadings and intercepts held equal across the FRA and GER samples) the CFI-drop was well above the threshold (.044). However, further analysis was possible when freeing 14 intercepts and proceeding with a partial strong model (CFI-drop from metric to partial strong model was at .010). At the very last restriction stage, we held loadings, partial intercepts, plus all residual variances equal. The CFI-drop from partial strong to partial strict (partial, as still 14 intercepts are freed) was at .008. Conclusively, partial invariance between the items of the FRA sample and the GER sample was shown (Table III-46).

4 STRUCTURAL MODEL ANALYSIS AND INTERACTION EFFECTS

The model analysis was done in four subsequent steps. First, the measurement model was validated by applying CFA. Step two was the testing of the initial structural model, which was the basis for accepting or rejecting the studies' hypotheses. Step three involved the calibration of the initial model to explore follow-up structural models that might fit the data better. Testing of the initial model and the model calibration was done using the GER sample (n = 505). The last step – the validation of the follow-up model – was performed using the FRA sample (n = 455). To assess the models' fit, we referred to the goodness-of-fit indicators and cut-off levels as introduced earlier (cf. Table III-40).

After the calibration, and validation of the structural models, we furthermore evaluated interaction effects. That is to say, we explored if the variables measured towards the SPT and towards the SGB do have a direct effect on each other. An overview of all structural model analyses, including model fit information, can be found in Table III-47.

4.1 Initial structural model and follow-up structural models

We were unable to test the initial structural model since, as mentioned before, a linear dependency between at least two latent variables made it impossible to run the SEM algorithm without error (issue of convergence). The reason was that Reputation of SGB, Governance of SGB, and Trust in SGB could not be distinguished statistically from each other. As a consequence, we already adjusted the measurement model (3.2 Correlations) and combined Reputation of SGB, Governance of SGB, and Trust in SGB to form a new latent variable labelled Credibility of SGB.

On the structural level, this meant that Reputation of SGB and Governance of SGB could not be treated as antecedents of Trust in SGB, and Trust in SGB could not be treated as the antecedent of Fan commitment and Fan engagement, as we formerly suggested in the initial structural model. That is to say, we had to adjust the initial

structural model and replace the latent variables Reputation of SGB, Governance of SGB, and Trust in SGB with the newly constructed latent variable Credibility of SGB. Hence, the hypotheses 3.2 (Trust in SGB → Fan commitment), 4.2 (Trust in SGB → Fan engagement), 9.2 (Reputation of SGB → Trust in SGB), and 10 (Governance of SGB → Trust in SGB) were replaced by two new hypotheses relating to the latent variable Credibility of SGB (Figure III-15):

Hypothesis 11: Credibility of the sport governing body has a positive influence on fan commitment to the sports team.

Hypothesis 12: Credibility of the sport governing body has a positive influence on fan engagement.

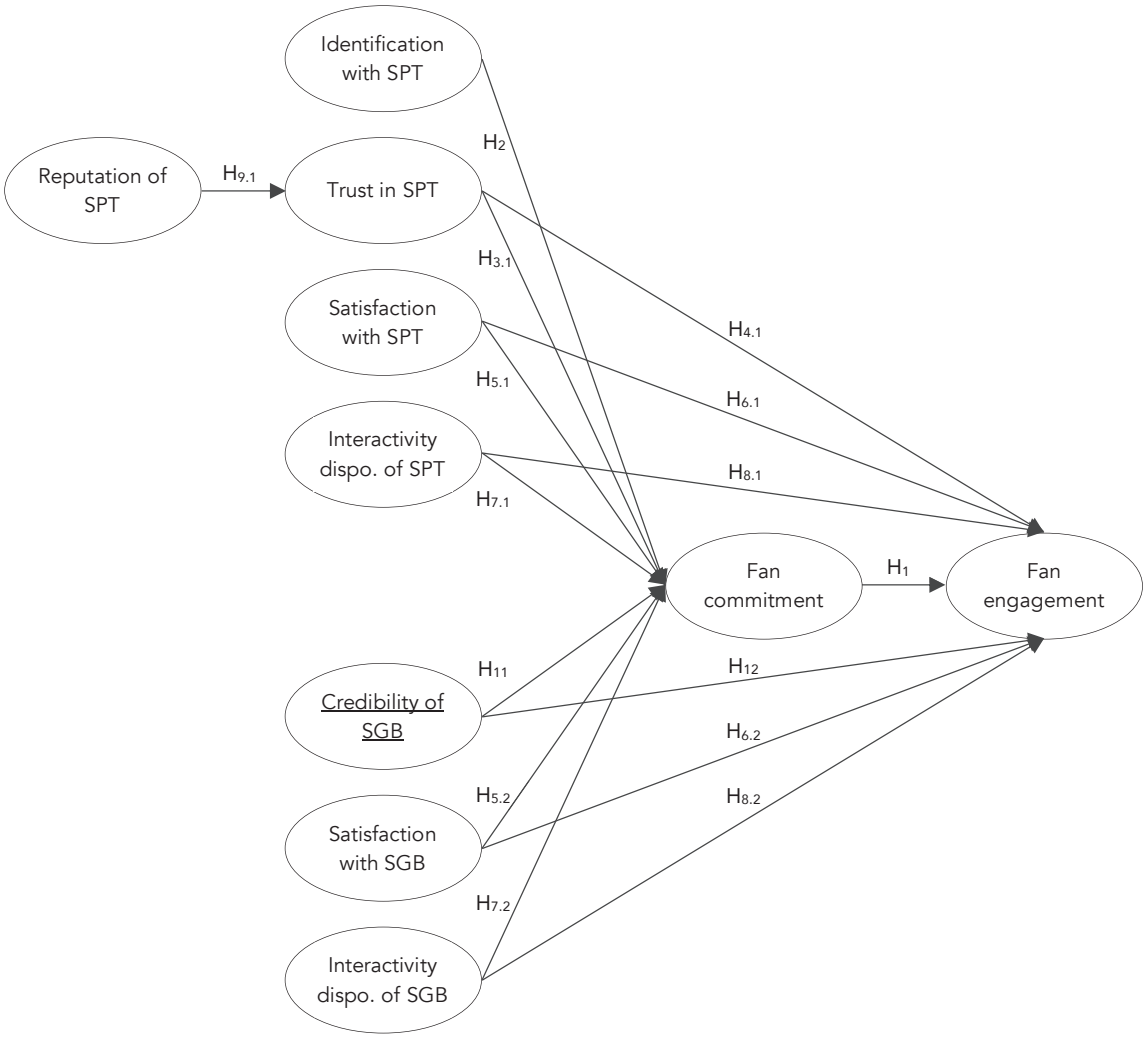


Figure III-15. The Fan Relationship Management Model (FRM Model)

The fit indexes of the modified version of the initial structural model suggested a good to excellent fit of the data (Table III-47). The ratio of χ^2 value to χ^2 DF smaller than two, a RMSEA of .042, a RMSEA 90% C.I. of .039 to .044, a CFI of .94, and a TLI of .93. Only the significant χ^2 value at $p \leq .01$ was not in line with all the other positive fit indexes since it suggested that the model did not fit the sample data (Weston & Gore, 2006). However, as the same authors pointed out, "this statistic tests whether the model is an exact fit to the data. Finding an exact fit is rare" (p. 742). Additionally, large sample sizes increase statistical power, which results in significance with small effect sizes (Henson, 2006; Weston & Gore, 2006).

The significance or non-significance of the parameter estimates plus the direction (positive or negative influence), were our basis for accepting or rejecting the studies' hypotheses. From 15 tested hypotheses, six were accepted (one at $p \leqq .05$ and five at $p \leqq .01$). A further estimate was significant as well, but the hypothesis had to be rejected as the direction was negative.

Fan commitment was the only variable that influenced Fan engagement directly. All other hypotheses concerning the direct influence on Fan engagement had to be rejected. Furthermore, Satisfaction with the SGB and the Interactivity disposition of the SPT did not influence Fan commitment, which resulted in the rejection of Hypotheses $H_{5.2}$ and $H_{7.1}$. Although the influence of the SGB Interactivity disposition on Fan commitment was significant, its influence was negative, leading to a rejection of Hypothesis $H_{8.2}$. Overall, 9 hypotheses were rejected. An overview of all hypotheses and whether or not they were accepted can be found in Table III-48.

Table III-47

Model fit information

Analysis stage	Sample	Model	χ^2	χ^2 DF	RMSEA	RMSEA 90% C.I.		SRMR	CFI	TLI	AIC	BIC	Adjusted BIC
Initial test													
	GER	SEM I	2407.49**	1283	.042	.039	.044	.061	.94	.93	62891.39	63740.52	63102.53
Follow-up													
	GER	SEM II	2415.25**	1289	.042	.039	.044	.063	.94	.93	62890.28	63714.07	63095.12
	GER	SEM III	2355.66**	1275	.041	.038	.044	.055	.94	.94	62804.04	63686.97	63023.59
Cross-validation													
	FRA	SEM III	2524.66**	1275	.046	.044	.049	.067	.92	.92	60784.67	61645.80	60982.50
Interaction													
	FRA	SEM IV	3168.48**	1753	.042	.040	.044	.061	.92	.91	72047.19	73126.71	72295.20
	GER	SEM IV	3064.52**	1752	.039	.036	.041	.054	.93	.93	75125.70	76236.76	75401.97

Note. $*p \leqq .05$, $**p \leqq .01$.

Table III-48

Overview hypotheses acceptance

	Hypothesis	Acceptance
1	Fan commitment to a sports team has a positive influence on fan engagement behaviours.	**
2	Identification with a sports team has a positive influence on fan commitment to the sports team.	**
3.1	Trust in a sports team has a positive influence on fan commitment to the sports team.	**
3.2	~~Trust in a sport governing body has a positive influence on fan commitment to the sports team.~~ [a]	NA
4.1	Trust in a sports team has a positive influence on fan engagement.	–
4.2	~~Trust in a sport governing body has a positive influence on fan engagement.~~ [a]	NA
5.1	Satisfaction with a sports team has a positive influence on fan commitment to the sports team.	**
5.2	Satisfaction with a sport governing body has a positive influence on fan commitment to the sports team.	–
6.1	Satisfaction with a sports team has a positive influence on fan engagement.	–
6.2	Satisfaction with a sport governing body has a positive influence on fan engagement.	–
7.1	Interactivity disposition of a sports team has a positive influence on fan commitment to the sports team.	–
7.2	Interactivity disposition of a sport governing body has a positive influence on fan commitment to the sports team.	– [b]
8.1	Interactivity disposition of a sports team has a positive influence on fan engagement.	–
8.2	Interactivity disposition of a sport governing body has a positive influence on fan engagement.	–
9.1	The reputation of the sports team has a positive influence on trust in the sports team.	**
9.2	~~The reputation of the sport governing body has a positive influence on trust in the sport governing body.~~ [a]	NA
10	~~Good governance of the sport governing body has a positive influence on trust in the sport governing body.~~ [a]	NA
11	Credibility of the sport governing body has a positive influence on fan commitment to the sports team. [c]	*
12	Credibility of the sport governing body has a positive influence on fan engagement. [c]	–

Note. [a] replaced by $H_{11, 12}$ due to linear dependency; [b] significant but negative; [c] newly formed hypothesis.
*$p \leqq .05$, **$p \leqq .01$; NA = Not applicable.

After testing the modified initial model and the acceptance/rejection of the study's hypotheses, we continued with the model modification. The modification of models (i.e. follow-up models) comes along with three notes. Firstly, post hoc model modification must be clearly labelled rather than implying that analyses were a priori. Secondly, one should be aware of the capitalisation on chance. Thirdly, the resulting models might be highly specific to the sample since they are data-driven (Weston & Gore, 2006). Consequently, we carefully modified the model within the limitations of our theory and tested them, as mentioned before, on a separate sample (i.e. cross-validation using the FRA sample; Weston & Gore, 2006).

The modified initial model was considered a partially mediated model (Figure III-15). In applying a first structural equation modelling approach (SEM I), we found that only Fan commitment influenced Fan engagement directly (Table III-49, third column). This outcome indicated that a fully mediated model – all independent variables influence Fan engagement through the mediator Fan commitment – might be a better and more parsimonious model (Figure III-16). We tested this option by running SEM II.

Table III-49

Path coefficients for the initial model and two follow-up model using the GER sample

Dependent latent variables	Independent latent variables	SEM I	SEM II	SEM III
Fan engagement behaviours	Fan commitment	.88**	.84**	–
	Trust SPT	-.11	–	–
	Credibility SGB	.11	–	–
	Satisfaction SPT	.08	–	–
	Satisfaction SGB	-.11	–	–
	Interaction SPT	-.01	–	–
	Interaction SGB	-.10	–	–
Attendance	Fan commitment	–	–	.31**
Merchandise	Fan commitment	–	–	.38**
TV/Screen	Fan commitment	–	–	.58**
Social online behaviours FBO	Fan commitment	–	–	.31**
Social online behaviours TWI	Fan commitment	–	–	.13**
Social offline behaviours	Fan commitment	–	–	.76**
Fan commitment	Identification SPT	.49**	.49**	.49**
	Trust SPT	.29**	.27**	.27**
	Credibility SGB	.30*	.33**	.33**
	Satisfaction SPT	.20**	.21**	.21**
	Satisfaction SGB	-.10	-.12	-.12
	Interaction SPT	.07	.07	.07
	Interaction SGB	-.36*	-.39**	-.39**
Trust SPT	Reputation SPT	.79**	.79**	.79**

Note. *p ≦ .05, **p ≦ .01.

The results did not show a critical change in the path coefficients; the same was true for most of the model fit information (Table III-47). The Akaike Information Criterion (AIC) and the Bayes Information Criterion (BIC; indices for model comparisons) indicated a better fit of the fully mediated model (i.e., SEM II). For these indices researchers suggested that smaller values signify better-fitting models, favouring more parsimonious models (Weston & Gore, 2006). The drop in AIC was 1.11 and in BIC it was 26.45. The sample-size adjusted BIC (ABIC), which is considered a useful tool for model comparison (Enders & Tofighi, 2008; Kenny, 2015; Tofighi & Enders, 2007), dropped by 7.41. Ideally, the variance explained in Fan engagement would have increased (Weston & Gore, 2006), yet it decreased by 3% to 70.2%.

A further option to compare the nested models[89] is a χ^2 difference test (Weston & Gore, 2006). The fully mediated model (SEM II) is more restricted than the modified initial model (SEM I), meaning that more paths remained free to be estimated in SEM I. In other words, in the fully mediated model, all paths directly influencing Fan engagement, except the mediator's, were set to zero, i.e. were restricted. The critical value for a χ^2 with six (= 1289 - 1283) degrees of freedom at $p < .01$ is 16.81. Our value of 7.76 was well below that threshold, suggesting that additional parameters in the initial SEM I did show a superior fit. That is to say, the fully mediated model (SEM II) fitted the data better.

Having shown that a more parsimonious model fitted the data better, we were intrigued to see, to what extent Fan commitment influenced the facets (first order constructs) of Fan engagement (Attendance, Merchandise purchases, TV/Screen, Social online behaviours[90], and Social offline behaviours). By running SEM III, we found that the effects of Fan commitment on the respective Fan engagement behaviours spanned from .31 for Social online behaviours on Twitter (TWI) to .76 for Social offline behaviours (Table III-49, fifth column). All effects were significant at $p \leq .01$.

Due to the model's excellent to good fit indexes and parsimoniousness, we decided to end the model modification at this point. Ensuing, we cross-validated model SEM III using the FRA sample.

4.2 The final structural model

The final structural model is presented below (Figure III-16). It is the product of two model modifications and the cross-validation using the FRA sample (i.e. repeating SEM III with the French data set; n = 455).

---

[89] "Whenever one model has all the same free parameters as does a second model but also has other free parameters not shared by the other model. In other words, the two models are equivalent except for a subset of free parameters in one model that are fixed or constrained in the other" (Maruyama, 1998, p. 235).

[90] Looking at Social online behaviours on Facebook and Social online behaviours on Twitter separately.

The cross-validation showed that the fully mediated model fitted the data well (Table III-47, fourth row). The ratio of χ^2 value to χ^2 DF was at 1.98 and therefore less than the cut-off criterion of ≤ 2. The RMSEA and RMSEA 90% C.I. exhibited excellent values (.046 and .044 to .049), far below the suggested thresholds of < .06 and < .06 to .08. Reasonable results were obtained for the CFI and TFI, both at .92.

Comparing the FRA sample to the GER sample, a noteworthy finding was that Identification with the SPT was the only variable that influenced Fan commitment significantly. Moreover, the coefficient was considerably higher in the FRA sample (.73 vs .49). Surprisingly, neither Trust in the SPT, Satisfaction with the SPT, nor Credibility of the SGB had a significant influence on Fan commitment. Overall, this meant, for the FRA sample, that no variable measured toward the SGB had an influence, neither positive nor negative. The influence of Reputation of the SPT and Trust in the SPT was at .65 for the FRA and at .79 for the GER sample, suggesting that the influence in both samples was strong. Furthermore, Fan Commitment significantly influenced all Fan engagement behaviours, just as in the GER sample. For the FRA sample, the path coefficients ranged from .17 for Match attendance to .79 for TV/Screen consumption (for a comparison see also Table III-50).

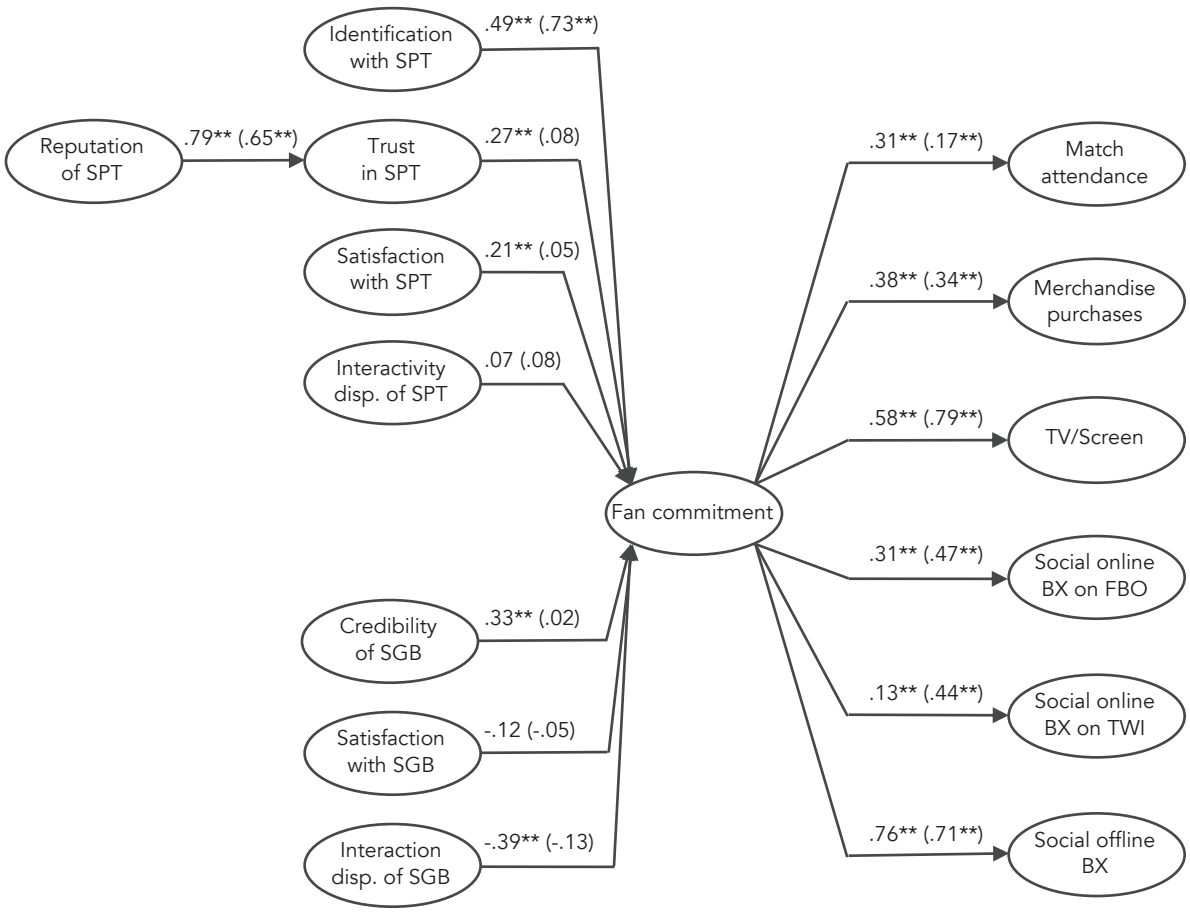


Figure III-16. The final Fan Relationship Management Model

Note. Path coefficients for GER (FRA). SPT = Sports team, SGB = Sport governing body; BX = Behaviour; FBO = Facebook; TWI = Twitter.
*$p \leqq .05$, **$p \leqq .01$.

When examining the explained variance (r^2) of each dependent variable, we discovered that Fan commitment explained up to 62% variance (TV/Screen consumption, FRA sample). For the GER sample, the statistical power to explain variance in TV/Screen consumption was halved (34%). A further vast divergence between the two samples prevailed in the variance explained in Social online behaviours on Facebook (FRA: 22% vs GER: 9%). The r^2 value for Fan commitment was at 65% in both samples. For the FRA sample, this is remarkable since it is only Identification with the SPT that has an impact on Fan commitment.

Table III-50

Path coefficients for the validated final model with GER sample in comparison to FRA sample

Dependent latent variables	Independent latent variables	SEM III		R^2	
		GER	FRA	GER	FRA
Attendance	Fan commitment	.31**	.17**	.09**	.03**
Merchandise	Fan commitment	.38**	.34**	.14**	.12**
TV/Screen	Fan commitment	.58**	.79**	.34**	.62**
Social online behaviours FBO	Fan commitment	.31**	.47**	.09**	.22**
Social online behaviours TWI	Fan commitment	.13**	.44**	.02	.19**
Social offline behaviours	Fan commitment	.76**	.71**	.58**	.51**
Fan commitment	Identification SPT	.49**	.73**	.65**	.65**
	Trust SPT	.27**	.08		
	Credibility SGB	.33**	.02		
	Satisfaction SPT	.21**	.05		
	Satisfaction SGB	-.12	-.05		
	Interaction SPT	.07	.08		
	Interaction SGB	-.39**	-.13		
Trust SPT	Reputation SPT	.79**	.65**	.62**	.43**

Note. SPT = Sports team, SGB = Sport governing body; BX = Behaviour; FBO = Facebook; TWI = Twitter. *p ≦ .05, **p ≦ .01.

4.3 Interaction effects

In this last SEM approach, we intended to investigate if an interaction between SPT and SGB variables had an impact on Fan commitment. Therefore, we reran the final structural model but added three new latent variables signifying the interaction between SPT and SGB variables. These were: Trust SPT x Credibility SGB, Satisfaction SPT x Satisfaction SGB, and Interaction SPT x Interaction SGB. The interaction latent variables were calculated by standardising and then multiplying the respective manifest variables with each other.

The CFA for the FRA sample showed a nonsignificant, negative residual variance for a manifest variable (SAT_SAT3; interaction between a manifest variable of Satisfaction SPT and a manifest variable of Satisfaction SGB). This Heywood case has been treated by fixing its residual variance to zero since its value has been small

and nonsignificant. Fixing this issue, the CFA for the FRA sample normally converged and showed acceptable results as well as the CFA for the GER sample.

For both samples, the interaction of the SPT variables and SGB variables had no significant impact on Fan commitment, with one exception. The interaction of Trust in the SPT and Credibility of the SGB had a weak, almost negligible influence on Fan commitment (Table III-51).

Table III-51

Path coefficients for interaction effects of SPT and SGB within final model for both samples

		FRA	GER
Dependent latent variables	Independent latent variables	SEM IV	SEM IV
Attendance	Fan commitment	.17**	.31**
Merchandise	Fan commitment	.34**	.38**
TV/Screen	Fan commitment	.79**	.59**
Social online engagement FBO	Fan commitment	.47**	.31**
Social online engagement TWI	Fan commitment	.44**	.13**
Social offline engagement	Fan commitment	.71**	.76**
Fan commitment	Identification SPT	.72**	.48**
	Trust SPT	.09	.31**
	Credibility SGB	.04	.27*
	Trust SPT x Credibility SGB	.02	.16*
	Satisfaction SPT	.06	.22**
	Satisfaction SGB	-.05	-.10
	Satisfaction SPT x Satisfaction SGB	.04	-.03
	Interaction SPT	.10	.09
	Interaction SGB	-.14	-.38**
	Interaction SPT x Interaction SGB	.06	.05
Trust SPT	Reputation SPT	.66**	.80**

Note. *$p \leqq .05$, **$p \leqq .01$.

5 PROFILE APPROACH

This subsection is concerned with finding patterns of attitudes and behaviours within the two samples. The idea was to examine distinct spectator profiles. That is to say, identifying groups of individuals that share similar combinations of their Fan commitment and engagement. To do so, we applied LPAs. Furthermore, we investigated which variables (i.e. covariates) of the Fan Relationship Management Model impacted profile belonging.

5.1 Latent profile analysis

As mentioned in the section focusing on person-centred analyses (2.2 Person-centred approaches), latent classes are inferred from stable sets of characteristics (Martinent & Nicolas, 2016). In our case, we wanted to discover latent classes that showed stable sets for six variables: Fan commitment and the five facets of Fan engagement (Match attendance, Merchandise purchases, TV/Screen consumption, Social online behaviour, and Social offline behaviours). This was of interest since the combination of these – level of Fan commitment and complexity of Fan engagement behaviours – determine an individual's spectator profile.

To detect the best fitting number of latent profiles, we followed an approach suggested by Nylund, Bellmore, Nishina, and Graham (2007), which meant conducting a "series of modeling steps starting with the specification of a one class model and then increasing the number of classes until there was no further improvement of the model (i.e., adding another class would result in meaningless classes)" (Martinent & Nicolas, 2016, p. 223). Several statistical indicators were used to decide the best fitting (Martinent & Nicolas, 2016): Log likelihood value, AIC, BIC, ABIC, entropy, and Lo, Mendell, and Rubin likelihood ratio test (LRT). The model that yielded the smallest values on the AIC, BIC, and ABIC, and the highest values on the log likelihood value and entropy, signified the best-fitting model. For model comparison, the LRT was utilised.

5.1.1 Detecting multivariate outliers

Before running an LPA, we checked for multivariate outliers that might distort the profiles. That is to say, combinations of Fan commitment, Match attendance, Merchandise purchases, TV/Screen consumption, Social online behaviour, and Social offline behaviours that seem to be inconsistent with the rest of the dataset (Barnett & Lewis, 1994). To detect outliers, we used the Mahalanobis distance measure and ran it within SPSS (2.2.1 Mahalanobis distance). In the FRA sample, we detected 13 and in the GER sample 14 outliers. Thus, further analyses were conducted using the sample sizes adjusted accordingly (FRA sample: n = 442; GER sample: n = 491).

5.1.2 Spectator profiles in FRA sample

The results of the FRA sample LPA revealed that the model with three classes had the best fit. However, when looking at the statistical indicators (Table III-52) it did not seem this way; the indicators did not meet the thresholds mentioned above. If considering these thresholds only, the model comprising four classes would have been the most suitable. Its AIC, BIC, and ABIC were lower, Log likelihood and Entropy were higher, and LRT was significant. Nonetheless, the three classes model was chosen because the four-class model (as well as the five-class model) contained classes that consisted of less than 5% of the sample's individuals. It has been argued that classes with a very low number of participants are less conclusive (Collins & Lanza, 2013). Furthermore, when comparing measurement models, it is important to consider not only the statistical indicators but also the substantive meaning of each of the classes when interpreting the results yielded with LPA. Thus, to achieve the balance between theoretical and statistical considerations, we used the model parameters to make sense of the classes and decided which model fits best (Martinent & Nicolas, 2016, 2017). Based on the interpretability of the spectator profiles (i.e. the three-class solutions made theoretical sense whereas a fourth class did not add anything substantive to the understanding of spectator profiles) and the LPA statistical indicators, a three-class solution was selected for the FRA sample.

The next best-fitting model was the one with three classes (Class 1: 140, Class 2: 256, Class 3: 46 participants). An illustration of these findings can be found in Figure III-17.

Table III-52

Fit Indices for Latent profile analysis models with 1-5 Classes for FRA sample

No. of classes	1	2	3	4	5
No. of free parameters	12	19	26	33	40
Log likelihood	-4404.07	-4034.32	**-3869.48**	-3693.77	-3580.10
AIC	8832.14	8106.64	**7790.97**	7453.54	7240.19
BIC	8881.24	8184.38	**7897.34**	7588.55	7403.85
ABIC	8843.15	8124.08	**7814.83**	7483.83	7276.91
Entropy	NA [a]	0.87	**0.90**	0.94	0.94
LRT	NA [a]	-4404.07**	**-4034.32**	-3869.48*	-3712.59

Note. Bold entries reflect selected model. AIC = Akaike Information Criterion; BIC = Bayesian Information Criterion; ABIC = Adjusted BIC; LRT = Lo, Mendell, and Rubin Likelihood Ratio Test. [a] Entropy and LRT not available for the one-class model.
*p ≦ .05, **p ≦ .01.

Class 1 can be described as uncommitted, non-transactional event watchers. On average they attended .06 matches and spent close to nothing (€ 0.71) on merchandise per year (2014, 2015, 2016). They almost never engaged in Social online behaviour and, when watching a match, they rarely engaged in supportive match behaviours. Furthermore, they watched three matches on TV/Screen per year only. Their Fan commitment was little to non-existent. Overall, they scored low (0.75) on *relative* Fan loyalty[91] (the maximum relative Fan loyalty score being 4 and the classes' average being 1.97). In the following, we refer to this class as "Flâneur"[92] (Giulianotti, 2002).

[91] This score is relative as it relates to the other classes in the three-class model. The score was calculated as: Fan commitment score plus the mean of the five Fan engagement behaviours scores and then divided by two. Fan engagement behaviours and Fan commitment have been linearly transformed to a scale ranging from zero to four.

[92] We refrained from using the rather generic class designations and labelled each class according to its Fan commitment level and Fan engagement behaviours complexity. Thereby, we drew on spectator typologies which we presented earlier (cf. Chapter I, Diversity of sport consumers). A more profound comparison between the identified spectator profiles (i.e. classes) and the spectator typologies established in the literature will follow in the ensuing Chapter IV.

Class 2 can be labelled as fairly committed, transactionally unengaged, devoted TV/Screen viewers. It comprises individuals that attended 0.2 matches and spent little (€ 3.70) on merchandise per year. They rarely engaged in Social online behaviour, but when watching a match, they sometimes/often exhibited supportive match behaviours. On average, the French national team played 14 matches per year. Individuals in Class 2 watched 11 of them, which is about 79%. Their commitment toward the team is slightly above the model's average, which allowed a categorisation as fairly committed. Compared to the other two classes, Class 2 has a moderate relative Fan loyalty score (2.11). Ensuing, we refer to this class as "Armchair Followers" (Giulianotti, 2002; Harris & Ogbonna, 2008).

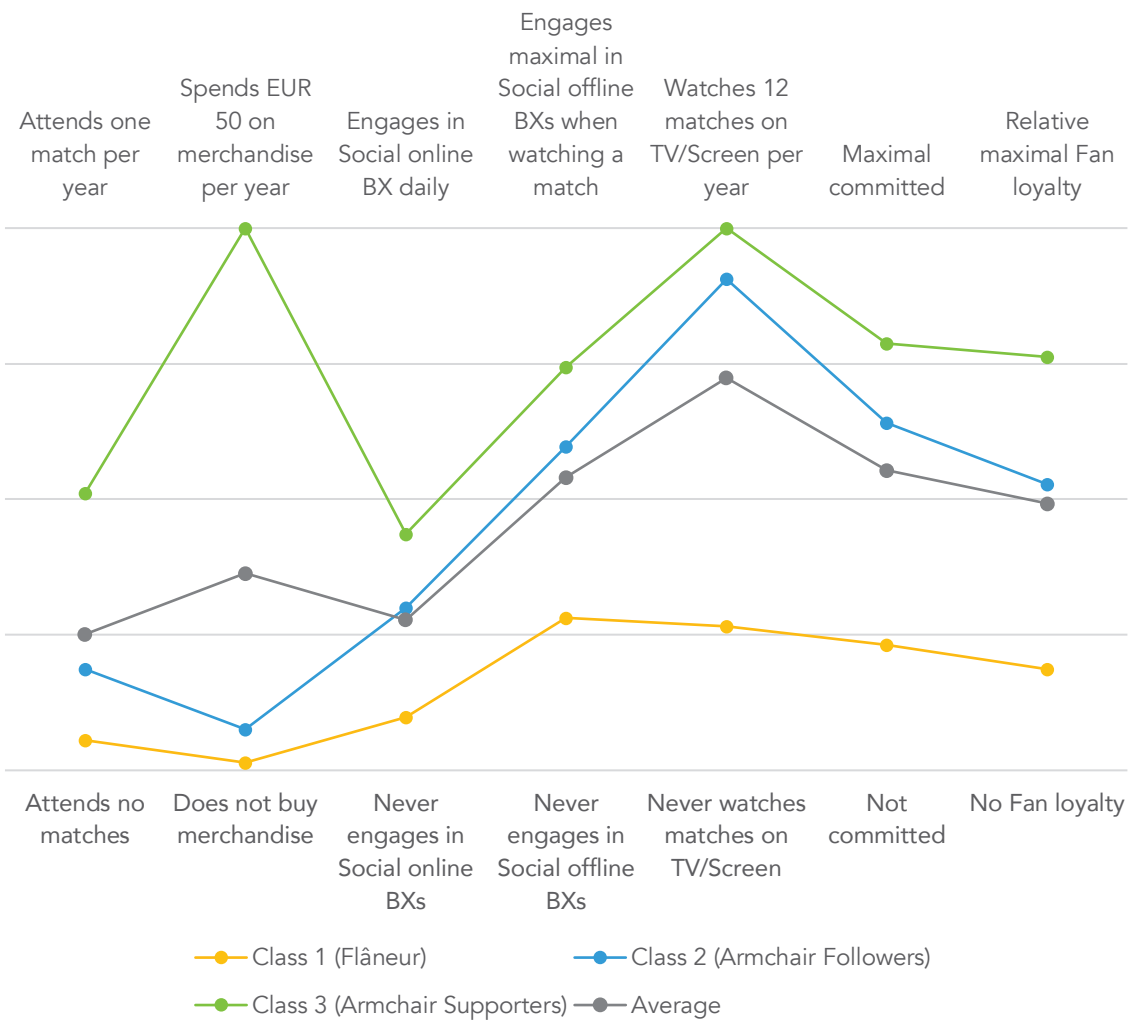


Figure III-17. Spectator profiles in French sample

Note. Class 1 (Flâneur): 140, Class 2 (Armchair Followers): 256, Class 3 (Armchair Supporters): 46.

Class 3 can be considered gathering highly committed, merchandise purchasing, social on and offline, TV/Screen devotees. Each year (2014, 2015, 2016) they attended 1.5 matches and spent about € 50 on merchandise. They sometimes engaged in Social online behaviours and often expressed team supportive behaviours when watching a match. On average they missed two matches per year only. They agreed or strongly agreed that they were committed to the French national team. Their relative Fan loyalty score (3.05) was well above the model's average. Hereinafter, we refer to Class 3 of the FRA sample as "Armchair Supporters" (Harris & Ogbonna, 2008).

5.1.3 Spectator profiles GER sample

The LPA for the GER sample indicated that the best-fitting model has four classes or five classes, as the statistical indicators differ only slightly (Table III-53). Both models included a class that met the critical number of participants only just (5% = 24.55). Since the model with five classes included three with few individuals (< 50), we decided to continue the analysis with the more global four-class model (Class 1: 165, Class 2: 37, Class 3: 24, Class 4: 265 participants). Like above, a Figure illustrates the classes' characteristics on the basis of linearly transformed scores (Figure III-18).

Table III-53

Fit Indices for Latent profile analysis models with 1-6 Classes for GER sample

No. of classes	1	2	3	4	5	6
No. of free parameters	12	19	26	33	40	47
Log likelihood	-5184.62	-4851.05	-4632.36	**-4441.92**	-4369.47	-4271.64
AIC	10393.24	9740.10	9316.72	**8949.83**	8818.95	8637.28
BIC	10443.60	9819.84	9425.83	**9088.31**	8986.80	8834.51
ABIC	10405.51	9759.53	9343.31	**8983.57**	8859.84	8685.33
Entropy	NA	0.98	0.85	**0.89**	0.89	0.92
LRT	NA	-5184.62*	-4851.05**	**-4632.36****	-4441.92*	-4357.78

Note. Bold entries reflect selected model. AIC = Akaike Information Criterion; BIC = Bayesian Information Criterion; ABIC = Adjusted BIC; LRT = Lo, Mendell, and Rubin Likelihood Ratio Test. [a] Entropy and LRT not available for the one-class model.
*p ≦ .05, **p ≦ .01.

Class 1 is similar to Class 1 in the FRA sample: uncommitted, non-transactional event watchers. Individuals in this class did not attend any matches and did not buy merchandise. Furthermore, they never engaged in Social online behaviours and rarely engaged in team supportive behaviours when watching a match. On average they watched four matches per year on TV or Screen, while the model's average is nine matches. Their Fan commitment was weak. Looking at the class's relative Fan loyalty (1.12), confirmed the impression of Class 1 being non-loyal event spectators. Hence, we refer to them as Flâneur.

Class 2 can be described as highly committed, occasional attending, merchandise purchasing, TV/Screen devotees. On average, they attended two matches per year and spent € 60 on merchandise each year. They exhibited the highest level of Social online engagement and often engaged in supportive team behaviour when watching a match. On TV/Screen they rarely missed a match. Each year they watched 11 matches which is just 3 short of having watched all matches played per year. These behaviours and their high commitment resulted in an elevated relative Fan loyalty score. Ensuing, we refer to them as Armchair Supporters.

Class 3 can be labelled as greatly committed, regularly attending and merchandise purchasing, actively supporting devotees. With the average attendance of five matches per year and expenses of about € 55 on merchandise, Class 3 consists of individuals that displayed high transactional engagement in 2014, 2015, and 2016. They never engaged in Social online behaviours, but their Social offline behaviours were higher than in any other class. If not attending a match, individuals in Class 3 watched the match on TV or Screen. Their Fan commitment was almost at the maximum of our scale. Accordingly, the relative Fan loyalty of Class 3 is well above the average and higher than in any other class. In the following, we refer to Class 3 as Supporters.

Class 4, which represents the majority (54%) of individuals in the GER sample, embodies fairly committed TV/Screen viewers with low spending on merchandise. Individuals in Class 4 did not attend matches and spent about € 20 on merchandise

per year. Their Social online engagement was almost non-existent, and their team supportive behaviours were just above the average. Per year, they watched 10 matches on TV or Screen. Overall, the relative Fan loyalty is moderate, which suggested the label Armchair Followers.

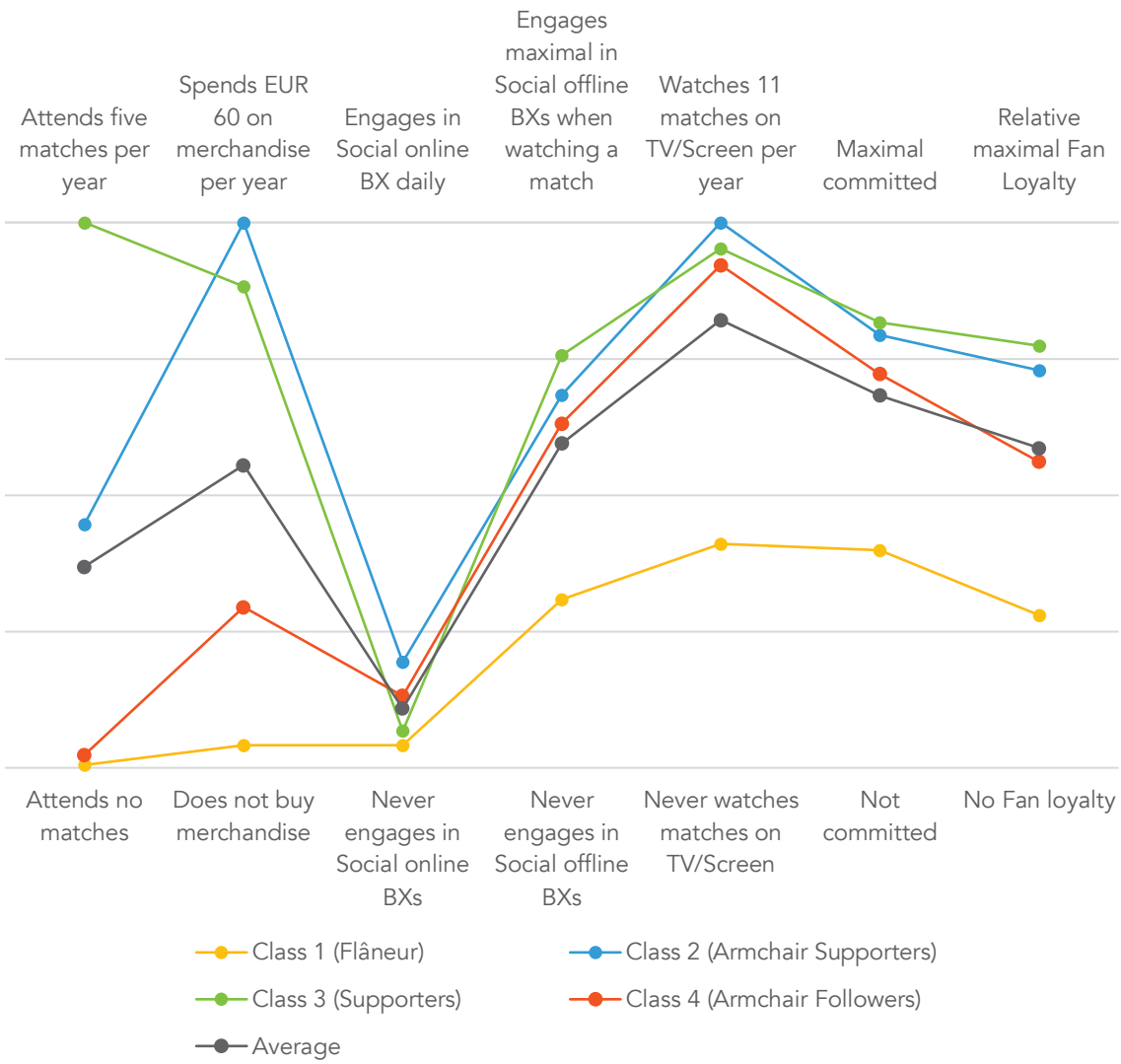


Figure III-18. Spectator profiles in German sample

Note. Class 1 (Flâneur): 165, Class 2 (Armchair Supporters): 37, Class 3 (Supporters): 24, Class 4 (Armchair Followers): 265.

5.2 Latent profile analysis with covariates

After detecting distinct classes within the FRA and the GER sample, we continued the analysis by examining the FRM Model's variables (i.e. covariates) and their impact on class belongingness. That is to say, we investigated the likelihood to belong to a certain class in comparison to another class if the covariate's value increases by one unit on the Likert-scale while controlling for the remaining covariates. The covariates included in this analysis were: Identification with SPT, Trust in SPT, Credibility of SGB, Satisfaction with SPT and SGB, Interaction disposition of SPT and SGB, and Reputation of SPT.

5.2.1 Spectator profiles with covariates FRA sample

Through LPA we detected three classes of consumers in the FRA sample; Flâneur, Armchair Followers, and Armchair Supporters. By looking at the logistic regression coefficients for the Flâneur versus the Armchair Supporters, we found that a one-unit increase for a covariate increases the likelihood to belong to the Armchair Supporters. Noticeable were the results for Identification with the SPT and Reputation of the SPT (Table III-54).

Table III-54

Logistic regression coefficients for the FRA three-class model with eight covariates

Covariates	Logistic regression coefficients	*p*-values	Odds ratio	Odds ratio interpretation
Flâneur vs. Armchair Supporters				
Identification SPT	-2.64	.00	.07	14.01
Trust SPT	-1.13	.00	.32	3.08
Credibility SGB	-1.09	.00	.34	2.97
Satisfaction SPT	-1.37	.00	.25	3.94
Satisfaction SGB	-.71	.01	.49	2.03
Interaction SPT	-1.21	.00	.30	3.35
Interaction SGB	-.51	.02	.60	1.66
Reputation SPT	-1.94	.00	.14	6.93

(Continued)

Continued.

Covariates	Logistic regression coefficients	*p*-values	Odds ratio	Odds ratio interpretation
Armchair Followers vs. Armchair Supporters				
Identification SPT	-.76	.02	.47	2.13
Trust SPT	-.42	.13	.66	1.52
Credibility SGB	-.93	.00	.39	2.53
Satisfaction SPT	-.40	.19	.67	1.50
Satisfaction SGB	-.62	.02	.54	1.86
Interaction SPT	-.74	.03	.48	2.09
Interaction SGB	-.60	.01	.55	1.82
Reputation SPT	-.73	.01	.48	2.08
Armchair Followers vs. Flâneur				
Identification SPT	1.89	.00	6.60	.15
Trust SPT	.70	.00	2.02	.49
Credibility SGB	.16	.28	1.17	.85
Satisfaction SPT	.97	.00	2.63	.38
Satisfaction SGB	.09	.53	1.09	.92
Interaction SPT	.47	.00	1.60	.63
Interaction SGB	-.09	.52	.91	1.09
Reputation SPT	1.20	.00	3.33	.30

If Identification with the SPT increased by one unit, it was 14-times more likely to belong to the Armchair Supporters instead of belonging to the Flâneur (all other covariates held constant). Also, a one-unit increase in the perceived reputation of the SPT equated a sevenfold likelihood to belong to the Armchair Supporters.

The LPA with covariates for Armchair Followers versus Armchair Supporters showed similar results, while the impacts of Trust in the SPT and Satisfaction with the SPT were non-significant. Regarding likelihood to change from Armchair Follower to Armchair Supporter, a one-unit increase in the perceived credibility of the SGB enhanced the chance to belong to the Armchair Supporters by 2.53.

The effects of covariates were less apparent in the comparison of Armchair Followers and Flâneur. Three covariates (Credibility of SGB, Satisfaction with SGB, and Interaction disposition of SGB) did not have an impact on class belongingness. For the other covariates, the impacts were unidirectional; a covariate's one-unit increase resulted in an increased likelihood to belong to the Armchair Followers.

5.2.2 Spectator profiles with covariates GER sample

Within the GER sample, we detected four classes: Flâneur, Armchair Followers, Armchair Supporters, and Supporters. The Supporters are an additional class that we did not identify in the FRA sample. Consequently, the number of class comparisons increased from three to six (Table III-55). To structure the presentation of the results, we started with the class with the lowest relative Fan loyalty score (Flâneur) and compared it successively to the three classes with higher relative Fan loyalty scores (Armchair Followers, Armchair Supporters, and Supporters). In the same logic, we proceeded with the class having the second lowest relative Fan loyalty score (Armchair Followers) and compared it to the classes with higher relative Fan loyalty scores (i.e. Armchair Supporters, Supporters). Finally, we compared the Armchair Supporters (second highest relative Fan loyalty score) to the Supporters (highest Fan loyalty score).

For the covariates in the Flâneur versus Armchair Followers comparison, all logistic regression coefficients indicated that a one-unit increase in a covariate results in a higher likelihood to belong to the Armchair Followers. The only exception was the Interaction disposition of the SGB. Its logistic regression coefficient was nonsignificant.

The logistic regression coefficients in the Flâneur – Armchair Supporters comparison were mostly nonsignificant. Only Identification with the SPT, Trust in the SPT, and Satisfaction with the SPT yielded significant logistic regression coefficients. A one-unit increase indicated a higher likelihood to belong to the Armchair Supporters. Notably, the Satisfaction with the SPT had a powerful impact (it was ten times more likely to belong to the Armchair Supporters if the Satisfaction with the SPT increased by one unit).

For the class belongingness of Flâneur versus Supporters, it was Identification with the SPT that exhibited the highest probability. It this case it was eight times more likely to belong to the Supporters if Identification with the SPT increased by one unit.

Ensuing we looked at the class with the second lowest relative Fan loyalty score: The Armchair Followers. In the comparison of the Armchair Followers and the

Armchair Supporters, just Satisfaction with the SGB showed a significant result. Here, a one-unit increase in Satisfaction led to an almost twofold likelihood to belong to the Armchair Followers (i.e. the class with the lower relative Fan loyalty score).

The results of Armchair Followers versus Supporters were similar. Only one logistic regression coefficient was significant. In this case, it was the Interaction disposition of the SPT that, when increased by one unit, it was almost twice as likely to belong to the class of Armchair Followers in comparison to belonging to the Supporters.

In the case of class belongingness of Armchair Supporters versus Supporters, none of the covariates had a significant impact. It was noticeable that the Identification with the SPT was the covariate that always had a significant impact on the Flâneur versus any other class. That is to say, to move from being Event Follower to any other class with a higher relative Fan loyalty score Identification with the SPT played a key role. To enrich the presented spectator profile insights, we present the relationships of demographics and further individual variables with the spectator profiles (e.g. Flâneur, Armchair Followers, Armchair Supporters, and Supporters) in Appendix H and Appendix I.

Table III-55

Logistic regression coefficients for the GER four-class model with eight covariates

Covariates	Logistic regression coefficients	*p*-values	Odds ratio	Odds ratio interpretation
Flâneur vs. Armchair Followers				
Identification SPT	-1.60	.00	.20	4.95
Trust SPT	-1.29	.00	.27	3.64
Credibility SGB	-.52	.00	.59	1.68
Satisfaction SPT	-1.65	.00	.19	5.22
Satisfaction SGB	-.57	.00	.57	1.76
Interaction SPT	-.51	.00	.60	1.67
Interaction SGB	-.22	.09	.80	1.25
Reputation SPT	-1.71	.00	.18	5.55
Armchair Supporters vs. Armchair Followers				
Identification SPT	.17	.55	1.19	.84
Trust SPT	.17	.71	1.19	.84
Credibility SGB	-.32	.25	.73	1.37
Satisfaction SPT	.72	.28	2.06	.49
Satisfaction SGB	-.65	.03	.52	1.92
Interaction SPT	-.53	.10	.59	1.71
Interaction SGB	-.33	.19	.72	1.40
Reputation SPT	-.96	.06	.38	2.60
Supporters vs. Armchair Followers				
Identification SPT	.48	.07	1.62	.62
Trust SPT	.27	.44	1.31	.76
Credibility SGB	-.10	.68	.90	1.11
Satisfaction SPT	.07	.84	1.08	.93
Satisfaction SGB	-.40	.18	.67	1.49
Interaction SPT	-.61	.01	.55	1.83
Interaction SGB	-.33	.10	.72	1.38
Reputation SPT	-.28	.42	.76	1.32
Flâneur vs. Armchair Supporters				
Identification SPT	-1.77	.00	.17	5.87
Trust SPT	-1.46	.00	.23	4.32
Credibility SGB	-.20	.47	.82	1.23
Satisfaction SPT	-2.37	.00	.09	10.74
Satisfaction SGB	.09	.77	1.09	.92
Interaction SPT	.02	.95	1.02	.98
Interaction SGB	.11	.67	1.12	.90
Reputation SPT	-.76	.18	.47	2.13
Flâneur vs. Supporters				
Identification SPT	-2.08	.00	.12	8.01
Trust SPT	-1.57	.00	.21	4.78
Credibility SGB	-.42	.10	.66	1.52
Satisfaction SPT	-1.73	.00	.18	5.62

(Continued)

Continued.

Covariates	Logistic regression coefficients	*p*-values	Odds ratio	Odds ratio interpretation
Satisfaction SGB	-.17	.56	.84	1.19
Interaction SPT	.09	.70	1.10	.91
Interaction SGB	.10	.63	1.11	.90
Reputation SPT	-1.44	.00	.24	4.20
Armchair Supporters vs. Supporters				
Identification SPT	-.31	.40	.73	1.36
Trust SPT	-.10	.85	.90	1.11
Credibility SGB	-.22	.53	.80	1.24
Satisfaction SPT	.65	.38	1.91	.52
Satisfaction SGB	-.26	.52	.77	1.29
Interaction SPT	.07	.85	1.07	.93
Interaction SGB	-.01	.98	.99	1.01
Reputation SPT	-.68	.24	.51	1.97

CONCLUSION CHAPTER III

Chapter III started with the systematic derivation of the study's philosophical and methodological basis. We concluded that the research philosophy is Postpositivism, the research approach is Deduction, the methodological choice is Quantitative, the research strategy is a survey, and the time horizon is Cross-Sectional. The data collection and analysis are conducted via a self-completion online questionnaire and structural equation modelling. The two populations from which the data were collected were described, being French and German citizens 18 years of age or older.

We presented the measurement of the model's variables followed by the data analysis techniques and results. For the analysis, we used Confirmatory factor analysis, Multi-group confirmatory factor analysis, Structural equation modelling, Mahalanobis distance, and Latent profile analysis.

High correlation coefficients for SGB's Governance and SGB Trust, for SGB's Governance and SGB Reputation, and for SGB Reputation and SGB Trust, indicated that study participants did not differentiate between these three, theoretically distinct, latent variables. Therefore, we formed a new latent variable, with nine manifest variables, labelled SGB Credibility. The CFA showed very good results and furthermore, through the MGCFA, partial invariance between the items of the FRA sample and the GER sample was shown.

Overall, we had to reject nine hypotheses. After testing three follow-up models, we cross-validated the model SEM III using the FRA sample. The cross-validation showed that the fully mediated model fitted the data well.

Furthermore, we did not find interaction effects between the SPT variables and SGB variables, with one exception (the interaction of Trust in the SPT and Credibility

of the SGB had a weak, almost negligible influence on Fan commitment for the GER sample).

The spectator profiles that we identified in France and Germany were quite similar in terms of their loyalty level and loyalty components. In both samples, we found non-loyal, latent loyal, and loyal spectator profiles. These are the Flâneur, the Armchair Follower, the Armchair Supporter, and the Supporter (in the GER sample only). Finally, we investigated the likelihood to belong to a certain profile in comparison to another profile if a covariate's value increases by one unit on the Likert-scale while controlling for the remaining covariates.

CHAPTER IV – DISCUSSION

The last chapter of our study is concerned with the discussion of the findings, the conclusion, limitations and research perspectives. In Section one we discuss the initial FRM Model and to what extent the findings fit or contradict the established sport marketing literature. Section two is dedicated to what the final FRM Model means in theory and practice, i.e. how it advances the understanding of FRM. Further, we present the extensive theoretical and managerial contribution of four spectator profiles. We close Chapter IV with the limitations of our research and suggest additional research projects.

Section One – The initial FRM Model

Little previous research on relationship management in sport investigated the relationship spectators have with the team and further stakeholders (exceptions are Bodet et al., 2017; Ferrand et al., 2012). In order to explore a more holistic relationship management, we developed an FRM Model that goes beyond the traditional sport organisation–sport consumer dyad. We tested it through SEM using a sample of 505 individuals who considered the German national football team "their" national team. Overall, the testing of the FRM Model, that illustrates the relationship quality of the sport governing body–team–consumer triad revealed mixed results. In the following, we revisit and summarise the key results from testing the initial FRM Model. Furthermore, we put our findings in relation to existing research.

The first two subsections follow the same structure as the development of the FRM Model and the presentation of the measurement of its variables. That is to say; first, we discuss and map the two dimensions of Fan Loyalty (Fan commitment and Fan engagement). Secondly, we focus on the independent variables, and thereby we distinguish between the variables influencing the Fan loyalty dimension and the variables influencing trust. Here, a reoccurring subject is the somewhat changed situation that Trust in the sport governing body, Reputation and Governance of the sport governing body cannot be considered three separate variables anymore due to a linear dependency between them (cf. Chapter III, Section Three, 3.2 Correlations).

1 DEPENDENT VARIABLES

The dependent variable of the FRM Model is Fan loyalty. In the conceptualisation and measurement of it, we followed the literature that suggested a two-dimensional conceptualisation (e.g. Day, 1969; Dick & Basu, 1994; Jacoby & Kyner, 1973). Accordingly, we suggested a positive influence of Fan commitment (attitudinal dimension of Fan loyalty) on Fan Engagement (behavioural dimension).

1.1 Fan commitment and Fan engagement

The results showed a strong link between Fan commitment and Fan engagement. A positive and significant path coefficient of .88 at a p-value ≤ .01 confirmed our first hypothesis that Fan commitment to a sports team has a positive influence on Fan engagement. This is in line with theoretical and empirical, sport-specific (Bee & Havitz, 2010; Iwasaki & Havitz, 1998, 2004; Ratten et al., 2011) and general relationship management research (Garbarino & Johnson, 1999; Kumar et al., 2010; R. M. Morgan & Hunt, 1994; van Doorn et al., 2010).

Insofar this result does not add new knowledge but confirms established research and validates the Fan commitment – Fan Engagement link in this particular research environment. When interpreting the strong relationship between Fan commitment and Fan engagement it is of importance to acknowledge the conceptualisation of Fan Engagement as a second-order construct. Therefore, in this case, the Fan engagement combined a range of possible engagement behaviours, such as attending a match, buying merchandise, watching a match on TV or Screen, engaging in social online and offline behaviours. To what extent these fan engagement behaviours are influenced by Fan commitment separately, is included in the discussion of the final, fully mediated FRM Model (cf. Section Two – Contribution).

2 INDEPENDENT VARIABLES

The independent variables of the FRM are Identification with a sports team, Trust in a sports team, Satisfaction with a sports team and Satisfaction with its sport governing body, Interactivity disposition of a sports team and Interactivity disposition of its sport governing body, Trust in a sports team, and Reputation of a sports team. Initially, trust in and reputation of a sport governing body were also conceptualised as independent variables. Additionally, governance was another variable associated with the sport governing body. These three variables had to be combined to Credibility of a sport governing body as explained above.

2.1 Variables influencing Fan loyalty dimensions

In the following we discuss the variables influencing the Fan loyalty dimensions. Furthermore, the relationships are interpreted in a wider research context.

2.1.1 Identification

To our knowledge it was the first time in a sports context that identification was measured as an overlap of self-schema and the sports team schema, thereby conceptualising it explicitly distinct from commitment (T. J. Brown et al., 2005). Earlier, sport-specific research on team identification was mostly concerned with self-perception as fan (Branscombe & Wann, 1992), commitment and involvement (Sutton et al., 1997), or perceived connectedness (Gwinner & Swanson, 2003). Therefore, a comparison would be superficial. However, our finding that identification with a sports team – defined following T. J. Brown et al. (2005) – has a positive influence on Fan commitment to the sports team lends support to research on organisational identification (T. J. Brown et al., 2005). Specifically, our research suggests that the identification with a sports team influences Fan commitment moderately (a path coefficient of .49 at a p-value $\leq .01$). We can speculate whether this relationship is amplified through the research environment (national football teams) as suggested by Bodet et al. (2017).

2.1.2 Trust

The relationship between trust and commitment (R. M. Morgan & Hunt, 1994) or its conceptualisation as a precursor of commitment (Garbarino & Johnson, 1999; Hennig-Thurau & Klee, 1997) can be confirmed only weakly. Although trust is considered an essential factor for successful relationships, in our case the relationship between trust in a sports team and Fan commitment is weak (a path coefficient of .29 at a p-value ≤ .01).

Additionally, we proposed a positive influence of trust in a sport governing body on Fan commitment. The correlation matrix, however indicated that this relationship cannot be tested since study participants did not distinguish between trust in the sport governing body and two further variables that have been measured towards the sport governing body; Reputation and Governance of the sport governing body. As elaborated above, this finding forced us to combine these three variables, forming a new variable: Credibility of the sport governing body, that is discussed separately below.

As for most variables in the FRM Model we suggested and tested a direct influence on Fan engagement. For Trust in the sports team, our findings do not support this hypothesised relationship. This contradicts the results of a meta-analysis of customer loyalty's antecedents (G. F. Watson et al., 2015) and theoretical considerations of this relationship in a sport context (Bodet, 2013; Ratten et al., 2011).

2.1.3 Credibility

The Credibility of the sport governing body is a combined measure of Trust in a sport governing body, Reputation and Governance of a sport governing body. Initially, we proposed that reputation and governance are antecedents of trust in the sport governing body. Yet, it seems like that these concepts and the way we prompted them are too similar to each other. Overall as combined measure, our assumption that these variables have an influence on the Fan commitment towards the team got verified. What we found, and what corresponds to qualitative work on football

supporters (Bodet, 2013; Harris & Ogbonna, 2008), is that the credibility of a sport governing body has a direct moderate impact on Fan commitment (a path coefficient of .30 at a *p*-value ≤ .05). The relationship between the Credibility of a sport governing body and Fan engagement, however, could not be supported in this study.

2.1.4 Satisfaction

Our findings on the relationship between satisfaction with a sports team and Fan commitment compares well with research that linked satisfaction and the attitudinal dimension of loyalty (e.g. Bodet, 2008; M. A. Jones & Suh, 2000; Olsen & Johnson, 2003; Theodorakis et al., 2013; Yoshida & James, 2010). Specifically, we could show that satisfaction with a sports team influences Fan commitment even if only weakly (a path coefficient of .20 at a *p*-value ≤ .01). However, satisfaction with the superordinate sport governing body does not translate in Fan commitment. The relationship between these two variables is non-significant in our study.

Similar to the variables above, the direct relationship between satisfaction with the team and Fan engagement is non-significant. The same holds for satisfaction with the sport governing body and Fan engagement. These findings falsify our hypotheses 6.1 and 6.2 but compare well with research on sport participation services that could not support the relationship between satisfaction and repurchases (Bodet, 2008).

2.1.5 Interactivity disposition

The variable Interactivity disposition and its relationships with Fan commitment and Fan engagement showed mixed results. While theoretically, communication (R. M. Morgan & Hunt, 1994), reciprocity (Ratten et al., 2011), and reciprocal communication (Bodet, 2013) should influence commitment positively, we could not verify it in our study. In fact, the relationship between Interactivity disposition of the sports team and Fan commitment in non-significant, while the relationship between Interactivity disposition of the sport governing body and Fan commitment is moderate but negative.

The non-significant relationship tends to refute research on communication and commitment. However, it might be plausible when acknowledging that we did inquire the interactivity *disposition*, not interactivity or communication itself. Therefore, it seems that being perceived as an interactive sports team is not enough to influence Fan commitment. Interesting insights offers the moderate and negative relationship between the Interaction disposition of a sport governing body and Fan commitment. It is consistent with research that explicitly states the different relationships sport spectators might establish with teams and their superordinate governing body (Bodet, 2013; Harris & Ogbonna, 2008).

Concerning a possible relationship between Interaction disposition and Fan engagement, our study shows that neither the Interaction disposition of a sports team nor the Interaction disposition of a sport governing body have a direct influence on Fan engagement. It seems like engaging in engagement behaviours, especially online engagement behaviours related to communication, are facilitated through other variables like brand love or a desire for integration and social interaction (Vale & Fernandes, 2018).

2.2 Variables influencing trust

Initially, in the conceptualisation of the FRM Model (Chapter II, Section Two – Variables), the variables influencing trust were Reputation of the sports team and sport governing body and the Governance of the sport governing body. After all, and as elaborated earlier, the variables Reputation and Governance of the sport governing body had to be combined with Trust in the sport governing body. Together they form the variable Credibility for the sport governing body. This means, in the following only the relationship between the Reputation of the sports team, Fan commitment and Fan engagement are discussed.

2.2.1 Reputation

Analogous to studies on reputation (Keh & Xie, 2009) and reputation of sports teams (Wonseok et al., 2015), we found that the reputation of a sports team influences trust in the sports team strongly (a path coefficient of .79 at a p-value ≤ .01). Thus, we provide additional support for the importance of reputation in building credibility and trustworthiness (Shonk & Bravo, 2010) and extend the applicability to research on national football teams.

Section Two – Contribution

In this section, we present the theoretical and managerial contributions of our study. Central is the validation of the final FRM Model through SEM using a sample of 455 individuals who considered the French national football team "their" national team. Additionally, we discuss the spectator profiles we identified through LPA within the French and German samples, rank them within a Fan-loyalty-hybrid-form-matrix, and match them to establish spectator classifications. Within both samples, we identified the Flâneur, Armchair Followers, and Armchair Supporters. Additionally, in the GER sample, we found Supporters. We characterise the respective spectator profiles and explore to what extent they are in line with the established literature. Table IV-1 gives an overview of the critical findings and contributions.

Table IV-1

Summary of key findings and contributions

Key findings	Theoretical and managerial contributions
Final FRM Model	
Trust in a sport governing body, its reputation and its governance are hardly distinguishable by sport consumers.	Development of a second-order variable; Credibility of the sport governing body.
A sports teams or sport governing body's Interactivity disposition does not impact Fan commitment.	The actual experience of a two-way communication might be essential to drive Fan commitment.
The drivers for Fan loyalty in France and Germany are highly different.	Countries that seem quite similar (based on Human Development Index and UEFA rankings) do need country-specific Fan loyalty strategies.
For France, from all suggested relationships in the FRM Model only identification with the team has an influence on Fan commitment.	Major contradiction to the existing sports marketing literature. Satisfaction with and trust in the team do not influence Fan commitment.
For Germany, the sport governing body's credibility has an influence on Fan commitment stronger than trust in or satisfaction with the team.	The inclusion of sport governing bodies in FRM is essential. In the formation of Fan commitment, the sport governing body has to realise its responsibility.
Interaction effects	
With one exception, there is no interaction effects between the variables measured towards the sports team and variables measured towards the sport governing body.	The variables measured towards the sports team and variables measured towards the sport governing body do not influence each other. If there is an influence, its direct (cf. Credibility of sport governing body).

(Continued)

Continued.

Key findings	Theoretical and managerial contributions
Spectator profiles	
Identification of non-loyal, latent loyal, and loyal spectators in both countries.	Influences within the FRM Model are different for both countries – the composition of the spectator profiles is similar, i.e. they show the same levels of Fan commitment and Fan engagement behaviour in the respective profiles.
Flâneur	The postmodern spectator collecting experiences with little or no enduring emotional investment.
Armchair Follower	The most promising spectator profile in terms of numbers and unlocking additional Fan engagement behaviours. Fan commitment is high already, which is a superb baseline to trigger more Fan engagement.
Armchair Supporter	A truly loyal spectator that rarely attends matches but never misses a match on TV/Screen, buys merchandise regularly, and shows social online behaviours.
Supporter	A truly loyal spectator that regularly attends matches and is a member of the supporter's club. Co-creates the atmosphere in the stadium.

1 THE FINAL FRM MODEL AND INTERACTION EFFECTS

The final FRM Model is a fully mediated model that illustrates to what extent factors, considered essential in CRM, influence Fan engagement through Fan commitment. This better fitting, parsimonious model is the result of developing follow-up models and validating the theoretically most promising model. Its power to explain the variance within Fan commitment and Fan Engagement is limited, but it revealed major cross-national differences and showed that within the model interaction effects between the sports team and the sport governing body are nearly absent.

1.1 Theoretical contribution

The final FRM Model offers an original perspective on CRM in sport. We consider the holistic understanding of the development of Fan loyalty, i.e. its two dimensions Fan commitment and Fan engagement, an essential contribution to the literature. That is to say, including a further stakeholder — the sport governing body — into the quantitative investigation of a sport consumer's relationship with a sports team is a novelty. The meaning and implication of the results are greatly contextual; focusing on national football teams and national football associations of France and Germany. Two countries that, based on economic development and UEFA ranking, are quite similar. However, the results differ significantly. In a first step we interpret the similarities within the FRM Model and secondly the country-specific differences[93].

1.1.1 Cross-national similarities

On measurement level, we found that the trust in a sport governing body, its reputation and its governance are hardly distinguishable by sport consumers.

[93] We are confident in labelling the differences country-specific, since the MGCFA confirmed partial invariance between the items of the FRA sample and the GER sample. That is to say, differences in the responses are not due to measurement. The distribution of females/males is similar between the samples.

Therefore, we advance the creation of a second-order variable called Credibility of the sport governing body. This concept, which needs further development, might be helpful to measure a sport consumer's attitude toward a sport governing body more accurate.

For both samples, Fan commitment seems to be a good predictor for Social offline behaviours. More than half of the variance within Social offline behaviours can be explained through Fan commitment. Simultaneously, all other Fan engagement behaviours are explained rather weakly through Fan commitment (one exception being TV/Screen consumption in the FRA sample, which is discussed below). Essentially this means that conceptualising Fan loyalty as a self-contained concept in which Fan commitment influences Fan engagement is not the most promising approach, at least in the case of national football teams. Having said that, we did test if other variables influence the Fan engagement behaviours (cf. the first follow-up model) however, the selected factors did not have an impact on the behaviours (a further discussion of this issue can be found below, cf. Research perspective).

Following-up on this interpretation, the purchase of merchandise is explained weakly by Fan commitment for both samples. This might shed light on the importance of national feelings. For many respondents, the indication of high Fan commitment might be influenced by their feeling of national pride. Being a citizen of the respective country might include a form of "civic duty" of being committed to the team that represents the nation (cf. Chapter I – Section One – 1.2.2 National teams and national feelings). In our samples, high Fan commitment did translate into merchandise purchase in 15% (FRA) and 19% (GER) of the cases, although one might associate it with much less monetary, temporal, and organisational investments than engaging in other transactional behaviours such as match attendance.

For the first time, this study tested if a sports team's interactivity disposition has a positive influence on Fan commitment. Our argument was that if a sports team is considered to be open to a reciprocal communication it might strengthen the consumer's commitment. For both countries, we could not confirm this hypothesis.

This could imply that the sole communication of being an open and appreciating sports team is just a basis that needs to be developed. Accordingly, the actual experience of a two-way communication might be essential to drive Fan commitment.

As mentioned frequently throughout this study, one of our research aims was to explore a sport governing body's influence on Fan loyalty. One way to test this was to investigate the interaction effects between factors measured towards the sports teams and factors measured towards the sport governing body. For example, if there is an interaction between trust in the sports team and the credibility of the sport governing body. We showed, for both countries, there are no interaction effects between the sports team and the sport governing body. One exception was found within the GER sample (interaction between trust in the sports team and credibility of the sport governing body), but the influence on Fan commitment was marginal.

1.1.2 Cross-national differences

The variance explained in Fan commitment is exactly the same for both samples, although the factors that influence it vary vastly. This indicates a major difference in the antecedents of Fan commitment and can be considered a striking theoretical contribution. For example, it contradicts highly regarded research that considers trust and satisfaction antecedents of commitment. For the GER sample that is the case, but for the FRA sample it is not. From all independent variables in the FRM Model, whether measured towards the sports team or the sport governing body, it is only Identification that has an influence on Fan commitment. Furthermore, this influence is strong and explains 65% of variance within Fan commitment. As indicated above, the variance explained within Fan commitment of the GER sample lies also at 65%, but here further variables influence it positively (trust in sports team, satisfaction with sports team, and credibility of the sport governing body).

Additionally, the relationship between identification with the sports team and Fan commitment is medium only. The great divergence of between the FRA and GER samples concerning the relationship between identification with the team and Fan commitment might be an indication for different levels of national pride. The French

might view the team and the nation more an extension of themselves as the Germans do. However, when looking at the means of the Identification with sports team measure, the Germans identify slightly and significantly more with their team and the standard deviation is almost the same. Comparing the Fan commitment means reveals the same pattern. Conclusively, for the FRA sample, it might be that the development of Fan commitment is rather guided by the self-schema (attributes and values). Additionally, it might be more stable over time than levels of trust and satisfaction, which in the case of sports teams are often discussed or influenced by the media.

One antecedent of Fan commitment in the GER sample deserves special attention; the credibility of the sport governing body. Our finding confirms that a sport governing body may have an influence on Fan loyalty, at least through Fan commitment. We consider this is an essential theoretical contribution, especially because the influence of a sport governing body's credibility on Fan commitment is medium and anything but negligible. In fact, the influence is greater than those of trust in a sports team, satisfaction with a sports team. This means the endeavour to advance the understanding of Fan Loyalty has been successful. The idea, that it could be fruitful to include further stakeholders in the sport consumer – sports team relationship, is hereby empirically underpinned.

In the GER sample, an even stronger relationship was found between Fan commitment and the interactivity disposition of the sport governing body. However, it is – unexpectedly – negative. That is to say, despite the negative evaluation of the sport governing body's interactivity disposition, sport spectators feel committed to their team. This influence is not helpful in building Fan commitment, although it might be explainable through the high Fan commitment of supporters and their concomitant negative evaluation of the relationship they have with the sport governing body. This finding adds somewhat more detail to a sport governing body's influence on Fan loyalty. Combined with the finding on the credibility's influence, it could indicate that the sport consumers differentiate between poor relationship building efforts of the sport governing body and their conduct on administration level, which might be

measured against moral standards. A negative evaluation of the former does not impact Fan commitment negatively, while a negative evaluation of the latter has an adverse effect on Fan commitment.

Watching matches on TV/Screen is well explained through Fan commitment for the FRA sample and rather weakly for the GER sample (62% versus 34% variance explained). Similar great differences between the two samples are apparent in the consumption of and engagement on other media (Facebook, Twitter). Interpreting these results, one has to acknowledge that the differences might be due to the vast disparity of Facebook and Twitter users in both samples[94]. Furthermore, the weak explanatory power indicates that besides Fan commitment there are more relevant factors that influence Social online behaviours, such as the motivation to integrate oneself and interact socially (Vale & Fernandes, 2018).

1.2 Managerial contribution

The findings on the FRM Model and interaction effects allow us to advance three managerial contributions. We consider these contributions to be a solid foundation for new perspectives on FRM. Later, we enrich these with the contributions on spectator profiles and profile belongingness to advance FRM further. At this point, we need to emphasise again that, although on the outer level the FRA and GER samples, as well as the populations seem, quite similar, many managerial contributions are linked to the respective country, i.e. the advice is country-specific.

For France, to foster and drive Fan commitment marketing activities might be most successful if they facilitate a spectator's identification with the team. It is noticeable that satisfaction with the team or the governing body does not contribute to Fan commitment. Marketing efforts should, therefore, highlight the character of the team and ease the process of finding congruence with the team's character and one's own. In parallel, marketing research might investigate what the most common

[94] Percentage of individuals that have a Facebook account FRA/GER sample: 82%/67%. Percentage of individuals that have a Twitter account FRA/GER sample: 67%/18%.

attributes the spectators are looking for in their national team are. Strategies then should focus on communication that reinforces these attributes and values, while making sure they are displayed by the team authentically.

For Germany, empirical evidence that the conduct of a sport governing body can have an influence on Fan loyalty through Fan commitment should be a wakeup call for sports teams and right holders. Good governance, reputation, and trust are the pillars of being perceived as a credible sport governing body and its influence on Fan commitment is higher than satisfaction with the team. This might motivate sports teams to get involved in fighting a governing body's misconduct. Insofar this is not just an "empirical warning" to sport governing bodies but also an encouragement for sports team managers to condemn mismanagement in their governing body.

Sport governing bodies should not rely on Fan commitment to drive transaction engagement. The high commitment many spectators have developed towards their national team needs to be accompanied by further efforts to facilitate merchandise or even ticket purchases. Similarly, managers should be aware that Fan commitment does not necessarily lead to high social online behaviours. Additional factors need to be taken into consideration, such as spectator's traits.

Overall, it seems that most spectators exhibit comparable levels of Fan commitment[95]. It is the sport governing's body challenge to provide suitable relational offers to evoke more complex Fan engagement behaviours (i.e. non-transactional *and* transactional behaviours; we will develop this in more detail in Chapter IV – Section Two – 2 Spectator profiles and profile belongingness).

[95] 68% of all individuals in the FRA sample show above average Fan commitment. In the GER sample it is 66%.

2 SPECTATOR PROFILES AND PROFILE BELONGINGNESS

In this second part of the contribution, we discuss the implications for theory and practice that follow from our extensive findings on spectator profiles and profile belongingness. We believe they are a strong addition to the existing FRM literature.

The centrepiece of the FRM Model is the two-dimensional conceptualisation of Fan loyalty. Our approach in identifying spectator profiles within the two samples was also highly influenced by the two dimensions of Fan loyalty; Fan commitment and Fan engagement. In contrast to other data-driven spectator typologies, our approach classified the spectators not just on one behaviour (e.g. attendance home matches per season; Tapp & Clowes, 2000), but on an attitude (Fan commitment) and five behaviours (the five facets of Fan engagement: Match attendance, Merchandise purchases, TV/Screen consumption, Social online behaviour, and Social offline behaviours). Overall, this strategy ranks among studies that used behaviour (Hunt et al., 1999; Tapp & Clowes, 2000), the form of consumption (Giulianotti, 2002), and psychological connections (J. P. Doyle et al., 2013; Funk & James, 2001) to characterise or segment sport spectators.

Through LPA, we identified three spectator profiles in the FRA sample and four spectator profiles in the GER sample. It is noteworthy that, except for one profile, the sport object is consumed predominantly through the cold and distant mediums TV/internet (Giulianotti, 2002). This might be a special characteristic of the samples and a decisive difference for research on national-level versus research on club-level. Five arguments back these two assumptions. Firstly, our study did not focus on a "particular type of emotionally committed and strongly identified spectators for whom the issue of the game or the competition is of high importance" (Bodet & Bernache-Assollant, 2012, p. 254). Secondly, the national football team does not have a home ground in a particular city. Thirdly, travelling to (away) matches involves a considerable investment of time and money. Fourthly, the national team competes in fewer matches than teams on club-level. Fifthly, not all national football teams have the chance to compete in "high-profile" competitions like the UEFA EURO or FIFA

World Cup and if they do, chances are small that (1) the competition is held in the national team's country, (2) one has the luck to get a ticket, or (3) one has the recourses to buy tickets for several matches involving his or her team. That is to say, the population of individuals that attend national team matches occasionally or regularly is relatively small.

In consequence, most typologies of sport spectators do not fit this "consumption-reality" well. The availability and accessibility of live consumption – which many of the typologies presuppose to varying degrees – seems not comparable or applicable to our samples. Conclusively, we either create new spectator typologies or partly customise the established ones. We opted for the latter. The work that has been done is a valuable foundation with elements that apply to consumers beyond their attendance.

2.1 Theoretical contribution

Spectators differ, that is nothing new. Through this study, we can distinguish spectators that consume football on national-level through the media in depth, a research area that has not been developed so far.

In reference to spectator typologies discussed earlier, we labelled the profiles. In both samples, we found the Flâneur (Giulianotti, 2002), the Armchair Follower (cf. characterisation of Followers by Giulianotti, 2002), the Armchair Supporter (Harris & Ogbonna, 2008), and the Supporter (Giulianotti, 2002; Tapp & Clowes, 2000). Having mostly adopted or customised typologies suggested by Giulianotti (2002) is not accidental. It was him, who advanced spectator, instead of fan or supporter, typologies. As broached above, the profiles differ on their level of Fan commitment and the complexity of Fan engagement behaviours. In simplified terms; there are those who watch matches irregularly and do not spend money on the team (Flâneur), those who watch matches regularly and do not spend money on the team (Armchair Followers), those who watch matches regularly and spend money on merchandise

(Armchair Supporters) and those who watch matches regularly and spend money on merchandise *and* tickets (Supporters).

To give an overview of the distinct profiles and the similarities between the two countries, we display all profiles within a Loyalty-hybrid-form-matrix (Figure IV-1). By following the quadrants labels by Dick and Basu (1994), the spectator profiles and their respective Fan loyalty levels and hybrid-form levels are distinguishable[96].

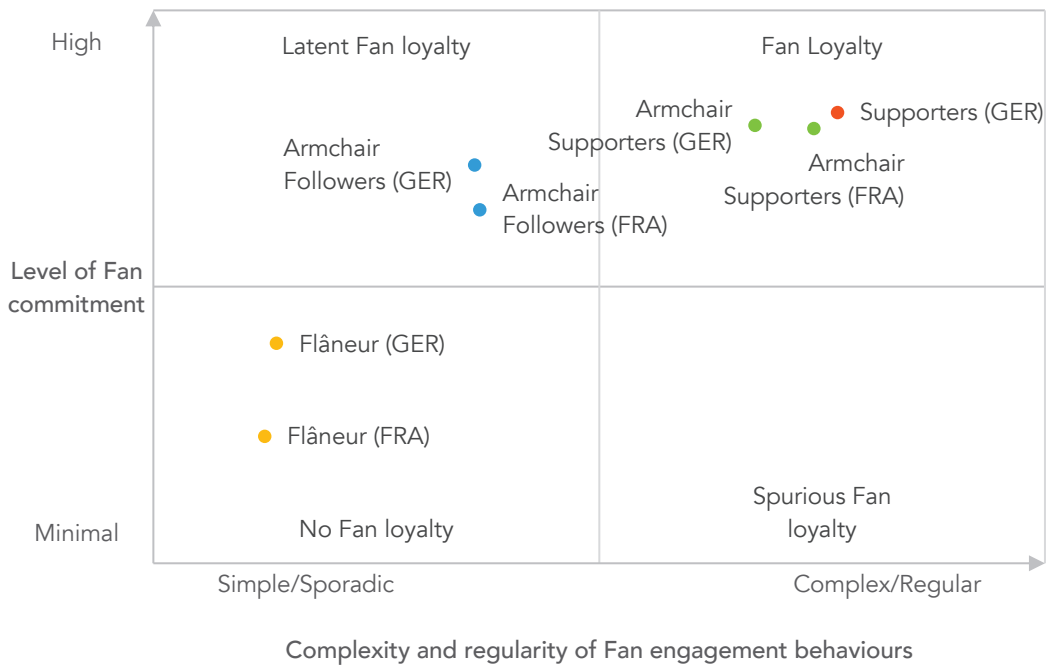


Figure IV-1. Fan loyalty matrix for French and German sample

Note. Flâneur (140/165), Armchair Followers (256/265), Armchair Supporters (46/37), Supporters (0/24).

Overall, the Flâneur exhibits no Fan loyalty, the Armchair Followers exhibit a hybrid-form of it, Latent Fan loyalty, while Armchair Supporters and Supporters meet the criteria[97] to be labelled truly loyal, i.e. they exhibit a favourable and resistant to change attitude as well as repeated team-related transactional and/or non-transactional behaviours. Furthermore, Figure IV-1 suggests that the expressions of

[96] For the ranking in the Loyalty-hybrid-form-matrix we chose the profiles' average Fan commitment score for the y-axis and the profiles' average Fan engagement score (i.e. the average of transactional and non-transactional engagement behaviours) for the x-axis.

[97] Cf. Chapter II – Section One – Loyalty.

Fan engagement are similar between the two samples, but the level of Fan commitment seems to be marginally higher in the GER sample. Between the Armchair Supporters this difference is not that clear. Nonetheless, we can wonder, if this pattern would be apparent there as well if the FRA sample included spectators that fitted the Supporters profile. Ensuing, we characterise the four spectator profiles in more detail by discussing the specifics of their Fan commitment and Fan engagement and linking the profiles to further observation- and data-driven typologies.

Within the FRM Model, we already discussed influences on Fan loyalty in general. In respect to the spectator profiles, we found that for the GER sample, profile belongingness is not influenced by a distinction between a sports team and its sport governing body. That is to say, assuming that if one distinguishes the two, one may hold, and form clearly differentiated mental connections towards the team and its association. However, for the GER sample, it has no influence on profile belongingness i.e. Fan loyalty. Furthermore, this implies that unawareness of the organisational structure of national sport organisations is apparent on every Fan loyalty level. It is different for the FRA sample, here a relationship between profile belongingness and the distinction between the sports team and its sport governing body might indicate that there is a better understanding of the organisational structure dependent of the Fan loyalty level.

2.1.1 Flâneur

The Flâneur has been described as a postmodern spectator collecting experiences with little or no enduring emotional investment (Giulianotti, 2002). Our quantitative data support this description. The Flâneur exhibits little to no Fan Engagement and Fan engagement, whether transactional or non-transactional. Watching three to four matches per year might be an indicator that the Flâneur just watches important matches which are experienced within a group or a bigger crowd through public viewing. It can be argued that these matches might be considered important by their social environment and the viewing is marketed as a social event. This would also compare well to the typologies event follower (Bouzdine-Chameeva

et al., 2015), situational fan, fan by default (Pons et al., 2006), or Big Eventer (Repucom, 2014, p. 5; individuals that follow their national team during FIFA World Cup and/or UEFA EURO only). The situational fan, for example, might watch matches only due to the omnipresence of sporting events in contemporary society (Pons et al., 2006). From the standpoint of psychological connections, the Flâneur can be considered to be on the awareness stage and maybe temporarily on the attraction stage. That is to say, he or she is aware of the sports team, enjoys it as a vehicle to collect experiences and therefore might like it.

Through the FRM Model analysis we already found that, for the FRA sample, identification with the team is the variable with the most impact on Fan commitment. Profile specific that means, if identification with the team is higher, it is 14 times more likely to be an Armchair Supporter instead of a Flâneur. For the GER sample, the likelihood is about three times smaller. This finding adds more detail to what extent identification with the team influences Fan loyalty in France and Germany. Furthermore, sport marketing theory can benefit from this contribution eminently. For example, through the less complex measurement of identification with the team it is a suitable "compass" for determining a spectator's loyalty level without measuring the attitudinal and behavioural dimensions of it. Quite clear for these two spectator profiles, the Flâneur and the Armchair Supporters, is also the impact of Satisfaction. It can be argued that satisfaction with the team is higher amongst those who are more loyal. In fact, being more satisfied with the team makes it ten times more likely to belong to the Armchair Supporters in comparison with the Flâneur (at least in the GER sample). Again, it underlines the differences between the FRA and GER sample, since the likelihood to be in the Armchair Supporter profile instead of in the Flâneur profile because of a change in the satisfaction is five times less likely in the FRA sample.

2.1.2 Armchair Followers

The label Armchair Follower as such is not established in the literature so far. We concluded it might be a suitable label for this spectator profile since these spectators watch matches through mediated channels, a characteristic of *armchair*

supporters (Harris & Ogbonna, 2008) and *follow* football in general (Giulianotti, 2002). However, despite their commitment, they do not create a strong transactional relationship with the sports team, neither through attending matches nor through buying merchandise (these spectators spent as little as € 3.70 (FRA sample) and less than € 20 (GER sample) per year on merchandise). This relational distance is also manifested in their low Social online behaviours. Due to their level of Fan commitment they might have created a stable connection with the sports team – which corresponds to the attachment stage (Funk & James, 2001) – however, this connection is mostly based on watching matches on TV or Screen and engaging in supportive behaviour while watching the match.

For the FRA sample, Credibility of the sport governing body did not have an influence on Fan commitment. However, the profile analysis showed that an increase of Credibility makes two and a half times more likely to belong to the profile of Armchair supporters instead of Armchair Followers. A substantial finding, since it indicates that, although there is no direct influence of the sport governing bodies credibility on Fan commitment, it does impact the profile belongingness.

A further noteworthy comparison between the two samples with respect to the Armchair Followers profile is the role of Identification with the team. While it is the essential factor in the FRM Model for the FRA sample, it plays a secondary role for the profile belongingness of Armchair Followers. That is to say; high scores have almost no impact on the likelihood to belong to the profile of Armchair Followers instead of the Flâneur. In the GER sample, the likelihood is almost five times as high. It could mean that to make the transition from the awareness stage (Flâneur) to the attachment stage (Armchair Followers) the impact of Identification with the team is more important for the Germans (we develop this further in the Managerial contribution).

2.1.3 Armchair Supporters

Armchair Supporters show characteristics of a supporter with the exception that they rarely attend matches live and show a committed relationship that lacks closeness (Harris & Ogbonna, 2008). In fact, they rarely miss a match on TV/Screen,

they spent a considerable amount of money on merchandise (€ 50-60 per year), exhibit the most team-related social media behaviours among all spectator profiles, and show a level of Fan commitment almost on a par with Supporters. Although lacking regular live attendance we consider them to be on the allegiance stage (Funk & James, 2001), they express their consistent and enduring connection just through different channels such as buying merchandise and engaging in team-related social online behaviours. After all, it might even debatable if this relationship really lacks closeness, since they might feel quite close to the team through their online interactions with the team or other Armchair Followers, Armchair Supporters and Supporters.

Noteworthy for this spectator profile is the impact of a high level of Satisfaction with the sport governing body can have. While for the FRA sample it equals an almost two-fold likelihood to belong to the Armchair Supporters instead of to the Armchair Followers, for the GER sample exactly the opposite is the case. Meaning, for France an increase in Satisfaction with the sport governing body increases the odds to be a loyal spectator, but for Germany higher levels of Satisfaction with the sport governing body is rather to be found in latent loyal spectators. A finding that again underlines the differences between the two samples and the influence of sport governing bodies.

2.1.4 Supporters

The list of studies that have used the label supporters or characterised "the supporter" is long. There are casual, regular, and fanatic supporters (Tapp & Clowes, 2000), armchair and club-connected supporters (Harris & Ogbonna, 2008), or just plain supporters (Bourgeon & Bouchet, 2001; Ferrand & McCarthy, 2008; Giulianotti, 2002). The relatively small spectator profile we identified (5% of the GER sample), fulfils several criteria of what has been labelled a supporter. They attend around five matches per year and watch all other matches on TV/Screen. In comparison to the Armchair Supporters, they spend less on merchandise and rarely engage in social online behaviours but show the most supportive behaviours when attending/watching a match. In this way, they are physically and vocally present and might enjoy the feeling of being co-producers of the event (Bouchet et al., 2011). This fits what Giulianotti

(2002) said about the supporter status, that it cannot be acquired through the *latest merchandise* and attendance. All supporters are also members of the official supporters' club and follow club-level football weekly or every other week. The fact that they all are members of the official supporters' club might be an indication to qualify them as club-connected supporters (Harris & Ogbonna, 2008). However, being a member of the official supporters' club could just be for practical reasons, such as getting tickets easier, instead of an expression of closeness to the sport governing body. Overall, this spectator profile can be considered to be on the allegiance stage (Funk & James, 2001) and from a relational point of view, they are more like partners or advocates rather than mere supporters (Ferrand & McCarthy, 2008).

Which of the eight covariates will make it more likely to belong to this spectator profile instead of to the Armchair Supporters is uncertain. The odds to belong to the Supporters profile instead of the Armchair Supporters were non-significant. A finding that could indicate that in the group of loyal spectators, other factors influence the profile belongingness.

2.2 Managerial contribution

For sport governing bodies, it is essential to understand their audience, and sport marketing publications have already contributed to a better understanding (cf. Chapter I – Section Two – Diversity of sport consumers). Our study confirms qualitative characterisations and extends existing quantitative finding. Managers of national football governing bodies can get a unique and extensive insight into four spectator profiles from which we deduce strategies how to make spectators move to more profitable profiles. Figure IV-2 gives an overview of how a movement along the "loyalty ladder" could look like. While it is debatable whether step one and two are on the loyalty ladder since these spectator exhibit hybrid forms of loyalty. It might be more suitable to consider these preliminary stages of Fan loyalty and within Fan loyalty, spectators can "climb" the loyalty ladder.

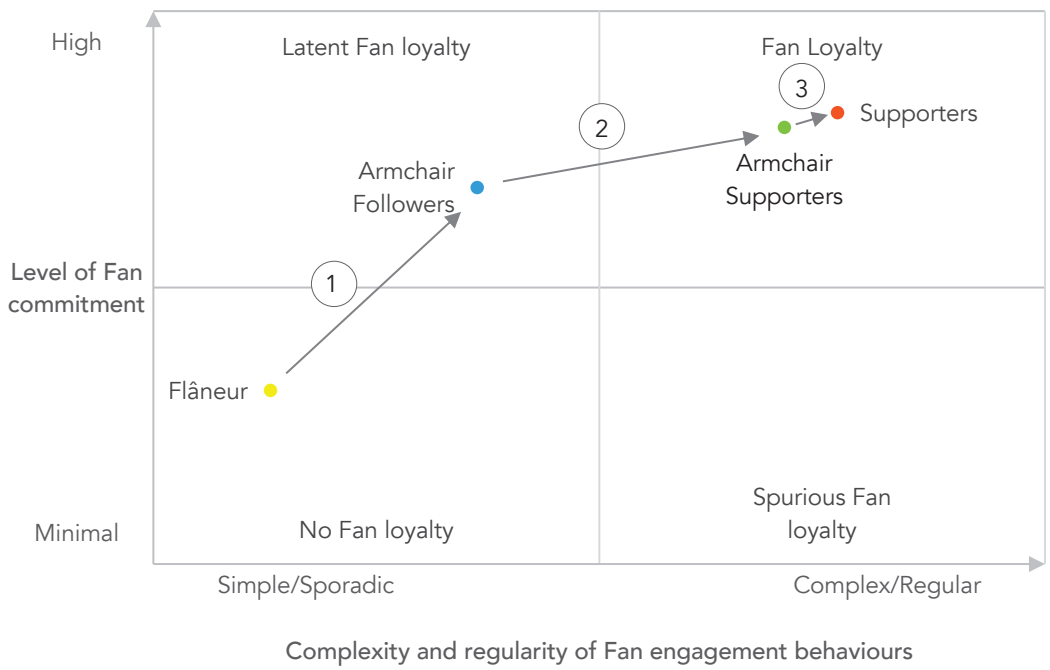


Figure IV-2. Fan loyalty matrix with spectator profiles

Note. The profiles' positions in the matrix are averages of the FRA and GER samples.

For managers, the Flâneur is a challenge. Both Fan commitment and Fan engagement are low. To move them from their awareness/attraction stage to the attachment stage, i.e. moving from Flâneur to Armchair Follower, should start with marketing actions that increase their Fan commitment. As we have seen in the other spectator profiles, more complex and regular Fan engagement behaviours can be expected just from a certain Fan commitment level. Those actions could focus on strengthening the reputation of the team and satisfaction with the team since a high score for these factors, at least for the German national team, make it five times more likely to be in the Armchair Followers profile. For the French national team, the advice is not as clear-cut. Identification with the team is the most important factor for the French to raise the odds to become more committed and engaged. Strengthening identification with the team could be enhanced by, as we have indicated above, highlighting common attributes the spectators are looking for in their national team.

The Armchair Followers profile is probably the profile with the most potential regarding leveraging transactional behaviours. This profile shows a sufficient level of Fan commitment and non-transactional engagement. Additionally, for both samples,

the majority of spectators reside in this profile. Although not evident from the FRM Model, moving to the profile of Armchair supporters is more likely for this profile with high scores of Reputation of the sport governing body, Interaction disposition of the sports team, and Credibility of the sport governing body (at least for the French). For both countries, managers should try to build on the high level of Fan commitment and use the channels on which these spectators already are engaged (TV/Screen) to advertise possibilities to broaden their engagement, such as social online engagement and less expensive team-related merchandise.

The allegiance stage, on which both the Armchair Supporters and Supporters are located, is already the stage with the highest Fan commitment and Fan engagement. For managers, it would be a balancing act to extend these spectator's Fan engagement since they might feel exploited. It could be an attractive strategy to target Armchair Supporters to attend matches more frequently. This could be done by building stronger relationships with them within online communities. These spectators, in both samples, show the highest level of social online behaviours and therefore can be reached and targeted more easily than the Flâneur or the Armchair Followers.

Section Three – Limitations and research perspective

Together, the limitations and research perspective constitute the closing section of our study. Both subsections are equally important to integrate the results into a balanced scientific discourse. In addition, we provide starting points to further deepen the understanding of FRM and to advance the sport marketing literature.

1 LIMITATIONS

In the following, we present the study's limitations. They include the data collection method, sample size, generalisability, time horizon, the conceptualisations and measurements of variables, and the lack of previous studies.

1.1 Data collection method

Collecting data online through an email list, forums, social media and the like has many advantages (cf. Chapter III – Section One – Questionnaire configuration). Nevertheless, to collect data in this way may have skewed the results. Firstly, only individuals with access to a computer, smartphone, or tablet and the internet were able to participate in the survey. Secondly, complications while filling out the questionnaire, for example, due to a bad internet connection, might have stopped participants to fill out the questionnaire completely. Thirdly, and at the same moment the most substantial limitation, within the two samples there were two very successful data collection sources. For example, a French Twitter account, dedicated to football, posted the survey link which resulted in 258 responses in one day. Therefore, it is noteworthy that the French sample might be biased towards Twitter users. Similarly, in the German sample, at least 68 responses came due to the inclusion of the survey link in a supporter's club newsletter. Additionally, more than 50 responses came from members of an academic association in response to an email request.

Overall, as endless as the capabilities may seem to collect data online, the collection was restricted to a few primary sources. Still the samples were quite diverse; however biases through these sources might be possible.

1.2 Sample size, generalisability and time horizon

Our sample sizes were sufficient to represent the populations at a 95% Confidence level and to conduct the range of analyses. However, from our samples' deviations from the French and German populations, we concluded that the samples

did not represent our intended populations, i.e. individuals that are 18 years of age or older and considered the French/German national football team "their" national football team. That is to say; our convenience samples might be a good representation of football spectators that consume the sport via mediated channels. However, it failed to represent the whole population. Due to this limitation and further constraints, the generalisability of the study is limited.

The results are not readily applicable to other countries. As we have indicated above, although France and Germany are quite similar regarding their Human Development Index and UEFA ranking, the results differ in part significantly. We might find similar spectator profiles in other countries however the predictability of Fan loyalty could be much different.

A further limitation could be the demographic differences within the samples. The gender distribution was similar in both samples, but further demographic variables differed, which made an exact comparison between the two countries difficult. For example, while the French sample included 11% under 20-year olds, the German sample included 2% only. Furthermore, the percentage of students was more than doubled in the French sample (32% vs 12%). This was also well reflected in individual income per year. While in the French sample 35% earned equal or less than € 20.000 per year, it was only 12% in the German sample.

The time horizon chosen for this study was cross-sectional. Like any cross-sectional study, the results represented just a "snapshot" and could not capture changes over time. Additionally, causality could not be inferred from the results (cf. Chapter III – Section One – Time horizon). Events related to the two national football teams might have influenced the participants' answers since we relied on self-reported data. For example, when the data collection started in autumn 2016, the French football governing body had just hosted the UEFA EURO, and the French national team played well in the tournament (Runners-up and Antoine Griezmann, a French forward, was the top scorer and best player of the tournament). For the German national team, the tournament was not that successful (lost against France in the Semi-finals) and reports

about misconduct related the awarding of the FIFA World Cup to Germany in 2006 were still present.

1.3 Conceptualisations and measurements of variables

Measuring trust in sports teams can be difficult. While we relied upon established measures, it is debatable whether respondents' trust in the sports team and the sport governing body is influenced by their trust in delivering the expected services (e.g. the national team as an entity, that offers an experiential service comparable to the performance of a stage play; Garbarino and Johnson (1999)). In this regard, one might argue that a sports team and especially a national sports team, representing a nation, offers more than a service. In the same way, measures of the credibility of a sport governing body might have been influenced by the performance of the governing body, not by the actual ethical behaviour (Downe et al., 2013).

As all our measures, the measurement of social online behaviour relied on self-reported data. Indicating the regularity of social online behaviour during tournaments and other times and additionally differentiating in consuming, contributing, or creating online content might be difficult for many respondents. This might have led to distorted data. Also, the behaviours could have been of a negative nature. For example, when prompting social online behaviours, we did not specify the sentiment of the messages a user is contributing to or is creating. This might have led to high engagement measures, but in fact, it was behaviour that constituted disengagement and rejection. Furthermore, we did only specify the platform (Facebook and Twitter) on which one might engage in social online behaviours. That is to say, the consumption, contribution, or creation of team-related content might not have been directly related to social media accounts managed by the sports team or sport governing body.

1.4 Lack of previous studies

Including the sport governing body in a model that ought to explain the development of loyalty towards a sports team was a novelty. The lack of previous studies, that included a sport governing body in the spectator–sports team relationship, made this study highly exploratory. We relied upon qualitative exploratory work and now built the first quantitative contribution in this research field. Additional research will be needed to develop the FRM Model further or test it within other countries.

2 RESEARCH PERSPECTIVE

Our research highlighted the importance to include the sport governing body in an FRM Model and revealed major country-specific differences within it. Furthermore, we found four spectator profiles of which three consume the matches of their national football team through the media. Our suggestions for further research relate to three interdependent areas. Firstly, expanding the FRM Model. Secondly, testing the model in other countries and cultures. Thirdly, enriching the knowledge on the four spectator profiles (changes over time, longitudinal research).

Our final FRM Model is the outcome of three model specifications. However, we suggest developing the model further. We have shown that a sport governing body can have a significant impact on Fan loyalty. Therefore, we suggest that follow-up models should also include further factors measured towards the sport governing body. It could be valuable to establish factors and measures that capture the interactivity between the sport governing body and the spectator better. So far, we have integrated Interactivity disposition in the model, which did not produce the expected significant results. The same might be useful to be measured toward the sports team since more spectators might be interested in exchanges with the team instead with its sport governing body. To some extent the Social online behaviours measures did already assess this, at least for the sports team, however more specific measures might be useful. A possible approach could be to prompt a concept like interaction quality, which assesses the quality of interaction perceived by the spectator.

Further development of the FRM Model could include a mediator between Credibility of the sport governing body and Fan commitment; maybe Attitude towards the sport governing body. This might help to include more factors that are directly related to the sport governing body and have a mediated relationship with the sports team. Additionally, as already Kim and Trail (2011) suggested, one might include non-relational factors that help explaining Fan engagement behaviours, for example, team performance.

Of particular interest could also be two relationships in the FRM Model, at least in the French sample. These are Trust in the sports team and Satisfaction with the sports team and their relationship with Fan commitment. For research theory and practice, it would be highly interesting if these two established factors in the relationship management literature have no relationship with Fan commitment using a different sample.

Testing the FRM Model in other countries and cultures could help to understand the differences between the French and the German samples better. It would be interesting to see if the rather unusual non-significances in the French sample are present in other countries as well. Similarly, it would be compelling to investigate the relationship between the Credibility of the sport governing body and Fan commitment in other countries. We found a relationship just for the German sample, knowing that the German football governing body had governance issues. A compelling case could be to investigate smaller football sport governing bodies, for example from Armenia or Lithuania, where preliminary knowledge about spectators' relationships with sport governing bodies and sports teams is available (cf. Bodet et al., 2017). Furthermore, looking at the results from a cultural perspective, additional research could compare the relationships in the FRM Model in a more collectivist culture like China. Overall, we suggest expanding the research on other sports. We have concentrated on football, the world's most popular sport. However, applying the FRM Model to other popular sports or sports where the organisational structures are less developed could reveal additional insights.

Investigating other countries, cultures, and sports would also be highly interesting regarding the spectator profiles. As we have seen with the French and German samples, while the FRM Model results were quite different, the uncovered spectator profiles were quite similar. That is to say, future research could concentrate on finding the Flâneur, Armchair Follower, Armchair Supporter, and Supporter in other countries, cultures, and sports. Further studies on the spectator profiles should apply a longitudinal research approach to investigate how individuals may change

profiles or move back and forth between two profiles. Especially, fluctuations in the relationship's closeness should be worth investigating, since it might change greatly between tournaments although the attitude towards the team is favourable and stable over time.

CONCLUSION CHAPTER IV

Above, in Chapter IV, we discussed the initial FRM Model, the final FRM Model, the spectator profiles, and elaborated on the study's limitations and research perspective. We concluded that the predictability of Fan loyalty is highly country-specific, whereas the spectator profiles seem to be similar in their composition. Regarding the French sample, we emphasised that satisfaction with and trust in the team do not influence Fan commitment, which is a major contradiction to the existing sports marketing literature. Concerning the German sample, we highlighted the sport governing body's role in the formation of Fan loyalty. Its credibility has an influence on Fan commitment stronger than trust in or satisfaction with the team. The spectator profiles we advanced as an essential outcome of this study are the Flâneur, Armchair Followers, Armchair Supporters, and Supporters.

GENERAL CONCLUSION

The objective of this study was to advance the understanding of sport spectators by investigating the interplay of their attitudes and behaviours within a Fan Relationship Management (FRM) Model. To achieve this goal, we developed, calibrated and validated a FRM Model while acknowledging the elusiveness of the postmodern sport spectator. The implementation of a two-dimensional loyalty conceptualisation as the model's dependent variable allowed us to measure the quality of the relationship. The particularity of the model is that it includes the team's governing body. Therefore, this is – to the best of our knowledge – the first study that gives insights in the formation of loyalty within the spectator-team-governing body-triad.

Overall, a noticeable finding is the similarity of loyalty patterns within the two samples from France and Germany. That is to say, the spectator profiles that we identified in France and Germany are quite similar in terms of their loyalty level and loyalty components. A cautious interpretation is that within the different spectator profiles there is a continuity between countries. However, the variables that predict loyalty towards the team are country-specific.

A prominent discovery is the absence of a relationship between the sport governing body and loyalty in the French sample but the presence of a moderate relationship between the credibility of the sport governing body and loyalty in the Germany sample. In fact, the credibility of the sport governing body predicts loyalty towards the team better than trust in and satisfaction with the team. Furthermore, in the French sample, it is only the identification with the team that can predict loyalty towards the team. All other relationships between the independent and the dependent variables are nonsignificant. Also, in the French sample, no interaction effects between

the variables measured towards the team and the sport governing body could be found.

Conclusively, the study's first research question has to be answered country-specific. For France, the answer to "How and to what extent is the loyalty towards a sports team determined by a sport spectator's relationship with the sports team and its sport governing body?" is the following. The identification with the sports team, strongly predicts the attitudinal dimension of loyalty towards the team. All other variables in the FRM Model do not. This means, loyalty towards the team can be fostered by establishing congruence between the spectator's self-schema and the team's identity. The strategy to achieve this — reinforcing attributes and values of the team which are desired by the spectator — is highly illustrative of postmodernity. It is a seductive controlling technique that uses the spectator's willingness to consume signs that are helpful to confirm or extend one's self-concept even if it includes the juxtaposition of opposite characteristics. It is the manipulation of the purely symbolic world for commercial purposes that creates a hyperreality, which – if managers not carefully hide its artificiality – leads to disenchantment.

For Germany, the answer to the first research question is somewhat more complex. Here, four variables predict the attitudinal dimension of loyalty towards the team positively. As mentioned above, of particular significance is the moderate relationship between the credibility of the sport governing body and the attitudinal dimension of loyalty. In fact, the credibility of the sport governing body predicts fan commitment better than trust in or satisfaction with the sports team.

Going beyond the interpretations already stated, drawing on the theory of family systems could be a worthwhile endeavour to understand — not how — but *why* the governing body gets "dragged into" the sport spectator–sports team relationship. The theory of family systems includes that the smallest stable relationship system is a triangle and accordingly, a "two-person emotional system is unstable in that it forms itself into a three-person system or triangle under stress" (Bowen, 1972, p. 123; J. Brown, 1999).

Clearly, one might argue that it is the conduct of the sport governing body that determines whether or not the credibility has an influence. However, couldn't it be that underlying patterns of emotional systems "force" the involved spectator to include a third party to defuse or detour tension if the relationship with the team is troubled or unsatisfactory? Future research should take up this question and investigate if the postmodern sport spectator tends to include the governing body, or another third party, into his or her relationship with the team if tension arises within the spectator-team-dyad.

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Appendix A Interview Bettany Hughes (BBC Four) with Prof Simon Goldhill (Professor at King's College, University of Cambridge) in Geniuses of the Modern World Season 1, Episode 2: Nietzsche

Hughes (H)

How did Nietzsche come to write *The Birth of Tragedy*? What was he trying to do with this book, do you think?

Goldhill (G)

Nietzsche wrote *The Birth of Tragedy* after a series of incredibly intense conversations with Wagner. Wagner was developing a revolutionary theory of art, where art could transform society. Nietzsche wanted to provide the philosophy for that. He found in Greek tragedy a model for that thinking. Greek tragedy tells these extremely visceral stories of human beings in conflict, suffering, destructive yet it was the dominant genre of thinking about the glory of Greece. Consequently, he found in Greek tragedy a way of talking about the human being today, the human being suffering, finding meaning in life, finding the truth.

H

So, what is so explosive about what he's putting down on the page?

G

Well, Nietzsche structured his book around an opposition, between two Greek gods. Apollo and Dionysus. Apollo stood for light, for the truth of logic, for control. And since the beginning of German's love of Greek, the associated Greece with rationality, the beginnings of philosophy. But Nietzsche decided he wanted to focus more on Dionysus. The figure who confuses boundaries, who discovers ecstatic group activity, dancing, wildness the visceral feelings and he made that the centre of his tragedy. So, he was standing against philosophy, against his own subject, against that sense that logic is the way to truth. He wanted to find another sort of truth another transformative power.

H

But how does he think that Dionysus with all his darkness and as you say chaos sometimes and loss of control, how is that going to help mankind?

G

Nietzsche was reacting against the dominant German intellectual tradition which focused on the individual hero, the Oedipuses if you like. And they saw that the individual who suffered could somehow transcend themselves through suffering. A very Christian message. Nietzsche reversed that. And saw instead that the individual somehow lost themselves in the collective. And found in a group experience an ecstatic transformational experience and that's what he saw in Wagner's music. And that's what he saw in tragedy. So that somehow the suffering, that was every bodies' condition, was transformed through this ecstatic experience into an affirmation of life, this life here, now. It's a bit like that sense of a rock concert. Look at the idea that you somehow lose yourself in that great ecstatic collective experience and once you never forget that opera in the 19th century was the rock music of its time and Wagner was the rock icon of his day. And Nietzsche believed that's a way that society could be transformed through a sense of the collective experience from which you could go out and change the world.

H

Wagner's theatre was a temple to his brilliance but it was also the place where Nietzsche fell violently out of love with his hero. When Nietzsche came here to watch a performance Wagner's opera *The Ring,* he hated what he found. Rather than a place of revolution, the theatre was stuffed with the great and the good of Europe. And the man that he'd revered as a radical, who he thought would catalyse the birth of a brave new world was just a hero of a self-satisfied festival of opera, ravelling in his own glory.

On 2 Mar 2017, at 1:34 am, UK Football Forums - Footie Talk & Discussion [redacted] wrote:

UK Football Forums - Footie Talk & Discussion

[redacted] started a new conversation with you at UK Football Forums - Footie Talk & Discussion.

Survey

I see the guys have been jesting that they think a Scotsman would be interested in the England team, deary me! I did go through your survey though and it looks fine (we get ones that are spam, self-promotion and advertising occasionally).

Post the link to your survey in the General Football section as thats where they all go. Be aware you may not get any responses to your survey as we are getting surveys daily just now and members are getting fatigued with them.

Good luck to you however Frank, hope your project goes well even if it is on the bloody England team. ;)

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http://www.onefootballforum.co.uk/index.php

Appendix C Questionnaire translation (English – French)

Construct/Item	England	France
Introduction		
Title	Welcome and thank you for participating in this study.	Bienvenue et merci de participer à cette étude.
Text	The study is part of a trans-European research project that analyses attitudes towards national football teams and national football associations.	L'étude fait partie d'un projet européen dont l'objectif est d'analyser les attitudes des gens envers les équipes et les associations nationales de football.
	This study is being conducted by Paul Huiszoon, a PhD Student at University of Lyon, France.	Cette étude est menée par Paul Huiszoon, doctorant à l'Université de Lyon, France.
	We greatly appreciate your contribution to this large-scale project.	Nous apprécions hautement votre contribution à ce projet de grande ampleur.
	Please take part in the survey even if you do not consider yourself a football or sport fan.	Merci de participer à notre enquête même si vous ne vous considérez pas comme étant vous-même fan de football ou de sport en général.
	Your responses are anonymous and will be kept completely confidential.	Vos réponses seront anonymes et resteront confidentielles.
	To take part in this survey you have to be 18 or older and consider the England national football team as "your" national football team.	Pour participer à cette enquête vous devez avoir 18 ans ou plus et considérer l'équipe nationale française comme étant « votre » équipe nationale de football.
	To contact the research team please send an email to paul.huiszoon@etu.univ-lyon1.fr	Pour contacter l'équipe de recherche responsable de cette étude, envoyez un email à paul.huiszoon@etu.univ-lyon1.fr
	Using a computer, it will take you about 10 minutes to complete the survey – using a smartphone/tablet it will take about 15 minutes. The survey consists of three parts:	Répondre à cette enquête ne vous prendra que 10 min depuis un ordinateur, et environ 15 min depuis un smartphone. Il se compose de trois parties :
	Part one addresses England men's senior national football team (England national team).	La première partie traite de l'équipe nationale de France masculine de football (l'équipe de France).
	Part two is much shorter and prompts questions about the English football association (FA).	La deuxième partie, beaucoup plus courte traite de questions relatives à la Fédération Française de Football (FFF).
	Part three asks seven general questions and offers the chance to win an Amazon.co.uk Gift Card.	La troisième partie contient sept questions générales et vous offre la chance de gagner un Chèque-Cadeau Amazon.fr.
Conditional Branching	Before you start, five brief questions:	Avant de commencer, je vais vous poser cinq brèves questions :
Qualifier	Yes/No	Oui/Non
CBR_1	Have you watched at least one match of England's national team on TV or on screen in the time period January 2014 to today?	Avez-vous regardé au moins un match de l'équipe de France à la télévision ou sur écran entre le mois de janvier 2014 et aujourd'hui ?
CBR_2	Have you watched at least one match of England's national team live in a stadium in the time period January 2014 to today?	Avez-vous regardé au moins un match de l'équipe de France live dans un stade entre le mois de janvier 2014 et aujourd'hui ?
CBR_3	Have you spent money on England national team-related merchandise in the time period January 2014 to today (e.g. jersey, scarf, cup)?	Avez-vous dépensé de l'argent dans l'achat de produits dérivés de l'équipe de France entre le mois de janvier 2014 et aujourd'hui (p.ex. maillot, écharpe, tasse) ?
CBR_4	Do you have a Facebook account?	Avez-vous un compte Facebook ?
CBR_5	Do you have a Twitter account?	Avez-vous un compte Twitter ?

	Generic Question Titles + Extra Description	
Question Title	Part 1 of 3 Questions about the England men's senior national football team (England national team).	Partie 1 de 3 Questions sur l'équipe nationale de France masculine de football (l'équipe de France).
	Part 2 of 3 Questions about the English Football Association (FA).	Partie 2 de 3 Questions sur la Fédération Française de Football (FFF).
Extra Description	Before continuing to the next page, all questions have to be answered.	Avant de passer à la page suivante, veuillez répondre à toutes les questions.
Non-transactional Behaviour (1)	National team	Équipe nationale
Question Title	Approximately, how many matches of the England national team did you watch on TV or on screen in 2014, 2015, and 2016?	Environ, combien de matchs de l'équipe de France avez-vous regardé à la télévision ou sur un écran en 2014, 2015, et 2016 ?
Extra Description	For each question please choose the number of matches you have watched from the dropdown menu. If you did not watch any match, please select "0".	Veuillez choisir le nombre approprié de matchs que vous avez regardé dans le menu déroulant. Si vous n'avez pas regardé de match, veuillez sélectionner "0".
TV/Screen	[0] – [13]; [0] – [10]; [0] – [13]	[0] – [15]; [0] – [10]; [0] – [17]
TVS_1_1	In 2014 the England national team played 3 matches at the World Cup and 10 other matches. In total, how many matches did you watch on TV or on screen?	En 2014, l'équipe de France a joué 5 matchs de Coupe du Monde et 10 autres matchs. Au total, combien de matchs avez-vous regardé à la télévision ou écran ?
TVS_2_1	In 2015 the England national team played 10 matches. How many did you watch on TV or on screen?	En 2015, l'équipe de France a joué 10 matchs. Combien de matchs avez-vous regardé à la télévision ou sur un écran ?
TVS_3_1	In 2016 the England national team played 4 matches at EURO 2016 and 9 other matches. In total, how many matches did you watch on TV or on screen?	En 2016, l'équipe de France a joué 7 matchs à l'EURO et 10 autres matchs. Au total, combien de matchs avez-vous regardé à la télévision ou sur un écran ?
Transactional Behaviour (1)	National team	Équipe nationale
Question Title	Approximately, how many matches of the England national team did you attend in 2014, 2015, and 2016?	Environ, à combien de matchs de l'équipe de France avez-vous assisté en 2014, 2015, et 2016 ?
Extra Description	For each question please choose the number of matches you have attended from the dropdown menu. If you did not attend any match, please select "0".	Veuillez choisir le nombre de matchs auxquels vous avez assisté dans le menu déroulant. Si vous n'avez assisté à aucun match, veuillez sélectionner "0".
Attendance	[0] – [13]; [0] – [10]; [0] – [13]	[0] – [15]; [0] – [10]; [0] – [17]
ATT_1_1	In 2014 the England national team played 3 matches at the World Cup and 10 other matches. In total, how many did you attend?	En 2014, l'équipe de France a joué 5 matchs de Coupe du Monde et 10 autres matchs. Au total, à combien de matchs avez-vous assisté ?
ATT_2_1	In 2015 the England national team played 10 matches. How many did you attend?	En 2015, l'équipe de France a joué 10 matchs. A combien de matchs avez-vous assisté ?
ATT_3_1	In 2016 the England national team played 4 matches at EURO 2016 and 9 other matches. In total, how many did you attend?	En 2016, l'équipe de France a joué 7 matchs à l'EURO et 10 autres matchs. Au total, à combien de matchs avez-vous assisté ?

Transactional Behaviour (2)	National team	Équipe nationale
Question Title	Approximately, how much money did you spend on England national team-related merchandise (e.g. jersey, scarf, cup) in 2014, 2015, and 2016?	Environ, quel montant avez-vous dépensé dans l'achat de produits dérivés de l'équipe de France (p.ex. maillot, écharpe, tasse) en 2014, 2015, et 2016 ?
Extra Description	Please give your answer in British Pound. If you did not spend anything, please select "0".	Veuillez donner votre réponse en Euro. Si vous n'avez rien dépensé veuillez sélectionner "0".
Merchandise	[0€] – [>990€]	[0€] – [>990€]
MER_1_1	How much money did you spend on England national team-related merchandise in 2014?	Quel montant avez-vous dépensé dans l'achat de produits dérivés de l'équipe de France en 2014 ?
MER_2_1	How much money did you spend on England national team-related merchandise in 2015?	Quel montant avez-vous dépensé dans l'achat de produits dérivés de l'équipe de France en 2015 ?
MER_3_1	How much money did you spend on England national team-related merchandise in 2016?	Quel montant avez-vous dépensé dans l'achat de produits dérivés de l'équipe de France en 2016 ?
Non-transactional Behaviour (2)	National team	Équipe nationale
Question Title	Please answer the following questions concerning your social media behaviour in relation to the England national team.	Veuillez répondre aux questions suivantes concernant votre comportement en matière de médias sociaux par rapport à l'équipe de France.
Social online	[0] *never* to [5] *daily*	[0] *jamais* à [5] *quotidiennement*
FBO_1_1	How frequently do you choose to read status updates or posts on Facebook that are related to the England national team when the team is participating in a tournament (e.g. FIFA-World Cup, UEFA-Euro)?	À quelle fréquence lisez-vous activement les mises à jour de statut ou les messages sur Facebook qui sont liés à l'équipe de France lorsque l'équipe participe à un tournoi (p.ex. FIFA-Coupe du Monde, UEFA-Euro) ?
Probing_F1	And how frequently are you doing this if neither a FIFA-World Cup, nor any other tournament is taking place?	Et à quelle fréquence faites-vous cela en dehors de tournois majeurs comme la Coupe du Monde ou le Championnat d'Europe ?
FBO_2_1	How frequently do you like or share content on Facebook that is related to the England national team when the team is participating in a tournament (e.g. FIFA-World Cup, UEFA-Euro)?	À quelle fréquence aimez-vous ou partagez-vous du contenu sur Facebook qui est liés à l'équipe de France lorsque l'équipe participe à un tournoi (p.ex. FIFA-Coupe du Monde, UEFA-Euro) ?
Probing_F2	cf. Probing_F1	cf. Probing_F1
FBO_3_1	How frequently do you comment on posts on Facebook that are related to the England national team when the team is participating in a tournament (e.g. FIFA-World Cup, UEFA-Euro)?	Combien de fois faites-vous des commentaires sur Facebook qui sont liés à l'équipe de France lorsque l'équipe participe à un tournoi (p.ex. FIFA-Coupe du Monde, UEFA-Euro) ?
Probing_F3	cf. Probing_F1	cf. Probing_F1
FBO_4_1	How frequently do you post something on Facebook that is related to the England national team when the team is participating in a tournament (e.g. FIFA-World Cup, UEFA-Euro)?	Combien de fois postez-vous quelque chose sur Facebook qui est liés à l'équipe de France lorsque l'équipe participe à un tournoi (p.ex. FIFA-Coupe du Monde, UEFA-Euro) ?
Probing_F4	cf. Probing_F1	cf. Probing_F1
TWI_1_1	How frequently do you choose to read tweets that are related to the England national team when the team is participating in a tournament (e.g. FIFA-World Cup, UEFA-Euro)?	À quelle fréquence lisez-vous activement des tweets qui sont liés à l'équipe de France lorsque l'équipe participe à un tournoi (p.ex. FIFA-Coupe du Monde, UEFA-Euro) ?
Probing_T1	cf. Probing_F1	cf. Probing_F1
TWI_2_1	How frequently do you like or retweet something on Twitter that is related to the England national team when the team is participating in a tournament (e.g. FIFA-World Cup, UEFA-Euro)?	À quelle fréquence aimez-vous ou retweetez-vous quelque chose qui est liés à l'équipe de France lorsque l'équipe participe à un tournoi (p.ex. FIFA-Coupe du Monde, UEFA-Euro) ?
Probing_T2	cf. Probing_F1	cf. Probing_F1
TWI_3_1	How frequently do you tweet something on Twitter that is related to the England national team when the team is participating in a tournament (e.g. FIFA-World Cup, UEFA-Euro)?	Combien de fois avez-vous twitter quelque chose qui est liés à l'équipe de France lorsque l'équipe participe à un tournoi (p.ex. FIFA-Coupe du Monde, UEFA-Euro) ?
Probing_T3	cf. Probing_F1	cf. Probing_F1

Non-transactional behaviour (3)	National team	Équipe nationale
Question Title	Please indicate your appropriate frequency to the following statements.	Veuillez indiquer votre fréquence appropriée aux énoncés suivants.
Extra Description	When watching matches of the England national team (in the stadium, on TV, or on screen),	Lorsque je regarde les matchs de l'équipe de France (dans le stade, sur la télévision ou sur l'écran), …
Social offline	[1] *never to* [5] *always*	[1] *jamais* [5] *toujours*
SOF_1_1	I interact with other spectators to talk face to face about issues related to the England national team.	j'échange avec d'autres spectateurs sur des questions relatives à l'équipe de France.
SOF_2_1	I encourage others to support the England national team.	j'encourage les autres à soutenir l'équipe de France.
SOF_3_1	I support the England national team through singing, clapping, cheering, etc.	je soutiens l'équipe de France en chantant, applaudissant, acclamant, etc.

Question Title	Please indicate your level of agreement to the following statements.	Veuillez indiquer votre désaccord ou accord sur les énoncés suivants.
Commitment	National team	Équipe nationale
	[1] *strongly disagree to* [5] *strongly agree*	[1] *totalement en désaccord* à [5] *totalement d'accord*
COM_1_1	I am committed to my relationship with the England national team.	Je suis engagé dans mon lien avec l'équipe de France.
COM_2_1	I really care about maintaining my relationship with the England national team.	Je me soucie d'entretenir un lien avec l'équipe de France.
COM_3_1	The relationship that I have with the England national team is something I am very committed to.	Le rapport que j'ai avec l'équipe de France est quelque chose qui me tient à cœur.
COM_4_1	I would watch the England national team regardless of which team they were playing against at that time.	Je regarderais jouer l'équipe de France quel que soit son adversaire.
COM_5_1	I would watch the England national team regardless of whether they are playing a tournament (e.g. FIFA-World Cup, UEFA-Euro) or not.	Je regarderais jouer l'équipe de France indépendamment du fait qu'elle joue un tournoi (p.ex. FIFA-Coupe du Monde, l'UEFA Euro) ou non.
Attitude	The football association (FA)	Fédération française de football (FFF)
	[1] *strongly disagree to* [5] *strongly agree*	[1] *totalement en désaccord* à [5] *totalement d'accord*
ATI_1_2	I feel positive when I think about the FA.	J'éprouve des sentiments positifs lorsque je pense à la FFF.
ATI_2_2	I like the FA as an organisation.	J'apprécie la FFF en tant qu'organisation.
ATI_3_2	I think the FA is a good organisation.	Je pense que la FFF est une bonne organisation.
Trust	National team	Équipe nationale
	[1] *strongly disagree to* [5] *strongly agree*	[1] *totalement en désaccord* à [5] *totalement d'accord*
TRU_1_1	The leadership of the England national team (e.g. captain, coach, team manager) can be trusted.	La direction de l'équipe de France (p.ex. capitaine, entraîneur, manager de l'équipe) est digne de confiance.
TRU_2_1	The leadership of the England national team (e.g. captain, coach, team manager) can be counted on to do what is right.	On peut compter sur la direction de l'équipe de France (p.ex. capitaine, entraîneur, manager de l'équipe) pour faire ce qui est juste.
TRU_3_1	The leadership of the England national team (e.g. captain, coach, team manager) has high integrity.	La direction de l'équipe de France (p.ex. capitaine, entraîneur, manager de l'équipe) fait preuve d'une grande intégrité.

	FA	FFF
	[1] *strongly disagree to* [5] *strongly agree*	[1] *totalement en désaccord* à [5] *totalement d'accord*
TRU_1_2	The board of the FA can be trusted.	Le conseil d'administration de la FFF est digne de confiance.
TRU_2_2	The board of the FA can be counted on to do what is right.	On peut compter sur le conseil d'administration de la FFF pour faire ce qui est juste.
TRU_3_2	The board of the FA has high integrity.	Le conseil d'administration de la FFF fait preuve d'une grande intégrité.
Knowledge	National team	Équipe nationale
	[1] *strongly disagree to* [5] *strongly agree*	[1] *totalement en désaccord* à [5] *totalement d'accord*
KNO_1_1	I know a lot about the England national team.	Je connais beaucoup de choses à propos de l'équipe de France.
KNO_2_1	If I were to list everything I knew about the England national team, the list would be quite long.	Si je devais énumérer tout ce que je sais au sujet de l'équipe de France, la liste serait assez longue.
KNO_3_1	I consider myself an expert about the England national team.	Je me considère comme un expert de l'équipe de France.
	FA	FFF
	[1] *strongly disagree to* [5] *strongly agree*	[1] *totalement en désaccord* à [5] *totalement d'accord*
KNO_1_2	I know a lot about the FA.	Je connais beaucoup de choses à propos de la FFF.
KNO_2_2	If I were to list everything I knew about the FA, the list would be quite long.	Si je devais énumérer tout ce que je sais au sujet de la FFF, la liste serait assez longue.
KNO_3_2	I consider myself an expert about the FA.	Je me considère comme un expert au sujet de la FFF.
Interactivity	National team	Équipe nationale
	[1] *strongly disagree to* [5] *strongly agree*	[1] *totalement en désaccord* à [5] *totalement d'accord*
INT_1_1	I believe that the England national team appreciates the fans' input on its social media channels.	Je crois que l'équipe de France apprécie l'apport des fans sur ses pages de réseaux sociaux.
INT_2_1	In my opinion, the communication channels of the England national team enable a two-way communication between fans and the team.	À mon avis, les modes de communication de l'équipe de France permettent un échange entre les fans et l'équipe.
INT_3_1	I think the England national team is interested in interacting with its fans.	Je pense que l'équipe de France est intéressée par les échanges avec ses fans.
	FA	FFF
	[1] *strongly disagree to* [5] *strongly agree*	[1] *totalement en désaccord* à [5] *totalement d'accord*
INT_1_2	I believe that the FA appreciates the fans' input on its social media channels.	Je crois que la FFF apprécie l'apport des fans sur ses pages de réseaux sociaux.
INT_2_2	In my opinion, the communication channels of the FA enable a two-way communication between fans and the association.	À mon avis, les modes de communication de la FFF permettent un échange entre les fans et l'association.
INT_3_2	I think that the FA is interested in interacting with individuals outside the association.	Je pense que la FFF est intéressée par les échanges avec des personnes en dehors de l'organisation.
Reputation	National team	Équipe nationale
	[1] *strongly disagree to* [5] *strongly agree*	[1] *totalement en désaccord* à [5] *totalement d'accord*
REP_1_1	The England national team has a positive image.	L'équipe de France a une bonne réputation.
REP_2_1	If I were asked to describe the image of the England national team I would say positive things.	Si l'on me demandait de décrire l'image de l'équipe de France, je dirais des choses positives.
REP_3_1	The England national team has an image that I like.	L'équipe de France a une réputation qui me plaît.

	NFA	FFF
	[1] *strongly disagree to* [5] *strongly agree*	[1] *totalement en désaccord* à [5] *totalement d'accord*
REP_1_2	The FA has a positive image.	La FFF a une bonne réputation
REP_2_2	If I were asked to describe the image of the FA I would say positive things.	Si l'on me demandait de décrire l'image de la FFF, je dirais des choses positives.
REP_3_2	The FA has an image that I like.	La FFF a une réputation qui me plaît.
Governance	FA only	FFF only
	[1] *strongly disagree to* [5] *strongly agree*	[1] *totalement en désaccord* à [5] *totalement d'accord*
GOV_1_2	The conduct of the FA is led by high ethical standards.	La conduite de la FFF est dirigée par des normes éthiques élevées.
GOV_2_2	Confronted with scandals, the FA is dedicated to a full clearance of it.	Face aux scandales et controverses, la FFF démontre un engagement total à les éradiquer ou les solutionner.
GOV_3_2	The FA is managed responsibly.	La FFF est gérée de façon responsable.
Identification	National team only	Équipe nationale only
Question Title	Please select one of the four following images.	Veuillez sélectionner l'une des quatre images suivantes.
	[1] *A to* [5] *E*	[1] *A* à [5] *E*
IDE_1_1	The blue circle represents your identity (e.g. attributes and values). The white circle represents the identity of the England national team. Which of the following set of circles (A, B, C, D, or E) represents best, how much your identity and the England national team's identity overlap?	Le cercle bleu représente votre identité (i.e. caractéristiques et valeurs). Le cercle blanc représente l'identité de l'équipe de France. Veuillez indiquer quel cas (A, B, C, D ou E) décrit le mieux le niveau de correspondance entre votre identité et celle de l'équipe de France.
Question Title	Please complete the ensuing sentence by selecting one of the five answer options.	Veuillez compléter la phrase suivante en sélectionnant l'une des cinq réponses possibles.
	[1] *not at all to* [5] *completely*	[1] *pas du tout* à [5] *complet*
IDE_2_1	The way I see myself overlaps _____ with everything the England national team stands for.	La façon dont je me vois correspond _____ avec tout ce que l'équipe de France représente.
Question Title	Please indicate your level satisfaction.	Veuillez indiquer votre niveau d'insatisfaction ou de satisfaction.
Satisfaction	National team	Équipe nationale
	[1] *very unsatisfied to* [5] *very satisfied*	[1] *très insatisfait à* [5] *très satisfait*
SAT_1_1	Considering the last 12 months, how satisfied are you with the players' behaviours of the England national team?	En ce qui concerne les 12 derniers mois, êtes-vous satisfait du comportement des joueurs de l'équipe de France ?
SAT_2_1	Based on you experiences in the last 12 months, how satisfied are you with the quality of the England national team's matches?	Sur la base de votre expérience au cours des 12 derniers mois, êtes-vous satisfait de la qualité de jeu de l'équipe de France ?
SAT_3_1	Considering the last 12 months, how satisfied are you with the England national team?	Au cours des 12 derniers mois, êtes-vous satisfait de l'équipe de France ?
	FA	FFF
	[1] *very unsatisfied to* [5] *very satisfied*	[1] *très insatisfait à* [5] *très satisfait*
SAT_1_2	Based on your experiences in the last 12 months, how satisfied are you with the work of the FA?	Sur la base de votre expérience au cours des 12 derniers mois, êtes-vous satisfait du travail de la FFF ?
SAT_2_2	Compared to other, similar sport associations, how would you rate your satisfaction with the work of the FA?	En comparaison avec d'autres fédérations sportives françaises similaires, êtes-vous satisfait du travail de la FFF ?
SAT_3_2	In general, how satisfied are you with the work of the FA?	En général, êtes-vous satisfait du travail de la FFF ?

Further variables	National team	Équipe nationale
Question Title	Please answer the following questions with yes or no.	Veuillez répondre aux questions suivantes par oui ou non.
	Yes/No	*Oui/Non*
OSC	Are you member of the official England national team supporters' club?	Êtes-vous membre du club des supporters officiel de l'équipe de France ?
USC	Are you a member of any England national team football supporters' club?	Êtes-vous membre d'un club des supporters de l'Equipe de France de football ?
SCL	Are you a supporters' club member of a Premier League team?	Êtes-vous membre d'un club des supporters d'une équipe de Ligue 1 ?
APM	Are you an active (playing) member of a local football club?	Êtes-vous un (joueur) membre actif d'un club de football local ?
PNM	Are you a passive (non-playing) member of a local football club?	Êtes-vous un membre (non-joueur) d'un club de football local ?
FWA	Are you playing football on a regular basis without affiliation to a local football club?	Jouez-vous au football régulièrement, sans affiliation à un club de football local ?
DIS	In your opinion, are the England national team and the English football association one and the same thing?	À votre avis, l'équipe de France et la FFF sont-elles une seule et même chose ?
Further variables	National team	Équipe nationale
	[1] *never* to [5] *weekly*	[1] *jamais* à [5] *chaque semaine*
RFL	During a Premier League season, how regularly do you watch Premier League matches (either live in the stadium, on TV or on screen)?	Au cours d'une saison de Ligue 1, à quelle fréquence regardez-vous des matchs de Ligue 1 (indépendamment au stade, à la télévision ou sur écran) ?

Generic Question Titles + Extra Description		
Question Title	Part 3 of 3 General questions.	Partie 3 de 3 Questions générales.
Extra Description	Before submitting, all general questions have to be answered. Whereby, there is always a "Prefer not to answer" option.	Avant de soumettre, toutes les questions générales doivent être renseignées. Il y a toujours une option "préfère ne pas répondre".
Demographics		
	Please answer the following general questions.	Veuillez répondre aux questions générales suivantes.
GEN	Please indicate your gender.	Veuillez indiquer votre sexe.
	Male	Homme
	Female	Femme
	Other	Autre
	Prefer not to answer.	Préfère ne pas répondre.
AGE	Please indicate your age.	Veuillez indiquer votre âge.
	Prefer not to answer. l 18- >99 drop down	Préfère ne pas répondre. l 18- >99 drop down
EDA	Please indicate your highest education attained.	Veuillez indiquer le dernier diplôme que vous avez obtenu.
	ISCED levels	ISCED levels
	Other	Autre
	Prefer not to answer.	Préfère ne pas répondre.

EMS	Please indicate your employment situation.	Veuillez indiquer votre situation professionnelle.
	Employed Full-Time	Employé à temps complet
	Employed Part-Time	Employé à temps partiel
	Self-employed	Travailleur indépendant
	Unoccupied	Sans emploi
	Homemaker	Femme/Homme au foyer
	Retired	Retraité
	Student	Étudiant/Étudiante
	Apprentice	Apprenti
	Other	Autre
	Prefer not to answer.	Préfère ne pas répondre.
INI	Please indicate your annual individual income.	Veuillez indiquer votre revenu annuel individuel.
	Categories £ | Prefer not to answer.	Catégories € | Préfère ne pas répondre.
COR	Is your main place of residence in England?	Est-ce que votre lieu de résidence principale se situe en France ?
	Yes | No | Prefer not to answer.	Oui | Non | Préfère ne pas répondre.
POS	Please indicate your postcode.	Veuillez indiquer votre code postal.
	Text field | Prefer not to answer.	Champ de texte | Préfère ne pas répondre.
Lottery + Follow up		
Question Title	Have the chance to win an Amazon.co.uk Gift Card (2x£ 25) by leaving your email address.	Si vous voulez tenter de gagner un chèque-cadeau sur Amazon.fr (2x25€), merci de donner une adresse e-mail valide.
	All information to this section is optional.	Toutes les informations dans ce domaine sont en option.
Extra Description	If you elect to participate in the draw, your survey responses will not be anonymous, but they will be confidential. The winners will be contacted by February 2017.	Si vous choisissez de participer au tirage au sort, vos réponses ne seront pas anonymes, mais elles seront confidentielles. Les gagnants seront contactés d'ici Février 2017.
	Your email address will not be shared with a third party, nor will it be sold or used for advertising purposes.	Votre adresse e-mail ne sera pas partagée avec un tiers, ni vendue ou utilisée à des fins publicitaires.
Email	Please enter your email address.	Veuillez entrer votre adresse e-mail.
Follow up	If you have entered your email address: May I send you a follow-up survey in May 2017?	Si vous avez entrés votre adresse e-mail : Acceptez-vous que nous vous envoyions une enquête de suivi en mai 2017 ?
Thanks	Thank you so much!	Merci beaucoup !
Extra	Now please hit the "Submit" button.	Maintenant, s'il vous plaît, cliquez sur le bouton « Soumettre ».

Settings: Pages/Messages: Generic Messages, Errors Warnings, Buttons & Input

Thank you page		
Text	Thank you for taking the time to complete this survey.	Merci d'avoir pris le temps de remplir ce questionnaire.
	If you have concerns or questions about this study, please contact Paul Huiszoon at paul.huiszoon@etu.univ-lyon1.fr.	Si vous avez des questions ou des préoccupations au sujet de cette étude, veuillez contacter Paul Huiszoon à paul.huiszoon@etu.univ-lyon1.fr.
	Please share this survey by selecting one of the buttons below.	Veuillez partager cette enquête en sélectionnant l'un des boutons ci-dessous.
Messages		
Survey Closed	The survey you are trying to take is either not live or not available to you.	Le questionnaire auquel vous essayez de répondre n'est pas en ligne ou indisponible.
Page Contains Errors	Please check your answers below and correct them before continuing.	Veuillez vérifier vos réponses ci-dessous et les corriger avant de continuer.
Answer Required	An answer to this question is required.	Une réponse à cette question est nécessaire.
Buttons +Text Input		
Navigation	Back	Précédent
	Next	Suivant
	Submit	Soumettre
Nav. Intro	Start	Débutez
Text Input	Type here	Écrivez ici
	Email Address	Adresse e-mail

Appendix D Questionnaire translation (English – German)

Construct/Item	England	Germany
Introduction		
Title	Welcome and thank you for participating in this study.	Willkommen und vielen Dank, dass Sie an dieser Studie teilnehmen.
Text	The study is part of a trans-European research project that analyses attitudes towards national football teams and national football associations.	Die Studie ist Teil eines europaweiten Forschungsprojektes, welche das Verhältnis zu Fußballnationalmannschaften und nationalen Fußballverbänden analysiert.
	This study is being conducted by Paul Huiszoon, PhD Student at University of Lyon, France.	Sie wird durchgeführt von Paul Huiszoon, Doktorand der Universität Lyon, Frankreich.
	We greatly appreciate your contribution to this large-scale project.	Ihr Mitwirken an diesem umfangreichen Projekt schätzen wir sehr.
	Please take part in the survey even if you do not consider yourself a football or sport fan.	Bitte nehmen Sie auch dann an der Studie teil, wenn Sie sich nicht als Fußball- oder Sportfan bezeichnen würden.
	Your responses are anonymous and will be kept completely confidential.	Ihre Antworten sind anonym und werden absolut vertraulich behandelt.
	To take part in this survey you have to be 18 or older and consider the England national football team as "your" national football team.	Um an dieser Umfrage teilzunehmen, müssen Sie 18 Jahre oder älter sein und die Deutsche Fußballnationalmannschaft als „Ihre" Fußballnationalmannschaft betrachten.
	To contact the research team please send an email to paul.huiszoon@etu.univ-lyon1.fr	Falls Sie das Forschungsteam kontaktieren möchten, senden Sie bitte eine Email an paul.huiszoon@etu.univ-lyon1.fr
	Using a computer, it will take you about 10 minutes to complete the survey – using a smartphone/tablet it will take about 15 minutes. The survey consists of three parts:	Am Computer werden Sie etwa 10 Minuten benötigen, um den Fragebogen auszufüllen – mit einem Smartphone/Tablet dauert es etwa 15 Minuten.
	Part one addresses England men's senior national football team (England national team).	Der erste Teil behandelt die Deutsche Herren Fußballnationalmannschaft (Deutsche Nationalmannschaft).
	Part two is much shorter and prompts questions about the English football association (FA).	Der viel kürzere zweite Teil behandelt den Deutschen Fußball-Bund (DFB).
	Part three asks seven general questions and offers the chance to win an Amazon.co.uk Gift Card.	Im dritten Teil werden sieben allgemeine Fragen gestellt. Außerdem gibt es die Möglichkeit, einen Amazon.de Geschenkgutschein zu gewinnen.
Conditional Branching	Before you start, five brief questions:	Bevor Sie starten, fünf kurze Fragen:
Qualifier	Yes/No	Ja/Nein
CBR_1	Have you watched at least one match of England's national team on TV or on screen in the time period January 2014 to today?	Haben Sie im Zeitraum Januar 2014 bis heute mindestens ein Spiel der Deutschen Nationalmannschaft im TV oder auf einer Leinwand gesehen?
CBR_2	Have you watched at least one match of England's national team live in a stadium in the time period January 2014 to today?	Haben Sie im Zeitraum Januar 2014 bis heute mindestens ein Spiel der Deutschen Nationalmannschaft live im Stadion gesehen?
CBR_3	Have you spent money on England national team-related merchandise in the time period January 2014 to today (e.g. jersey, scarf, cup)?	Haben Sie im Zeitraum Januar 2014 bis heute Geld für Fanartikel der Deutschen Nationalmannschaft ausgegeben (z.B. Trikot, Schal, Tasse)?
CBR_4	Do you have a Facebook account?	Haben Sie einen Facebook Account?
CBR_5	Do you have a Twitter account?	Haben Sie einen Twitter Account?

	Generic Question Titles + Extra Description	
Question Title	Part 1 of 3 Questions about the England men's senior national football team (England national team).	Teil 1 von 3 Fragen zur Deutschen Herren Fußball-Nationalmannschaft (Deutsche Nationalmannschaft).
	Part 2 of 3 Questions about the English Football Association (FA).	Teil 2 von 3 Fragen zum Deutschen Fußball-Bund (DFB).
Extra Description	Before continuing to the next page, all questions have to be answered.	Bitte beantworten Sie alle Fragen dieser Seite, bevor Sie zur nächsten Seite weitergehen.
Non-transactional Behaviour (1)	National team	Nationalmannschaft
Question Title	Approximately, how many matches of the England national team did you watch on TV or on screen in 2014, 2015, and 2016?	Ungefähr wie viele Spiele der Deutschen Nationalmannschaft haben Sie 2014, 2015 und 2016 im TV oder auf einer Leinwand gesehen?
Extra Description	For each question please choose the number of matches you have watched from the dropdown menu. If you did not watch any match, please select "0".	Bitte wählen Sie die entsprechende Anzahl von Spielen im Dropdown-Menü. Wenn Sie kein Spiel im TV oder auf einer Leinwand gesehen haben, wählen Sie bitte "0".
TV/Screen	[0] – [13]; [0] – [10]; [0] – [13]	[0] – [17]; [0] – [9]; [0] – [16]
TVS_1_1	In 2014 the England national team played 3 matches at the World Cup and 10 other matches. In total, how many matches did you watch on TV or on screen?	2014 spielte die Deutsche Nationalmannschaft 7 Spiele bei der WM und 10 andere Spiele. Wie viele Spiele haben Sie insgesamt im TV oder auf einer Leinwand gesehen?
TVS_2_1	In 2015 the England national team played 10 matches. How many did you watch on TV or on screen?	2015 spielte die Deutsche Nationalmannschaft 9 Spiele. Wie viele Spiele haben Sie insgesamt im TV oder auf einer Leinwand gesehen?
TVS_3_1	In 2016 the England national team played 4 matches at EURO 2016 and 9 other matches. In total, how many matches did you watch on TV or on screen?	2016 spielte die Deutsche Nationalmannschaft 6 Spiele bei der EM und 10 andere Spiele. Wie viele Spiele haben Sie insgesamt im TV oder auf einer Leinwand gesehen?
Transactional Behaviour (1)	National team	Nationalmannschaft
Question Title	Approximately, how many matches of the England national team did you attend in 2014, 2015, and 2016?	Ungefähr wie viele Spiele der Deutschen Nationalmannschaft haben Sie 2014, 2015 und 2016 live im Stadion gesehen?
Extra Description	For each question please choose the number of matches you have attended from the dropdown menu. If you did not attend any match, please select "0".	Bitte wählen Sie die entsprechende Anzahl von Spielen im Dropdown-Menü. Wenn Sie kein Spiel live im Stadion gesehen haben, wählen Sie bitte "0".
Attendance	[0] – [13]; [0] – [10]; [0] – [13]	[0] – [17]; [0] – [9]; [0] – [16]
ATT_1_1	In 2014 the England national team played 3 matches at the World Cup and 10 other matches. In total, how many did you attend?	2014 spielte die Deutsche Nationalmannschaft 7 Spiele bei der WM und 10 andere Spiele. Wie viele Spiele haben Sie insgesamt live im Stadion gesehen?
ATT_2_1	In 2015 the England national team played 10 matches. How many did you attend?	2015 spielte die Deutsche Nationalmannschaft 9 Spiele. Wie viele Spiele haben Sie insgesamt live im Stadion gesehen?
ATT_3_1	In 2016 the England national team played 4 matches at EURO 2016 and 9 other matches. In total, how many did you attend?	2016 spielte die Deutsche Nationalmannschaft 6 Spiele bei der EM und 10 andere Spiele. Wie viele Spiele haben Sie insgesamt live im Stadion gesehen?

Transactional Behaviour (2)	National team	Nationalmannschaft
Question Title	Approximately, how much money did you spend on England national team-related merchandise (e.g. jersey, scarf, cup) in 2014, 2015, and 2016?	Wie viel Geld haben Sie in etwa 2014, 2015 und 2016 für Fanartikel der Deutschen Nationalmannschaft ausgegeben (z.B. Trikot, Schal, Tasse)?
Extra Description	Please give your answer in British Pound. If you did not spend anything, please select "0".	Bitte geben Sie Ihre Antwort in Euro an. Wenn Sie nichts ausgegeben haben, wählen Sie bitte "0".
Merchandise	[0€] – [>990€]	[0€] – [>990€]
MER_1_1	How much money did you spend on England national team-related merchandise in 2014?	2014 – wie viel Geld haben Sie für Fanartikel der Deutschen Nationalmannschaft ausgegeben?
MER_2_1	How much money did you spend on England national team-related merchandise in 2015?	2015 – wie viel Geld haben Sie für Fanartikel der Deutschen Nationalmannschaft ausgegeben?
MER_3_1	How much money did you spend on England national team-related merchandise in 2016?	2016 – wie viel Geld haben Sie für Fanartikel der Deutschen Nationalmannschaft ausgegeben?
Non-transactional Behaviour (2)	National team	Nationalmannschaft
Question Title	Please answer the following questions concerning your social media behaviour in relation to the England national team.	Bitte beantworten Sie folgende Fragen zu Ihrer Nutzung von sozialen Netzwerken im Zusammenhang mit der Deutschen Nationalmannschaft.
Social online	[0] *never* to [5] *daily*	[0] *nie* bis [5] *täglich*
FBO_1_1	How frequently do you choose to read status updates or posts on Facebook that are related to the England national team when the team is participating in a tournament (e.g. FIFA-World Cup, UEFA-Euro)?	Wie regelmäßig lesen Sie gezielt Status Updates oder Posts auf Facebook, bezüglich der Deutschen Nationalmannschaft, wenn die Mannschaft an einem Turnier teilnimmt (z.B. FIFA-Weltmeisterschaft, UEFA-Europameisterschaft)?
Probing_F1	And how frequently are you doing this if neither a FIFA-World Cup, nor any other tournament is taking place?	Und wie regelmäßig tun Sie dies, wenn weder eine FIFA-Weltmeisterschaft noch irgendein anderes Turnier stattfindet?
FBO_2_1	How frequently do you like or share content on Facebook that is related to the England national team when the team is participating in a tournament (e.g. FIFA-World Cup, UEFA-Euro)?	Wie regelmäßig liken oder sharen Sie Posts auf Facebook, bezüglich der Deutschen Nationalmannschaft, wenn die Mannschaft an einem Turnier teilnimmt (z.B. FIFA-Weltmeisterschaft, UEFA-Europameisterschaft)?
Probing_F2	cf. Probing_F1	cf. Probing_F1
FBO_3_1	How frequently do you comment on posts on Facebook that are related to the England national team when the team is participating in a tournament (e.g. FIFA-World Cup, UEFA-Euro)?	Wie regelmäßig kommentieren Sie Posts auf Facebook, bezüglich der Deutschen Nationalmannschaft, wenn die Mannschaft an einem Turnier teilnimmt (z.B. FIFA-Weltmeisterschaft, UEFA-Europameisterschaft)?
Probing_F3	cf. Probing_F1	cf. Probing_F1
FBO_4_1	How frequently do you post something on Facebook that is related to the England national team when the team is participating in a tournament (e.g. FIFA-World Cup, UEFA-Euro)?	Wie regelmäßig posten Sie etwas auf Facebook, bezüglich der Deutschen Nationalmannschaft, wenn die Mannschaft an einem Turnier teilnimmt (z.B. FIFA-Weltmeisterschaft, UEFA-Europameisterschaft)?
Probing_F4	cf. Probing_F1	cf. Probing_F1
TWI_1_1	How frequently do you choose to read tweets that are related to the England national team when the team is participating in a tournament (e.g. FIFA-World Cup, UEFA-Euro)?	Wie regelmäßig lesen Sie gezielt Tweets, bezüglich der Deutschen Nationalmannschaft, wenn die Mannschaft an einem Turnier teilnimmt (z.B. FIFA-Weltmeisterschaft, UEFA-Europameisterschaft)?
Probing_T1	cf. Probing_F1	cf. Probing_F1

TWI_2_1	How frequently do you like or retweet something on Twitter that is related to the England national team when the team is participating in a tournament (e.g. FIFA-World Cup, UEFA-Euro)?	Wie regelmäßig liken oder retweeten Sie Tweets, bezüglich der Deutschen Nationalmannschaft, wenn die Mannschaft an einem Turnier teilnimmt (z.B. FIFA-Weltmeisterschaft, UEFA-Europameisterschaft)?
Probing_T2	cf. Probing_F1	cf. Probing_F1
TWI_3_1	How frequently do you tweet something on Twitter that is related to the England national team when the team is participating in a tournament (e.g. FIFA-World Cup, UEFA-Euro)?	Wie regelmäßig verfassen Sie eigene Tweets, bezüglich der Deutschen Nationalmannschaft, wenn die Mannschaft an einem Turnier teilnimmt (z.B. FIFA-Weltmeisterschaft, UEFA-Europameisterschaft)?
Probing_T3	cf. Probing_F1	cf. Probing_F1
Non-transactional behaviour (3)	National team	Nationalmannschaft
Question Title	Please indicate your appropriate frequency to the following statements.	Bitte geben Sie an, wie oft folgende Aussagen auf Sie zutreffen.
Extra Description	When watching matches of the England national team (in the stadium, on TV, or on screen),	Wenn ich ein Spiel der Deutschen Nationalmannschaft sehe (im Stadion, im TV oder auf einer Leinwand), …
Social offline	[1] *never to* [5] *always*	[1] *nie* bis [5] *immer*
SOF_1_1	I interact with other spectators to talk face to face about issues related to the England national team.	spreche ich mit anderen Zuschauern über Themen, die im Zusammenhang mit der Deutschen Nationalmannschaft stehen.
SOF_2_1	I encourage others to support the England national team.	ermuntere ich andere, die Deutsche Nationalmannschaft zu unterstützen.
SOF_3_1	I support the England national team through singing, clapping, cheering, etc.	feuere ich die Deutsche Nationalmannschaft durch singen, klatschen, jubeln, etc. an.
Question Title	Please indicate your level of agreement to the following statements.	Inwieweit stimmen Sie folgenden Aussagen zu?
Commitment	National team	Nationalmannschaft
	[1] *strongly disagree to* [5] *strongly agree*	[1] *Stimme überhaupt nicht zu* bis [5] *Stimme voll und ganz zu*
COM_1_1	I am committed to my relationship with the England national team.	Ich fühle mich der Deutschen Nationalmannschaft verbunden.
COM_2_1	I really care about maintaining my relationship with the England national team.	Meine Verbundenheit zur Deutschen Nationalmannschaft möchte ich stets aufrechterhalten.
COM_3_1	The relationship that I have with the England national team is something I am very committed to.	Meine Beziehung zur Deutschen Nationalmannschaft liegt mir am Herzen.
COM_4_1	I would watch the England national team regardless of which team they were playing against at that time.	Ich würde mir Spiele der Deutschen Nationalmannschaft ansehen, unabhängig davon gegen welche Mannschaft sie spielt.
COM_5_1	I would watch the England national team regardless of whether they are playing a tournament (e.g. FIFA-World Cup, UEFA-Euro) or not.	Ich würde mir Spiele der Deutschen Nationalmannschaft ansehen, unabhängig davon, ob sie ein Turnier (z.B. FIFA-Weltmeisterschaft, UEFA-Europameisterschaft) spielt oder nicht.
Attitude	The football association (FA)	Deutscher Fußball-Bund (DFB)
	[1] *strongly disagree to* [5] *strongly agree*	[1] *Stimme überhaupt nicht zu* bis [5] *Stimme voll und ganz zu*
ATI_1_2	I feel positive when I think about the FA.	Ich habe positive Gefühle, wenn ich an den DFB denke.
ATI_2_2	I like the FA as an organisation.	Ich mag den DFB als Organisation.
ATI_3_2	I think the FA is a good organisation.	Ich denke, der DFB ist eine gute Organisation.

Trust	National team	Nationalmannschaft
	[1] *strongly disagree to* [5] *strongly agree*	[1] *Stimme überhaupt nicht zu* bis [5] *Stimme voll und ganz zu*
TRU_1_1	The leadership of the England national team (e.g. captain, coach, team manager) can be trusted.	Der Führung der Deutschen Nationalmannschaft (z.B. Kapitän, Trainer, Team-Manager) kann man vertrauen.
TRU_2_1	The leadership of the England national team (e.g. captain, coach, team manager) can be counted on to do what is right.	Man kann sich darauf verlassen, dass die Führung der Deutschen Nationalmannschaft (z.B. Kapitän, Trainer, Team-Manager) tut was richtig ist.
TRU_3_1	The leadership of the England national team (e.g. captain, coach, team manager) has high integrity.	Die Führung der Deutschen Nationalmannschaft (z.B. Kapitän, Trainer, Team-Manager) besitzt hohe Integrität.
	FA	DFB
	[1] *strongly disagree to* [5] *strongly agree*	[1] *Stimme überhaupt nicht zu* bis [5] *Stimme voll und ganz zu*
TRU_1_2	The board of the FA can be trusted.	Dem Vorstand des DFBs kann man vertrauen.
TRU_2_2	The board of the FA can be counted on to do what is right.	Man kann sich darauf verlassen, dass der Vorstand des DFBs tut was richtig ist.
TRU_3_2	The board of the FA has high integrity.	Der Vorstand des DFBs besitzt hohe Integrität.
Knowledge	National team	Nationalmannschaft
	[1] *strongly disagree to* [5] *strongly agree*	[1] *Stimme überhaupt nicht zu* bis [5] *Stimme voll und ganz zu*
KNO_1_1	I know a lot about the England national team.	Ich weiß viel über die Deutsche Nationalmannschaft.
KNO_2_1	If I were to list everything I knew about the England national team, the list would be quite long.	Wenn ich alles aufzählen würde was ich über die Deutsche Nationalmannschaft weiß, wäre die Liste ziemlich lang.
KNO_3_1	I consider myself an expert about the England national team.	Ich halte mich für einen Experten der Deutschen Nationalmannschaft.
	FA	DFB
	[1] *strongly disagree to* [5] *strongly agree*	[1] *Stimme überhaupt nicht zu* bis [5] *Stimme voll und ganz zu*
KNO_1_2	I know a lot about the FA.	Ich weiß viel über den DFB.
KNO_2_2	If I were to list everything I knew about the FA, the list would be quite long.	Wenn ich alles aufzählen würde was ich über den DFB weiß, wäre die Liste ziemlich lang.
KNO_3_2	I consider myself an expert about the FA.	Ich halte mich für einen DFB-Experten.
Interactivity	National team	Nationalmannschaft
	[1] *strongly disagree to* [5] *strongly agree*	[1] *Stimme überhaupt nicht zu* bis [5] *Stimme voll und ganz zu*
INT_1_1	I believe that the England national team appreciates the fans' input on its social media channels.	Ich glaube, dass die Deutsche Nationalmannschaft die Beiträge der Fans auf den sozialen Netzwerkseiten der Mannschaft wertschätzt.
INT_2_1	In my opinion, the communication channels of the England national team enable a two-way communication between fans and the team.	Meiner Meinung nach ermöglichen die Kommunikationskanäle der Deutschen Nationalmannschaft einen Dialog zwischen Fans und dem Team.
INT_3_1	I think the England national team is interested in interacting with its fans.	Ich denke, die Deutsche Nationalmannschaft ist interessiert daran, in einen Dialog mit seinen Fans zu treten.

	FA	DFB
	[1] *strongly disagree to* [5] *strongly agree*	[1] *Stimme überhaupt nicht zu* bis [5] *Stimme voll und ganz zu*
INT_1_2	I believe that the FA appreciates the fans' input on its social media channels.	Ich glaube, dass der DFB die Beiträge von Fans auf seinen sozialen Netzwerkseiten wertschätzt.
INT_2_2	In my opinion, the communication channels of the FA enable a two-way communication between fans and the association.	Meiner Meinung nach ermöglichen die Kommunikationskanäle des DFBs einen Dialog zwischen Fans und dem Verband.
INT_3_2	I think that the FA is interested in interacting with individuals outside the association.	Ich denke, der DFB ist interessiert daran, in einen Dialog mit Personen außerhalb des Verbandes zu treten.
Reputation	National team	Nationalmannschaft
	[1] *strongly disagree to* [5] *strongly agree*	[1] *Stimme überhaupt nicht zu* bis [5] *Stimme voll und ganz zu*
REP_1_1	The England national team has a positive image.	Die Deutsche Nationalmannschaft hat ein gutes Image (Ruf).
REP_2_1	If I were asked to describe the image of the England national team I would say positive things.	Auf die Frage nach dem Image (Ruf) der Deutschen Nationalmannschaft, würde ich positive Dinge antworten.
REP_3_1	The England national team has an image that I like.	Die Deutsche Nationalmannschaft hat ein Image (Ruf), das ich mag.
	NFA	DFB
	[1] *strongly disagree to* [5] *strongly agree*	[1] *Stimme überhaupt nicht zu* bis [5] *Stimme voll und ganz zu*
REP_1_2	The FA has a positive image.	Der DFB hat ein gutes Image (Ruf).
REP_2_2	If I were asked to describe the image of the FA I would say positive things.	Auf die Frage nach dem Image (Ruf) des DFBs, würde ich positive Dinge antworten.
REP_3_2	The FA has an image that I like.	Der DFB hat ein Image (Ruf), das ich mag.
Governance	FA only	DFB only
	[1] *strongly disagree to* [5] *strongly agree*	[1] *Stimme überhaupt nicht zu* bis [5] *Stimme voll und ganz zu*
GOV_1_2	The conduct of the FA is led by high ethical standards.	Der DFB orientiert sich bei seinem Handeln an hohen ethischen Standards.
GOV_2_2	Confronted with scandals, the FA is dedicated to a full clearance of it.	Konfrontiert mit Skandalen, widmet sich der DFB einer vollständigen und glaubhaften Klärung.
GOV_3_2	The FA is managed responsibly.	Der DFB wird verantwortungsvoll geleitet.
Identification	National team only	Nationalmannschaft only
Question Title	Please select one of the four following images.	Bitte wählen Sie eine der folgenden vier Darstellungen aus.
	[1] *A to* [5] *E*	[1] *A* bis [5] *E*
IDE_1_1	The blue circle represents your identity (e.g. attributes and values). The white circle represents the identity of the England national team. Which of the following set of circles (A, B, C, D, or E) represents best, how much your identity and the England national team's identity overlap?	Der blaue Kreis stellt Ihre eigene Identität dar (z.B. Eigenschaften und Werte). Der weiße Kreis stellt die Identität der Deutschen Nationalmannschaft dar. Welche der nachfolgenden Doppel-Kreise (A, B, C, D oder E) zeigen am besten, wie sehr Ihre eigene Identität und die Identität der Deutschen Nationalmannschaft übereinstimmen?
Question Title	Please complete the ensuing sentence by selecting one of the five answer options.	Bitte vervollständigen Sie den folgenden Satz. Wählen Sie dazu eine der fünf Antwortmöglichkeiten aus.
	[1] *not at all to* [5] *completely*	[1] *überhaupt nicht* bis [5] *Komplett*
IDE_2_1	The way I see myself overlaps _____ with everything the England national team stands for.	Die Art wie ich mich selbst sehe überschneidet sich _____ mit allem, wofür die Deutsche Nationalmannschaft steht.

Question Title	Please indicate your level satisfaction.	Bitte geben Sie den Grad Ihrer Zufriedenheit an.
Satisfaction	National team	Nationalmannschaft
	[1] *very unsatisfied to* [5] *very satisfied*	[1] *Äußerst Unzufrieden* bis [5] *Äußerst Zufrieden*
SAT_1_1	Considering the last 12 months, how satisfied are you with the players' behaviours of the England national team?	In Anbetracht der letzten 12 Monate: Wie zufrieden sind Sie mit dem Verhalten der Spieler der Deutschen Nationalmannschaft?
SAT_2_1	Based on you experiences in the last 12 months, how satisfied are you with the quality of the England national team's matches?	Basierend auf ihren Erfahrungen in den letzten 12 Monaten: Wie zufrieden sind Sie mit der Qualität der Spiele der Deutschen Nationalmannschaft?
SAT_3_1	Considering the last 12 months, how satisfied are you with the England national team?	In Anbetracht der letzten 12 Monate: Wie zufrieden sind Sie insgesamt mit der Deutschen Nationalmannschaft?
	FA	DFB
	[1] *very unsatisfied to* [5] *very satisfied*	[1] *Äußerst Unzufrieden* bis [5] *Äußerst Zufrieden*
SAT_1_2	Based on your experiences in the last 12 months, how satisfied are you with the work of the FA?	Basierend auf Ihren Erfahrungen in den letzten 12 Monaten: Wie zufrieden sind Sie mit der Arbeit des DFBs?
SAT_2_2	Compared to other, similar sport associations, how would you rate your satisfaction with the work of the FA?	Im Vergleich zu anderen, ähnlichen Sportverbänden: Wie schätzen Sie Ihre Zufriedenheit mit der Arbeit des DFBs ein?
SAT_3_2	In general, how satisfied are you with the work of the FA?	Wie zufrieden sind Sie mit der Arbeit des DFBs im Allgemeinen?
Further variables	National team	Nationalmannschaft
Question Title	Please answer the following questions with yes or no.	Bitte beantworten Sie folgende Fragen.
	Yes/No	*Ja/Nein*
OSC	Are you member of the official England national team supporters' club?	Sind Sie Mitglied im offiziellen Fan Club der Deutschen Nationalmannschaft?
USC	Are you a member of any England national team football supporters' club?	Sind Sie Mitglied in irgendeinem anderen Fan Club der Deutschen Nationalmannschaft?
SCL	Are you a supporters' club member of a Premier League team?	Sind Sie Mitglied eines Fan Clubs einer Bundesliga Mannschaft?
APM	Are you an active (playing) member of a local football club?	Sind Sie aktives (spielendes) Mitglied eines lokalen Fußballvereins?
PNM	Are you a passive (non-playing) member of a local football club?	Sind Sie passives (nicht spielendes) Mitglied eines lokalen Fußballvereins?
FWA	Are you playing football on a regular basis without affiliation to a local football club?	Spielen Sie regelmäßig Fußball, jedoch ohne Zugehörigkeit zu einem lokalen Fußballverein?
DIS	In your opinion, are the England national team and the English football association one and the same thing?	Sind Ihrer Meinung nach, die Deutsche Nationalmannschaft und der DFB ein und dieselbe Organisation?
Further variables	National team	Nationalmannschaft
	[1] *never* to [5] *weekly*	[1] *Nie* bis [5] *wöchentlich*
RFL	During a Premier League season, how regularly do you watch Premier League matches (either live in the stadium, on TV or on screen)?	Wie regelmäßig schauen Sie Spiele der ersten Fußball Bundesliga während einer Saison? Egal ob live im Stadion, im TV oder auf einer Leinwand.

Generic Question Titles + Extra Description		
Question Title	Part 3 of 3 General questions.	Teil 3 von 3 Allgemeine Fragen.
Extra Description	Before submitting, all general questions have to be answered. Whereby, there is always a "Prefer not to answer" option.	Bitte beantworten Sie alle allgemeinen Fragen. Falls Sie eine Frage nicht beantworten möchten, haben Sie immer die Option "Keine Angabe" auszuwählen.
Demographics		
	Please answer the following general questions.	Bitte beantworten Sie folgende allgemeine Fragen.
GEN	Please indicate your gender.	Bitte geben Sie Ihr Geschlecht an.
	Male	Männlich
	Female	Weiblich
	Other	Anders
	Prefer not to answer.	Keine Angabe
AGE	Please indicate your age.	Bitte geben Sie Ihr Alter an.
	Prefer not to answer. | 18- >99 drop down	Keine Angabe. | 18- >99 drop down
EDA	Please indicate your highest education attained.	Bitte geben Sie Ihren höchsten Bildungsabschluss an.
	ISCED levels	ISCED levels
	Other	Anderer
	Prefer not to answer.	Keine Angabe
EMS	Please indicate your employment situation.	Bitte geben Sie Ihren Beschäftigungsstatus an.
	Employed Full-Time	Vollzeit Beschäftigung
	Employed Part-Time	Teilzeit Beschäftigung
	Self-employed	Selbstständig
	Unoccupied	Arbeitssuchend
	Homemaker	Hausmann/Hausfrau
	Retired	Im Ruhestand
	Student	Student/Studentin
	Apprentice	Auszubildender/Auszubildende
	Other	Anderer
	Prefer not to answer.	Keine Angabe
INI	Please indicate your annual individual income.	Bitte geben Sie Ihr individuelles Jahreseinkommen an.
	Categories £ | Prefer not to answer.	Kategorien € | Keine Angabe
COR	Is your main place of residence in England?	Ist Ihr Hauptwohnsitz in Deutschland?
	Yes | No | Prefer not to answer.	Ja | Nein | Keine Angabe
POS	Please indicate your postcode.	Bitte geben Sie Ihre Postleitzahl an.
	Text field | Prefer not to answer.	Textfeld | Keine Angabe
Lottery + Follow up		
Question Title	Have the chance to win an Amazon.co.uk Gift Card (£ 25) by leaving your email address.	Sie haben die Möglichkeit einen Amzon.de Geschenkgutschein (25€) zu gewinnen, indem Sie Ihre E-Mail-Adresse hinterlassen.
	All information to this section is optional.	Dies ist optional.
Extra Description	If you elect to participate in the draw, your survey responses will not be anonymous, but they will be confidential. The winners will be contacted by February 2017.	Wenn Sie an der Verlosung teilnehmen, werden Ihre Antworten nicht mehr komplett anonym, aber vertraulich sein. Die Gewinner werden im Februar 2017 kontaktiert.
	Your email address will not be shared with a third party, nor will it be sold or used for advertising purposes.	Ihre E-Mail-Adresse wird nicht an Dritte weitergegeben, noch wird Sie verkauft oder für Werbezwecke genutzt.
Email	Please enter your email address.	Geben Sie bitte Ihre Email-Adresse ein.
Follow up	If you have entered your email address: May I send you a follow-up survey in May 2017?	Falls Sie ihre E-Mail-Adresse angegeben haben: Sind Sie dann einverstanden, dass wir Ihnen eine Follow-Up-Umfrage im Mai 2017 senden?

Thanks	Thank you so much!	Vielen herzlichen Dank!
Extra	Now please hit the "Submit" button.	Jetzt nur noch auf „Absenden“ klicken.
Settings: Pages/Messages: Generic Messages, Errors Warnings, Buttons & Input		
Thank you page		
Text	Thank you for taking the time to complete this survey.	Vielen Dank, dass Sie an dieser Umfrage teilgenommen haben.
	If you have concerns or questions about this study, please contact Paul Huiszoon at paul.huiszoon@etu.univ-lyon1.fr.	Wenn Sie Bedenken oder Fragen zu dieser Studie haben, kontaktieren Sie bitte paul.huiszoon@etu.univ-lyon1.fr.
	Please share this survey by selecting one of the buttons below.	Bitte teilen Sie diese Umfrage in sozialen Netzwerken.
Messages		
Survey Closed	The survey you are trying to take is either not live or not available to you.	Die Umfrage, an der Sie teilnehmen möchten, ist entweder nicht mehr online oder sie haben keine Berechtigung darauf zuzugreifen.
Page Contains Errors	Please check your answers below and correct them before continuing.	Es scheint als haben Sie eine oder mehrere Fragen übersehen/ausgelassen. Bitte überprüfen Sie den Hinweis/die Hinweise unten und füllen Sie bitte unbeantwortete Fragen aus.
Answer Required	An answer to this question is required.	Um fortzufahren, beantworten Sie bitte diese Frage.
Buttons +Text Input		
Navigation	Back	Zurück
	Next	Weiter
	Submit	Absenden
Nav. Intro	Start	Start
Text Input	Type here	Hier schreiben
	Email Address	E-Mail Adresse

Appendix E Feedback given in the pilot study

Item	Feedback France	Similar feedback	Change applied
	Change to "deuxième partie"		■
	Background darker		
	First question battery: In heading change "sur" to "avec"		
	Write in more common language		
	Second question battery: change to "pour les"		
	Indicate your level of satisfaction		
	Battery four: No need for yes/no		
COM_1_1	Change "loyal fan" just to fan or big fan?		
COM_1_2	use common language!		
COM_3_1	Use more simple language		
GEN	No "other" option in French		
COR	Change to "Do you live in France" Yes/No		■
	Add POS and ask about postal code!		
COR	Put France on top of country list.		
IDE_1_1	Language to complex! What is meant by values/characteristics? Struggle between academic and common language	■	
IDE_2_1	Add "à" to "moitié"		■
IDE_2_1	The scale is not constant. Distance between points on scale is not consistent		■
IDE_2_1	Are talking about values? Difficult to answer. I don't follow so I don't know!	■	
IDE_2_1	Improve scale. "Presque" seems not to fit in.		■
APM/PNM	Active/Inactive could be mixed up with involvement		
RFL	Choices are not in line		
INT_1_1	Wording unclear.	■	■
INT_1_1	What do you mean?		
INT_1_1	What do you mean? Change to "If I wanted, I could establish…"		
INT_1_1	Wording unclear. What do you mean?		
INT_1_2	see above		
INT_1_2	same as INT1.1		
INT_3_1	In what kind of occasions. Who? Players, coach, …?		
Intro	resteront, don't ask about demographics make wording simpler! E.g. general questions		■
KNO_1_1	Possession of knowledge to complicated. Just "I have…."		
KNO_3_1	Compared to what? Maybe rephrase.	■	
KNO_3_1	Compared to what? Doesn't make sense to me.		
KNO_3_2	Rephrase		
Lottery	Spelling of "envoyions" wrong? Erase i?		
TVS_SPT	Hard to say for 2015. Add the word approximately.	■	
TVS_SPT	Add €-sign for answer choices		■
TVS_SPT	Categories would be helpful / Add word approximately	■	

TVS_SPT	Change answer choice to intervals? (Same for ATT_SPT and MER_SPT)
SON_SPT	change scale to "daily"
REP_1_1	In general change reputation to image? "I appreciate the image…"
REP_2_1	The word "clear" is not the best.
REP_2_1	What is meant by reputation? The wording is unclear as it is easily missed-up with a clear reputation means having a good reputation.
REP_2_1	To which generation of team are you referring?
REP_2_1	Wording is unclear.
REP_2_1	The word "clear" is not the best.
REP_2_2	see above
REP_2_2	see above
REP_2_2	same as REP_2_1
REP_3_1	About which team are you talking? From 2016?
SAT_3_1	Are you talking about the current team?
Scale	Is "indécis" the correct word? Isn't there a more approachable word?
Scale	What is meant by sometimes? What's the difference to the other points on the scale?
Scale	Satisfaction: No neutral option make it more comprehensive
Scale	To what does "indécis" correspond?
Scale	Add "does not apply to me option"
ATT_SPT	Hard to say for 2015. Add the word approximately. Is there a better word for "assisté"?
ATT_SPT	Don't change the way you characterise the year. Write 2016. Same for TVS_SPT and MER_SPT
ATT_SPT	Assisté dans le stade
TRU_1_1	Put "e.g." after full explanation of what you mean. Also for other items.
TRU_1_1	Trusted in terms of sporting decisions? What do you mean. Clarify.
TRU_2_1	delete lui
TRU_2_1	Wording! Delete "lui"
TRU_2_1	Wording! Delete "lui". Check translation.
TRU_2_2	Delete "lui"
TRU_2_2	"lui" is the wrong translation
TRU_2_2	Wording! Delete "lui". Check translation.

Item	Feedback Germany	Similar feedback	Change applied
TVS_SPT	2014/2015 hard to remember. Add word approximately		
MER_SPT	Hard. Maybe too detailed. Add categories?		
SON_SPT	When? I think this is strongly linked to the point in time. During tournament or not. And purposely and event specific.		
SON_SPT	Consume by coincidence or intentional?		
SON_SPT	Aren't these items too similar?!		
COM_3_2	Committed to the association? More probably to the athletes!		
IDE_1_1	Explanation needed!		
IDE_2_1	Scale is inconsistent.		
IDE_2_1	Tricky question		
IDE_2_1	check categories. Some seem similar.		
TRU_1_1	Referring to what? Their job?		
TRU_3_1	What does integrity mean?		
TRU_3_1	Does everyone know what "integrity" is?		
INT_1_1	What do you mean?		
INT_1_1	Unclear. I guess no one will ever get back to me		
INT_1_2	What does it ask of me?		
INT_1_2	Dialogue with whom? The marketing team?		
INT_2_1	No idea what kind of communication channels they have.		
INT_2_1	What is meant by dialog? Two-way communication?		
REP_1_1	Better: Ask for Image. Same for REP_2_1 and REP_3_1		
REP_2_1	What do you mean?		
REP_2_1	Isn't that the same as REP_1_1? Does it mean that I do not question the reputation?		
REP_2_2	No idea what you mean.		
REP_2_2	Unclear question.		
SAT_1_1	Distinguish between on and off the pitch?		
GOV_3_2	Managed by whom?!		
KNO_3_1	What is an expert? Compared to friends and family?		
KNO_2_1	What do you mean by "long list"?		
KNO_3_2	What is an expert? Compared to friends and family?		
DIS	Hard to understand		
SCL	member of club vs. member of fan club?		
FWA	Why only ask for "playing regularly"?		
COR	Live in country or main place of residence?		

Appendix F Overview of the studies from which the measurement scales for the FRM Model-variables were adopted/adjusted

Construct/Variable	Original Wording	Factor Loadings	α	Response format	n	Context	Source	Based on	Also used in
Attendance	How many games of your favourite (league/team) did you attend last season?	-	-	-	752	Drivers of brand loyalty in professional sport.	Kunkel et al. (2013)		Yoshida et al. (2015)
Merchandise purchases	I have purchased a lot of England-related merchandise.	-	-	-	647	Fan loyalty toward club and national teams.	Hart (2015)	H. H. Bauer et al. (2008)	
TV/Screen	I watch the (league/team) at home.	-	-	-	752	Drivers of brand loyalty in professional sport.	Kunkel et al. (2013)	Pritchard and Funk (2006)	
Social online behaviours	Consuming		.82	LKT 1-7	562	Driving Fan engagement with football clubs on Facebook	Vale and Fernandes (2018)	Muntinga et al. (2011), Schivinski et al. (2016)	
	I read the content posted by the sport club on Facebook	.87							
	I view pictures or photos posted by the sport club on Facebook	.89							
	I watch videos posted by the sport club on Facebook	.89							
	I read posts, forum threads, and comments of others about the sport club on Facebook	.78							
	Contributing		.78						
	I 'like' content posted by the sport club on Facebook	.77							
	I share content posted by the sport club on my own Facebook page or with my friends	.87							
	I comment on posts, videos, images or forums posted by the sport club on Facebook	.88							
	I comment posts, forum threads, and comments of others about the sport club on Facebook	.86							

	Creating		.82					
	I initiate posts related to the sport club on my Facebook page	.88						
	I post pictures, videos or personal images related to the sport club on Facebook	.88						
	I add labels or hashtags on my posts related to the sport club on Facebook	.81						
	I write reviews, forum threads and personal opinions related to the sport club on Facebook	.81						
Social offline behaviours	I often interact with other fans to talk about issues related to (team name).	.91	.89	LKT 1-7	402	Fan engagement in a professional sport.	Yoshida et al. (2014)	Dholakia, Blazevic, Wiertz, and Algesheimer (2009)
	I often advise other fans on how to support (team name).	.89						
	I spend time on social media (e.g. Facebook, Twitter) sharing information with other fans of (team name).	.76						
Fan commitment	I am a loyal supporter on the [league/team].	-	.82	LKT 1-7	752	Drivers of brand loyalty in professional sport.	Kunkel et al. (2013)	
	I am a loyal fan of the [league/team].	-						
	I would watch my favourite team regardless of which team they were playing against at the time.	-						
	I am committed to my relationship with [dealership].	-	.94	LKT 1-7	397	Behaviours in retailing context.	T. J. Brown et al. (2005)	Moorman et al. (1992); R. M. Morgan and Hunt (1994)
	I really care about my ongoing relationship with [dealership].	-						
	The relationship that I have with [dealership] is something I am very committed to.	-						
	The relationship that I have with [dealership] deserves my maximum effort to maintain.	-						

Identification	Please indicate which one case (A, B, C, D, E, F, G, or H) best describes the level of overlap between your and [dealership's] identities.	-	-	-	397	Behaviours in retailing context.	T. J. Brown et al. (2005)	Bergami and Bagozzi (2000)	Tropp and Wright (2001)
	Please indicate to what degree your self-image overlaps with [dealership's] image. (Correlation with visual identification *r* = .76)	-	-	LKT 1-7	397	Behaviours in retailing context.	T. J. Brown et al. (2005)	Bergami and Bagozzi (2000)	
Trust	This service provider can be trusted.	-	.97	LKT 1-7	591	Relationship duration across service industries.	Dagger et al. (2009)	Doney and Cannon (1997); R. M. Morgan and Hunt (1994)	
	This service provider can be counted on to do what is right.	-							
	This service provider has high integrity.	-							
	This service provider is trustworthy.	-							
Satisfaction	Behaviours of the players of my favourite team. (Key attribute for low, median, and high identified spectators)	-				Spectator satisfaction in a French ice hockey context,	Bodet and Bernache-Assollant (2009)		
	Quality of game. (Key attribute for low, median, and high identified spectators)	-							
	Based on all of your experiences, how satisfied are you with this organisation's services and/or products?	-	.93	LKT 1-7	922	Fan identification, antecedents, sponsorship outcomes.	Gwinner and Swanson (2003)	Bitner and Hubbert (1994)	
	Compared to other, similar organisations that you have done business with, how would you rate your satisfaction with this organisation?	-							
	In general, I am satisfied with this organisation.	-							

Interaction disposition	The sport website gives visitors the opportunity to provide feedback.	.92	(AVE .83)	LKT 1-7	235		Suh et al. (2014)	
	The sport website facilitates two-way communication between visitors.	.94						
	The content of the sport website encourages me to provide feedback.	.93						
	The Sport governing body gives me the feeling that they are interested in communicating with me.	.75	(AVE .58)	LKT 1-5	501	Sport governing bodies' influence on non-transactional fan behaviours	Huiszoon et al. (2018)	
	The Sport governing body responds on comments and questions of me.	.79						
	The Sport governing body appreciates my effort to get in touch with them.	.74						
Reputation	The Sport governing body has a clear image.	.79	(AVE .74)	LKT 1-5	501	Sport governing bodies' influence on non-transactional fan behaviours	Huiszoon et al. (2018)	Keller (1993)
	The Sport governing body has an image that I like.	.90						
	The Sport governing body has a positive image.	.88						
Governance	OL is well managed.	.83	.77	LKT 1-6	512	Influences of club image and fan's motives.	(Beccarini & Ferrand, 2006)	Preceding qualitative study.
	OL was not impacted by scandals.	.82						
	OL has a good training centre.	.82						
	The Sport governing body is a transparent organisation.	.82	(AVE .62)	LKT 1-5	501	Sport governing bodies' influence on non-transactional fan behaviours	Huiszoon et al. (2018)	
	The Sport governing body is organised democratically.	.71						
	The Sport governing body is managed responsibly.	.79						
	The Sport governing body does everything to fight corruption.	.82						

To help the reader better understand the following syntaxes, and because Mplus allows variable names only up to eight characters long, a definition for each of the variables used in the syntax is added below:

ID = participant ID; QUA_01, QUA_02, QUA_03, QUA_04, QUA_05 = Qualifier 1-5; NBE_01, NBE_02, NBE_03 = TV/Screen consumption 2014, 2015, 2016; NBE_04, NBE_05, NBE_0405 = Facebook reading; NBE_06, NBE_07, NBE_0607 = Facebook liking/sharing; NBE_08, NBE_09, NBE_0809 = Facebook posting; NBE_10, NBE_11, NBE_1011 = Facebook content creation; NBE_FBO = Social online behaviours Facebook; NBE_12, NBE_13, NBE_1213 = Twitter reading; NBE_14, NBE_15, NBE_1415 = Twitter liking/retweeting; NBE_16, NBE_17, NBE_1617 = Twitter content creation; NBE_TWI = Social online behaviours Twitter; NBE_18, NBE_19, NBE_20 = Social offline behaviours; TBE_01, TBE_02, TBE_03 = Attendence 2014, 2015, 2016; TBE_04, TBE_05, TBE_06 = Merchandise purchases 2014, 2015, 2016; COM_01_1, COM_02_1, COM_03_1, COM_04_1, COM_05_1, COM_06_1 = Items 1-6 for Fan commitment; TRU_01_1, TRU_02_1, TRU_03_1 = Items 1-3 for Trust towards SPT; INT_01_1, INT_02_1, INT_03_1 = Items 1-3 for Interactivity disposition of SPT; REP_01_1, REP_02_1, REP_03_1 = Items 1-3 for Reputation of SPT; SAT_01_1 SAT_02_1 SAT_03_1 = Items 1-3 for Satifaction with the SPT; IDE_01_1 IDE_02_1 = Items 1 and 2 for Identifiaction with team; KNO_01_1, KNO_02_1, KNO_03_1 = Items 1-3 for Knowledge about SPT; COM_01_2, COM_02_2, COM_03_2, COM_04_2, COM_05_2, COM_06_2 = Items 1-6 for Attitude towards SGB; TRU_01_2, TRU_02_2, TRU_03_2 = Items 1-3 for Trust towards SGB; INT_01_2, INT_02_2, INT_03_2 = Items 1-3 for Interactivity disposition of SGB; REP_01_2, REP_02_2, REP_03_2 = Items 1-3 for Reputation of SGB; GOV_01_2, GOV_02_2, GOV_03_2 = Items for Governance of SGB; SAT_01_2 SAT_02_2 SAT_03_2 = Items 1-3 for Satifaction with the SGB; KNO_01_2, KNO_02_2, KNO_03_2 = Items 1-3 for Knowledge about SGB; INF_01, INF_02, INF_03, INF_04, INF_05, INF_06, INF_07, INF_10 = 1-8 Further individual variables; DEM_01 DEM_02 DEM_03 DEM_04 DEM_05 DEM_06 DEM_07 DEM_07_1 = Demographics.

Mplus Syntax for the Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA)

```
TITLE: CFA;
DATA: FILE is /Users/Desktop/20_GER.txt;
VARIABLE: NAMES ARE ID QUA_01 QUA_02 QUA_03 QUA_04 QUA_05 NBE_01
NBE_02 NBE_03 NBE_04 NBE_05
NBE_0405 NBE_06 NBE_07 NBE_0607 NBE_08 NBE_09 NBE_0809 NBE_10
NBE_11 NBE_1011 NBE_FBO NBE_12 NBE_13 NBE_1213 NBE_14 NBE_15
NBE_1415 NBE_16 NBE_17 NBE_1617 NBE_TWI NBE_18 NBE_19 NBE_20 TBE_01
TBE_02 TBE_03 TBE_04 TBE_05 TBE_06 COM_01_1 COM_02_1 COM_03_1
COM_04_1 COM_05_1 COM_06_1 TRU_01_1 TRU_02_1 TRU_03_1 INT_01_1
INT_02_1 INT_03_1 REP_01_1 REP_02_1 REP_03_1 SAT_01_1 SAT_02_1 SAT_03_1
IDE_01_1 IDE_02_1 KNO_01_1 KNO_02_1 KNO_03_1 COM_01_2 COM_02_2
COM_03_2 COM_04_2 COM_05_2 COM_06_2 TRU_01_2 TRU_02_2 TRU_03_2
INT_01_2 INT_02_2 INT_03_2 REP_01_2 REP_02_2 REP_03_2 GOV_01_2
GOV_02_2 GOV_03_2 SAT_01_2 SAT_02_2 SAT_03_2 KNO_01_2 KNO_02_2
KNO_03_2 INF_01 INF_02 INF_03 INF_04 INF_05 INF_06 INF_07 INF_10
DEM_01 DEM_02 DEM_03 DEM_04 DEM_05 DEM_06 DEM_07 DEM_07_1
TBE_ATT TBE_MER NBE_TVS NBE_SON NBE_SOF COM_NFT TRU_NFT INT_NFT
REP_NFT SAT_NFT IDE_NFT KNO_NFT ATI_NFA TRU_NFA INT_NFA REP_NFA
GOV_NFA SAT_NFA KNO_NFA;
USEVARIABLES ARE ID NBE_01 NBE_02 NBE_03 NBE_0405 NBE_0607 NBE_0809
NBE_1011 NBE_1213 NBE_1415 NBE_1617 NBE_18 NBE_19 NBE_20 TBE_01
TBE_02 TBE_03 TBE_04 TBE_05 TBE_06 COM_01_1 COM_02_1 COM_03_1
COM_05_1 COM_06_1 TRU_01_1 TRU_02_1 TRU_03_1 INT_01_1 INT_02_1
INT_03_1 REP_01_1 REP_02_1 REP_03_1 SAT_01_1 SAT_02_1 SAT_03_1 IDE_01_1
IDE_02_1 TRU_01_2 TRU_02_2 TRU_03_2 INT_01_2 INT_02_2 INT_03_2 REP_01_2
REP_02_2 REP_03_2 GOV_01_2 GOV_02_2 GOV_03_2 SAT_01_2 SAT_02_2
SAT_03_2;
IDVARIABLE = Id;
MISSING are all(999);
ANALYSIS:
ESTIMATOR IS MLR;
MODEL:
TBE_ATT by TBE_01 TBE_02 TBE_03;
TBE_MER by TBE_04 TBE_05 TBE_06;
NBE_TVS by NBE_01 NBE_02 NBE_03;
NBE_FBO by NBE_0405 NBE_0607 NBE_0809 NBE_1011;
NBE_TWI by NBE_1213 NBE_1415 NBE_1617;
NBE_SOF by NBE_18 NBE_19 NBE_20;
COM_NFT by COM_01_1 COM_02_1 COM_03_1 COM_05_1 COM_06_1;
IDE_NFT by IDE_01_1 IDE_02_1;
TRU_NFT by TRU_01_1 TRU_02_1 TRU_03_1;
CRE_NFA by TRU_01_2 TRU_02_2 TRU_03_2 REP_01_2 REP_02_2 REP_03_2
```

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GOV_01_2 GOV_02_2 GOV_03_2;
SAT_NFT by SAT_01_1 SAT_02_1 SAT_03_1;
SAT_NFA by SAT_01_2 SAT_02_2 SAT_03_2;
INT_NFT by INT_01_1 INT_02_1 INT_03_1;
INT_NFA by INT_01_2 INT_02_2 INT_03_2;
REP_NFT by REP_01_1 REP_02_1 REP_03_1;
FEB_NFT by TBE_ATT TBE_MER NBE_TVS NBE_FBO NBE_TWI NBE_SOF;
OUTPUT:
SAMPSTAT;
STAND;
MODINDICES(10);
RESIDUAL;
TECH4;
```

Mplus Syntax Multi-group Confirmatory Factor Analysis (MCFA)

Configural Model (for reasons of space we present the Configural Model only)

```
TITLE: Multi Group CFA: Configural Model;
DATA: FILE is /Users/Desktop/50_FRA_GER.txt;
VARIABLE: NAMES ARE ID COUNTRY QUA_01 QUA_02 QUA_03 QUA_04 QUA_05
NBE_01 NBE_02 NBE_03 NBE_04 NBE_05 NBE_0405 NBE_06 NBE_07 NBE_0607
NBE_08 NBE_09 NBE_0809 NBE_10 NBE_11 NBE_1011 NBE_FBO NBE_12
NBE_13 NBE_1213 NBE_14 NBE_15 NBE_1415 NBE_16 NBE_17 NBE_1617
NBE_TWI NBE_18 NBE_19 NBE_20 TBE_01 TBE_02 TBE_03 TBE_04 TBE_05
TBE_06 COM_01_1 COM_02_1 COM_03_1 COM_04_1 COM_05_1 COM_06_1
TRU_01_1 TRU_02_1 TRU_03_1 INT_01_1 INT_02_1 INT_03_1 REP_01_1 REP_02_1
REP_03_1 SAT_01_1 SAT_02_1 SAT_03_1 IDE_01_1 IDE_02_1 KNO_01_1
KNO_02_1 KNO_03_1 COM_01_2 COM_02_2 COM_03_2 COM_04_2 COM_05_2
COM_06_2 TRU_01_2 TRU_02_2 TRU_03_2 INT_01_2 INT_02_2 INT_03_2
REP_01_2 REP_02_2 REP_03_2 GOV_01_2 GOV_02_2 GOV_03_2 SAT_01_2
SAT_02_2 SAT_03_2 KNO_01_2 KNO_02_2 KNO_03_2 INF_01 INF_02 INF_03
INF_04 INF_05 INF_06 INF_07 INF_10 DEM_01 DEM_02 DEM_03 DEM_04 DEM_05
DEM_06 DEM_07 DEM_07_1 TBE_ATT TBE_MER NBE_TVS NBE_SON NBE_SOF
COM_NFT TRU_NFT INT_NFT REP_NFT SAT_NFT IDE_NFT KNO_NFT ATI_NFA
TRU_NFA INT_NFA REP_NFA GOV_NFA SAT_NFA KNO_NFA;
USEVARIABLES ARE ID COUNTRY NBE_01 NBE_02 NBE_03 NBE_0405 NBE_0607
NBE_0809 NBE_1011 NBE_1213 NBE_1415 NBE_1617 NBE_18 NBE_19 NBE_20
TBE_01 TBE_02 TBE_03 TBE_04 TBE_05 TBE_06 COM_01_1 COM_02_1
COM_03_1 COM_05_1 COM_06_1 TRU_01_1 TRU_02_1 TRU_03_1 INT_01_1
INT_02_1 INT_03_1 REP_01_1 REP_02_1 REP_03_1 SAT_01_1 SAT_02_1 SAT_03_1
IDE_01_1 IDE_02_1 TRU_01_2 TRU_02_2 TRU_03_2 INT_01_2 INT_02_2 INT_03_2
REP_01_2 REP_02_2 REP_03_2 GOV_01_2 GOV_02_2 GOV_03_2 SAT_01_2
SAT_02_2 SAT_03_2;
```

```
GROUPING = COUNTRY (1=FRA 2=GER);
IDVARIABLE = ID;
MISSING are all(999);
ANALYSIS: ESTIMATOR IS MLR;
MODEL: !Factor loadings all freely estimated, just labelled !Except first item of each
variable, constrained to 1;
TBE_ATT by TBE_01@1.00; TBE_ATT by TBE_02 (L2); TBE_ATT by TBE_03 (L3);
TBE_MER by TBE_04@1.00; TBE_MER by TBE_05 (L5); TBE_MER by TBE_06 (L6);
NBE_TVS by NBE_01@1.00; NBE_TVS by NBE_02 (L8); NBE_TVS by NBE_03 (L9);
NBE_FBO by NBE_0405@1.00; NBE_FBO by NBE_0607 (L11); NBE_FBO by
NBE_0809 (L12); NBE_FBO by NBE_1011 (L13); NBE_TWI by NBE_1213@1.00;
NBE_TWI by NBE_1415 (L15); NBE_TWI by NBE_1617 (L16); NBE_SOF by
NBE_18@1.00; NBE_SOF by NBE_19 (L18); NBE_SOF by NBE_20 (L19); COM_NFT
by COM_01_1@1.00; COM_NFT by COM_02_1 (L21); COM_NFT by COM_03_1
(L22); COM_NFT by COM_05_1 (L23); COM_NFT by COM_06_1 (L24); IDE_NFT by
IDE_01_1@1.00; IDE_NFT by IDE_02_1 (L26); TRU_NFT by TRU_01_1@1.00;
TRU_NFT by TRU_02_1 (L28); TRU_NFT by TRU_03_1 (L29); CRE_NFA by
TRU_01_2@1.00; CRE_NFA by TRU_02_2 (L31); CRE_NFA by TRU_03_2 (L32);
CRE_NFA by REP_01_2 (L33); CRE_NFA by REP_02_2 (L34); CRE_NFA by REP_03_2
(L35); CRE_NFA by GOV_01_2 (L36); CRE_NFA by GOV_02_2 (L37); CRE_NFA by
GOV_03_2 (L38); SAT_NFT by SAT_01_1@1.00; SAT_NFT by SAT_02_1 (L40);
SAT_NFT by SAT_03_1 (L41); SAT_NFA by SAT_01_2@1.00; SAT_NFA by SAT_02_2
(L43); SAT_NFA by SAT_03_2 (L44); INT_NFT by INT_01_1@1.00; INT_NFT by
INT_02_1 (L46); INT_NFT by INT_03_1 (L47); INT_NFA by INT_01_2@1.00; INT_NFA
by INT_02_2 (L49); INT_NFA by INT_03_2 (L50); REP_NFT by REP_01_1@1.00;
REP_NFT by REP_02_1 (L52); REP_NFT by REP_03_1 (L53);
!Item intercepts all freely estimated, just labelled
[TBE_01] (I1); [TBE_02] (I2); [TBE_03] (I3); [TBE_04] (I4); [TBE_05] (I5); [TBE_06] (I6);
[NBE_01] (I7); [NBE_02] (I8); [NBE_03] (I9); [NBE_0405] (I10); [NBE_0607] (I11);
[NBE_0809] (I12); [NBE_1011] (I13); [NBE_1213] (I14); [NBE_1415] (I15); [NBE_1617]
(I16); [NBE_18] (I17); [NBE_19] (I18); [NBE_20] (I19); [COM_01_1] (I20); [COM_02_1]
(I21); [COM_03_1] (I22); [COM_05_1] (I23); [COM_06_1] (I24); [IDE_01_1] (I25);
[IDE_02_1] (I26); [TRU_01_1] (I27); [TRU_02_1] (I28); [TRU_03_1] (I29); [TRU_01_2]
(I30); [TRU_02_2] (I31); [TRU_03_2] (I32); [REP_01_2] (I33); [REP_02_2] (I34);
[REP_03_2] (I35); [GOV_01_2] (I36); [GOV_02_2] (I37); [GOV_03_2] (I38); [SAT_01_1]
(I39); [SAT_02_1] (I40); [SAT_03_1] (I41); [SAT_01_2] (I42); [SAT_02_2] (I43);
[SAT_03_2] (I44); [INT_01_1] (I45); [INT_02_1] (I46); [INT_03_1] (I47); [INT_01_2] (I48);
[INT_02_2] (I49); [INT_03_2] (I50); [REP_01_1] (I51); [REP_02_1] (I52); [REP_03_1]
(I53);
!Residual variances all freely estimated, just labelled
TBE_01 (V1); TBE_02 (V2); TBE_03 (V3); TBE_04 (V4); TBE_05 (V5); TBE_06 (V6);
NBE_01 (V7); NBE_02 (V8); NBE_03 (V9); NBE_0405 (V10); NBE_0607 (V11);
NBE_0809 (V12); NBE_1011 (V13); NBE_1213 (V14); NBE_1415 (V15); NBE_1617
```

(V16); NBE_18 (V17); NBE_19 (V18); NBE_20 (V19); COM_01_1 (V20); COM_02_1 (V21); COM_03_1 (V22); COM_05_1 (V23); COM_06_1 (V24); IDE_01_1 (V25); IDE_02_1 (V26); TRU_01_1 (V27); TRU_02_1 (V28); TRU_03_1 (V29); TRU_01_2 (V30); TRU_02_2 (V31); TRU_03_2 (V32); REP_01_2 (V33); REP_02_2 (V34); REP_03_2 (V35); GOV_01_2 (V36); GOV_02_2 (V37); GOV_03_2 (V38); SAT_01_1 (V39); SAT_02_1 (V40); SAT_03_1 (V41); SAT_01_2 (V42); SAT_02_2 (V43); SAT_03_2 (V44); INT_01_1 (V45); INT_02_1 (V46); INT_03_1 (V47); INT_01_2 (V48); INT_02_2 (V49); INT_03_2 (V50); REP_01_1 (V51); REP_02_1 (V52); REP_03_1 (V53);
!Factor variance fixed to 1 for identification
TBE_ATT@1; TBE_MER@1; NBE_TVS@1; NBE_FBO@1; NBE_TWI@1; NBE_SOF@1; COM_NFT@1; IDE_NFT@1; TRU_NFT@1; CRE_NFA@1; SAT_NFT@1; SAT_NFA@1; INT_NFT@1; INT_NFA@1; REP_NFT@1;
!Factor mean fixed to 0 for identification (Mplus forces)
[TBE_ATT@0]; [TBE_MER@0]; [NBE_TVS@0]; [NBE_FBO@0]; [NBE_TWI@0]; [NBE_SOF@0]; [COM_NFT@0]; [IDE_NFT@0]; [TRU_NFT@0]; [CRE_NFA@0]; [SAT_NFT@0]; [SAT_NFA@0]; [INT_NFT@0]; [INT_NFA@0]; [REP_NFT@0];
MODEL GER: !Factor loadings all freely estimated, NOT labelled !Except first item of each variable, constrained to 1
BE_ATT by TBE_01@1.00; TBE_ATT by TBE_02; TBE_ATT by TBE_03; TBE_MER by TBE_04@1.00; TBE_MER by TBE_05; TBE_MER by TBE_06; NBE_TVS by NBE_01@1.00; NBE_TVS by NBE_02; NBE_TVS by NBE_03; NBE_FBO by NBE_0405@1.00; NBE_FBO by NBE_0607; NBE_FBO by NBE_0809; NBE_FBO by NBE_1011; NBE_TWI by NBE_1213@1.00; NBE_TWI by NBE_1415; NBE_TWI by NBE_1617; NBE_SOF by NBE_18@1.00; NBE_SOF by NBE_19; NBE_SOF by NBE_20; COM_NFT by COM_01_1@1.00; COM_NFT by COM_02_1; COM_NFT by COM_03_1; COM_NFT by COM_05_1; COM_NFT by COM_06_1; IDE_NFT by IDE_01_1@1.00; IDE_NFT by IDE_02_1; TRU_NFT by TRU_01_1@1.00; TRU_NFT by TRU_02_1; TRU_NFT by TRU_03_1; CRE_NFA by TRU_01_2@1.00; CRE_NFA by TRU_02_2; CRE_NFA by TRU_03_2; CRE_NFA by REP_01_2; CRE_NFA by REP_02_2; CRE_NFA by REP_03_2; CRE_NFA by GOV_01_2; CRE_NFA by GOV_02_2; CRE_NFA by GOV_03_2; SAT_NFT by SAT_01_1@1.00; SAT_NFT by SAT_02_1; SAT_NFT by SAT_03_1; SAT_NFA by SAT_01_2@1.00; SAT_NFA by SAT_02_2; SAT_NFA by SAT_03_2; INT_NFT by INT_01_1@1.00; INT_NFT by INT_02_1; INT_NFT by INT_03_1; INT_NFA by INT_01_2@1.00; INT_NFA by INT_02_2; INT_NFA by INT_03_2; REP_NFT by REP_01_1@1.00; REP_NFT by REP_02_1; REP_NFT by REP_03_1;
!Item intercepts all freely estimated, NOT labelled
[TBE_01]; [TBE_02]; [TBE_03]; [TBE_04]; [TBE_05]; [TBE_06]; [NBE_01]; [NBE_02]; [NBE_03]; [NBE_0405]; [NBE_0607]; [NBE_0809]; [NBE_1011]; [NBE_1213]; [NBE_1415]; [NBE_1617]; [NBE_18]; [NBE_19]; [NBE_20]; [COM_01_1]; [COM_02_1]; [COM_03_1]; [COM_05_1]; [COM_06_1]; [IDE_01_1]; [IDE_02_1]; [TRU_01_1]; [TRU_02_1]; [TRU_03_1]; [TRU_01_2]; [TRU_02_2]; [TRU_03_2]; [REP_01_2]; [REP_02_2]; [REP_03_2]; [GOV_01_2]; [GOV_02_2]; [GOV_03_2]; [SAT_01_1];

```
[SAT_02_1]; [SAT_03_1]; [SAT_01_2]; [SAT_02_2]; [SAT_03_2]; [INT_01_1];
[INT_02_1]; [INT_03_1]; [INT_01_2]; [INT_02_2]; [INT_03_2]; [REP_01_1]; [REP_02_1];
[REP_03_1];
!Residual variances all freely estimated, NOT labelled
TBE_01; TBE_02; TBE_03; TBE_04; TBE_05; TBE_06; NBE_01; NBE_02; NBE_03;
NBE_0405; NBE_0607; NBE_0809; NBE_1011; NBE_1213; NBE_1415; NBE_1617;
NBE_18; NBE_19; NBE_20; COM_01_1; COM_02_1; COM_03_1; COM_05_1;
COM_06_1; IDE_01_1; IDE_02_1; TRU_01_1; TRU_02_1; TRU_03_1; TRU_01_2;
TRU_02_2; TRU_03_2; REP_01_2; REP_02_2; REP_03_2; GOV_01_2; GOV_02_2;
GOV_03_2; SAT_01_1; SAT_02_1; SAT_03_1; SAT_01_2; SAT_02_2; SAT_03_2;
INT_01_1; INT_02_1; INT_03_1; INT_01_2; INT_02_2; INT_03_2; REP_01_1;
REP_02_1; REP_03_1;
!Factor variance fixed to 1 for identification
TBE_ATT@1; TBE_MER@1; NBE_TVS@1; NBE_FBO@1; NBE_TWI@1; NBE_SOF@1;
COM_NFT@1; IDE_NFT@1; TRU_NFT@1; CRE_NFA@1; SAT_NFT@1; SAT_NFA@1;
INT_NFT@1; INT_NFA@1; REP_NFT@1;
!Factor mean fixed to 0 for identification
[TBE_ATT@0]; [TBE_MER@0]; [NBE_TVS@0]; [NBE_FBO@0]; [NBE_TWI@0];
[NBE_SOF@0]; [COM_NFT@0]; [IDE_NFT@0]; [TRU_NFT@0]; [CRE_NFA@0];
[SAT_NFT@0]; [SAT_NFA@0]; [INT_NFT@0]; [INT_NFA@0]; [REP_NFT@0];
OUTPUT:
SAMPSTAT;
STAND;
MODINDICES(10);
RESIDUAL;
TECH4;
```

Mplus Syntax Structural Equation Modelling I (SEM I-IV)

SEM I

```
TITLE: SEM I;
DATA: FILE is /Users/Desktop/20_GER.txt;
VARIABLE: NAMES ARE ID QUA_01 QUA_02 QUA_03 QUA_04 QUA_05 NBE_01
NBE_02 NBE_03 NBE_04 NBE_05 NBE_0405 NBE_06 NBE_07 NBE_0607 NBE_08
NBE_09 NBE_0809 NBE_10 NBE_11NBE_1011 NBE_FBO NBE_12 NBE_13
NBE_1213 NBE_14 NBE_15 NBE_1415NBE_16 NBE_17 NBE_1617 NBE_TWI
NBE_18 NBE_19 NBE_20 TBE_01 TBE_02 TBE_03 TBE_04 TBE_05 TBE_06
COM_01_1 COM_02_1 COM_03_1 COM_04_1 COM_05_1 COM_06_1 TRU_01_1
TRU_02_1 TRU_03_1 INT_01_1 INT_02_1 INT_03_1 REP_01_1 REP_02_1 REP_03_1
SAT_01_1 SAT_02_1 SAT_03_1 IDE_01_1 IDE_02_1 KNO_01_1 KNO_02_1
KNO_03_1 COM_01_2 COM_02_2 COM_03_2 COM_04_2 COM_05_2 COM_06_2
TRU_01_2 TRU_02_2 TRU_03_2 INT_01_2 INT_02_2 INT_03_2 REP_01_2 REP_02_2
REP_03_2 GOV_01_2 GOV_02_2 GOV_03_2 SAT_01_2 SAT_02_2 SAT_03_2
KNO_01_2 KNO_02_2 KNO_03_2 INF_01 INF_02 INF_03 INF_04 INF_05 INF_06
```

```
INF_07 INF_10 DEM_01 DEM_02 DEM_03 DEM_04 DEM_05 DEM_06 DEM_07
DEM_07_1 TBE_ATT TBE_MER NBE_TVS NBE_SON NBE_SOF COM_NFT
TRU_NFT INT_NFT REP_NFT SAT_NFT IDE_NFT KNO_NFT ATI_NFA TRU_NFA
INT_NFA REP_NFA GOV_NFA SAT_NFA KNO_NFA;
USEVARIABLES ARE ID NBE_01 NBE_02 NBE_03 NBE_0405 NBE_0607 NBE_0809
NBE_1011 NBE_1213 NBE_1415 NBE_1617 NBE_18 NBE_19 NBE_20 TBE_01
TBE_02 TBE_03 TBE_04 TBE_05 TBE_06 COM_01_1 COM_02_1 COM_03_1
COM_05_1 COM_06_1 TRU_01_1 TRU_02_1 TRU_03_1 INT_01_1 INT_02_1
INT_03_1 REP_01_1 REP_02_1 REP_03_1 SAT_01_1 SAT_02_1 SAT_03_1 IDE_01_1
IDE_02_1 TRU_01_2 TRU_02_2 TRU_03_2 INT_01_2 INT_02_2 INT_03_2 REP_01_2
REP_02_2 REP_03_2 GOV_01_2 GOV_02_2 GOV_03_2 SAT_01_2 SAT_02_2
SAT_03_2;
IDVARIABLE = Id;
MISSING are all(999);
ANALYSIS: ESTIMATOR IS MLR;
MODEL: TBE_ATT by TBE_01 TBE_02 TBE_03;
TBE_MER by TBE_04 TBE_05 TBE_06;
NBE_TVS by NBE_01 NBE_02 NBE_03;
NBE_FBO by NBE_0405 NBE_0607 NBE_0809 NBE_1011;
NBE_TWI by NBE_1213 NBE_1415 NBE_1617;
NBE_SOF by NBE_18 NBE_19 NBE_20;
COM_NFT by COM_01_1 COM_02_1 COM_03_1 COM_05_1 COM_06_1;
IDE_NFT by IDE_01_1 IDE_02_1;
TRU_NFT by TRU_01_1 TRU_02_1 TRU_03_1;
CRE_NFA by TRU_01_2 TRU_02_2 TRU_03_2 REP_01_2 REP_02_2 REP_03_2
GOV_01_2 GOV_02_2 GOV_03_2;
SAT_NFT by SAT_01_1 SAT_02_1 SAT_03_1;
SAT_NFA by SAT_01_2 SAT_02_2 SAT_03_2;
INT_NFT by INT_01_1 INT_02_1 INT_03_1;
INT_NFA by INT_01_2 INT_02_2 INT_03_2;
REP_NFT by REP_01_1 REP_02_1 REP_03_1;
FEB_NFT by TBE_ATT TBE_MER NBE_TVS NBE_FBO NBE_TWI NBE_SOF;
FEB_NFT on COM_NFT TRU_NFT CRE_NFA SAT_NFT SAT_NFA INT_NFT
INT_NFA;
COM_NFT on IDE_NFT TRU_NFT CRE_NFA SAT_NFT SAT_NFA INT_NFT
INT_NFA;
TRU_NFT on REP_NFT;
OUTPUT:
SAMPSTAT;
STAND;
MODINDICES(10);
RESIDUAL;
TECH4;
```

SEM II

```
TITLE: SEM II;
DATA: FILE is /Users/Desktop/20_GER.txt;
VARIABLE: NAMES ARE ID QUA_01 QUA_02 QUA_03 QUA_04 QUA_05 NBE_01
NBE_02 NBE_03 NBE_04 NBE_05 NBE_0405 NBE_06 NBE_07 NBE_0607 NBE_08
NBE_09 NBE_0809 NBE_10 NBE_11 NBE_1011 NBE_FBO NBE_12 NBE_13
NBE_1213 NBE_14 NBE_15 NBE_1415 NBE_16 NBE_17 NBE_1617 NBE_TWI
NBE_18 NBE_19 NBE_20 TBE_01 TBE_02 TBE_03 TBE_04 TBE_05 TBE_06
COM_01_1 COM_02_1 COM_03_1 COM_04_1 COM_05_1 COM_06_1 TRU_01_1
TRU_02_1 TRU_03_1 INT_01_1 INT_02_1 INT_03_1 REP_01_1 REP_02_1 REP_03_1
SAT_01_1 SAT_02_1 SAT_03_1 IDE_01_1 IDE_02_1 KNO_01_1 KNO_02_1
KNO_03_1 COM_01_2 COM_02_2 COM_03_2 COM_04_2 COM_05_2 COM_06_2
TRU_01_2 TRU_02_2 TRU_03_2 INT_01_2 INT_02_2 INT_03_2 REP_01_2 REP_02_2
REP_03_2 GOV_01_2 GOV_02_2 GOV_03_2 SAT_01_2 SAT_02_2 SAT_03_2
KNO_01_2 KNO_02_2 KNO_03_2 INF_01 INF_02 INF_03 INF_04 INF_05 INF_06
INF_07 INF_10 DEM_01 DEM_02 DEM_03 DEM_04 DEM_05 DEM_06 DEM_07
DEM_07_1 TBE_ATT TBE_MER NBE_TVS NBE_SON NBE_SOF COM_NFT
TRU_NFT INT_NFT REP_NFT SAT_NFT IDE_NFT KNO_NFT ATI_NFA TRU_NFA
INT_NFA REP_NFA GOV_NFA SAT_NFA KNO_NFA;
USEVARIABLES ARE ID NBE_01 NBE_02 NBE_03 NBE_0405 NBE_0607 NBE_0809
NBE_1011 NBE_1213 NBE_1415 NBE_1617 NBE_18 NBE_19 NBE_20 TBE_01
TBE_02 TBE_03 TBE_04 TBE_05 TBE_06 COM_01_1 COM_02_1 COM_03_1
COM_05_1 COM_06_1 TRU_01_1 TRU_02_1 TRU_03_1 INT_01_1 INT_02_1
INT_03_1 REP_01_1 REP_02_1 REP_03_1 SAT_01_1 SAT_02_1 SAT_03_1 IDE_01_1
IDE_02_1 TRU_01_2 TRU_02_2 TRU_03_2 INT_01_2 INT_02_2 INT_03_2 REP_01_2
REP_02_2 REP_03_2 GOV_01_2 GOV_02_2 GOV_03_2 SAT_01_2 SAT_02_2
SAT_03_2;
IDVARIABLE = Id;
MISSING are all(999);
ANALYSIS: ESTIMATOR IS MLR;
MODEL: TBE_ATT by TBE_01 TBE_02 TBE_03;
TBE_MER by TBE_04 TBE_05 TBE_06;
NBE_TVS by NBE_01 NBE_02 NBE_03;
NBE_FBO by NBE_0405 NBE_0607 NBE_0809 NBE_1011;
NBE_TWI by NBE_1213 NBE_1415 NBE_1617;
NBE_SOF by NBE_18 NBE_19 NBE_20;
COM_NFT by COM_01_1 COM_02_1 COM_03_1 COM_05_1 COM_06_1;
IDE_NFT by IDE_01_1 IDE_02_1;
TRU_NFT by TRU_01_1 TRU_02_1 TRU_03_1;
CRE_NFA by TRU_01_2 TRU_02_2 TRU_03_2 REP_01_2 REP_02_2 REP_03_2
GOV_01_2 GOV_02_2 GOV_03_2;
SAT_NFT by SAT_01_1 SAT_02_1 SAT_03_1;
SAT_NFA by SAT_01_2 SAT_02_2 SAT_03_2;
```

```
INT_NFT by INT_01_1 INT_02_1 INT_03_1;
INT_NFA by INT_01_2 INT_02_2 INT_03_2;
REP_NFT by REP_01_1 REP_02_1 REP_03_1;
FEB_NFT by TBE_ATT TBE_MER NBE_TVS NBE_FBO NBE_TWI NBE_SOF;
FEB_NFT on COM_NFT;
COM_NFT on IDE_NFT TRU_NFT CRE_NFA SAT_NFT SAT_NFA INT_NFT
INT_NFA;
TRU_NFT on REP_NFT;
OUTPUT:
SAMPSTAT;
STAND;
MODINDICES(10);
RESIDUAL;
TECH4;
```

SEM III

```
TITLE: SEM III;
DATA: FILE is /Users/Desktop/20_GER.txt;
VARIABLE: NAMES ARE ID QUA_01 QUA_02 QUA_03 QUA_04 QUA_05 NBE_01
NBE_02 NBE_03 NBE_04 NBE_05 NBE_0405 NBE_06 NBE_07 NBE_0607 NBE_08
NBE_09 NBE_0809 NBE_10 NBE_11 NBE_1011 NBE_FBO NBE_12 NBE_13
NBE_1213 NBE_14 NBE_15 NBE_1415 NBE_16 NBE_17 NBE_1617 NBE_TWI
NBE_18 NBE_19 NBE_20 TBE_01 TBE_02 TBE_03 TBE_04 TBE_05 TBE_06
COM_01_1 COM_02_1 COM_03_1 COM_04_1 COM_05_1 COM_06_1 TRU_01_1
TRU_02_1 TRU_03_1 INT_01_1 INT_02_1 INT_03_1 REP_01_1 REP_02_1 REP_03_1
SAT_01_1 SAT_02_1 SAT_03_1 IDE_01_1 IDE_02_1 KNO_01_1 KNO_02_1
KNO_03_1 COM_01_2 COM_02_2 COM_03_2 COM_04_2 COM_05_2 COM_06_2
TRU_01_2 TRU_02_2 TRU_03_2 INT_01_2 INT_02_2 INT_03_2 REP_01_2 REP_02_2
REP_03_2 GOV_01_2 GOV_02_2 GOV_03_2 SAT_01_2 SAT_02_2 SAT_03_2
KNO_01_2 KNO_02_2 KNO_03_2 INF_01 INF_02 INF_03 INF_04 INF_05 INF_06
INF_07 INF_10 DEM_01 DEM_02 DEM_03 DEM_04 DEM_05 DEM_06 DEM_07
DEM_07_1 TBE_ATT TBE_MER NBE_TVS NBE_SON NBE_SOF COM_NFT
TRU_NFT INT_NFT REP_NFT SAT_NFT IDE_NFT KNO_NFT ATI_NFA TRU_NFA
INT_NFA REP_NFA GOV_NFA SAT_NFA KNO_NFA;
USEVARIABLES ARE ID NBE_01 NBE_02 NBE_03 NBE_0405 NBE_0607 NBE_0809
NBE_1011 NBE_1213 NBE_1415 NBE_1617 NBE_18 NBE_19 NBE_20 TBE_01
TBE_02 TBE_03 TBE_04 TBE_05 TBE_06 COM_01_1 COM_02_1 COM_03_1
COM_05_1 COM_06_1 TRU_01_1 TRU_02_1 TRU_03_1 INT_01_1 INT_02_1
INT_03_1 REP_01_1 REP_02_1 REP_03_1 SAT_01_1 SAT_02_1 SAT_03_1 IDE_01_1
IDE_02_1 TRU_01_2 TRU_02_2 TRU_03_2 INT_01_2 INT_02_2 INT_03_2 REP_01_2
REP_02_2 REP_03_2 GOV_01_2 GOV_02_2 GOV_03_2 SAT_01_2 SAT_02_2
SAT_03_2;
IDVARIABLE = Id;
```

```
MISSING are all(999);
ANALYSIS: ESTIMATOR IS MLR;
MODEL: TBE_ATT by TBE_01 TBE_02 TBE_03;
TBE_MER by TBE_04 TBE_05 TBE_06;
NBE_TVS by NBE_01 NBE_02 NBE_03;
NBE_FBO by NBE_0405 NBE_0607 NBE_0809 NBE_1011;
NBE_TWI by NBE_1213 NBE_1415 NBE_1617;
NBE_SOF by NBE_18 NBE_19 NBE_20;
COM_NFT by COM_01_1 COM_02_1 COM_03_1 COM_05_1 COM_06_1;
IDE_NFT by IDE_01_1 IDE_02_1;
TRU_NFT by TRU_01_1 TRU_02_1 TRU_03_1;
CRE_NFA by TRU_01_2 TRU_02_2 TRU_03_2 REP_01_2 REP_02_2 REP_03_2
GOV_01_2 GOV_02_2 GOV_03_2;
SAT_NFT by SAT_01_1 SAT_02_1 SAT_03_1;
SAT_NFA by SAT_01_2 SAT_02_2 SAT_03_2;
INT_NFT by INT_01_1 INT_02_1 INT_03_1;
INT_NFA by INT_01_2 INT_02_2 INT_03_2;
REP_NFT by REP_01_1 REP_02_1 REP_03_1;
TBE_ATT on COM_NFT;
TBE_MER on COM_NFT;
NBE_TVS on COM_NFT;
NBE_FBO on COM_NFT;
NBE_TWI on COM_NFT;
NBE_SOF on COM_NFT;
COM_NFT on IDE_NFT TRU_NFT CRE_NFA SAT_NFT SAT_NFA INT_NFT
INT_NFA;
TRU_NFT on REP_NFT;
OUTPUT:
SAMPSTAT;
STAND;
MODINDICES(10);
RESIDUAL;
TECH4;
```

SEM IV

```
TITLE: SEM IV;
DATA: FILE is /Users/paulhuiszoon/Desktop/31_GER.txt;
VARIABLE: NAMES ARE ID QUA_01 QUA_02 QUA_03 QUA_04 QUA_05 NBE_01
NBE_02 NBE_03 NBE_04 NBE_05 NBE_0405 NBE_06 NBE_07 NBE_0607 NBE_08
NBE_09 NBE_0809 NBE_10 NBE_11 NBE_1011 NBE_FBO NBE_12 NBE_13
NBE_1213 NBE_14 NBE_15 NBE_1415 NBE_16 NBE_17 NBE_1617 NBE_TWI
NBE_18 NBE_19 NBE_20 TBE_01 TBE_02 TBE_03 TBE_04 TBE_05 TBE_06
COM_01_1 COM_02_1 COM_03_1 COM_04_1 COM_05_1 COM_06_1 TRU_01_1
```

```
zTRU01_1 TRU_02_1 zTRU02_1 TRU_03_1 zTRU03_1 INT_01_1 zINT01_1 INT_02_1
zINT02_1 INT_03_1 zINT03_1 REP_01_1 zREP01_1 REP_02_1 zREP02_1 REP_03_1
zREP03_1 SAT_01_1 zSAT01_1 SAT_02_1 zSAT02_1 SAT_03_1 zSAT03_1 IDE_01_1
IDE_02_1 KNO_01_1 KNO_02_1 KNO_03_1 COM_01_2 COM_02_2 COM_03_2
COM_04_2 COM_05_2 COM_06_2 TRU_01_2 zTRU01_2 TRU_02_2 zTRU02_2
TRU_03_2 zTRU03_2 INT_01_2 zINT01_2 INT_02_2 zINT02_2 INT_03_2 zINT03_2
REP_01_2 zREP01_2 REP_02_2 zREP02_2 REP_03_2 zREP03_2 GOV_01_2
GOV_02_2 GOV_03_2 SAT_01_2 zSAT01_2 SAT_02_2 zSAT02_2 SAT_03_2
zSAT03_2 KNO_01_2 KNO_02_2 KNO_03_2 INF_01 INF_02 INF_03 INF_04 INF_05
INF_06 INF_07 INF_10 DEM_01 DEM_02 DEM_03 DEM_04 DEM_05 DEM_06
DEM_07 DEM_07_1 TBE_ATT TBE_MER NBE_TVS NBE_SON NBE_SOF COM_NFT
TRU_NFT INT_NFT REP_NFT SAT_NFT IDE_NFT KNO_NFT ATI_NFA TRU_NFA
INT_NFA REP_NFA GOV_NFA SAT_NFA KNO_NFA TRU_CRE1 TRU_CRE2
TRU_CRE3 TRU_TRU1 TRU_TRU2 TRU_TRU3 SAT_SAT1 SAT_SAT2 SAT_SAT3
INT_INT1 INT_INT2 INT_INT3 REP_REP1 REP_REP2 REP_REP3 ParcelM zParcelM
ParcelN zParcelN ParcelO zParcelO;
USEVARIABLES ARE ID NBE_01 NBE_02 NBE_03 NBE_0405 NBE_0607 NBE_0809
NBE_1011 NBE_1213 NBE_1415 NBE_1617 NBE_18 NBE_19 NBE_20 TBE_01
TBE_02 TBE_03 TBE_04 TBE_05 TBE_06 COM_01_1 COM_02_1 COM_03_1
COM_05_1 COM_06_1 TRU_01_1 TRU_02_1 TRU_03_1 INT_01_1 INT_02_1
INT_03_1 REP_01_1 REP_02_1 REP_03_1 SAT_01_1 SAT_02_1 SAT_03_1 IDE_01_1
IDE_02_1 TRU_01_2 TRU_02_2 TRU_03_2 INT_01_2 INT_02_2 INT_03_2 REP_01_2
REP_02_2 REP_03_2 GOV_01_2 GOV_02_2 GOV_03_2 SAT_01_2 SAT_02_2
SAT_03_2 TRU_CRE1 TRU_CRE2 TRU_CRE3 SAT_SAT1 SAT_SAT2 SAT_SAT3
INT_INT1 INT_INT2 INT_INT3;
IDVARIABLE = Id;
MISSING are all(999);
ANALYSIS: ESTIMATOR IS MLR;
MODEL: TBE_ATT by TBE_01 TBE_02 TBE_03;
TBE_MER by TBE_04 TBE_05 TBE_06;
NBE_TVS by NBE_01 NBE_02 NBE_03;
NBE_FBO by NBE_0405 NBE_0607 NBE_0809 NBE_1011;
NBE_TWI by NBE_1213 NBE_1415 NBE_1617;
NBE_SOF by NBE_18 NBE_19 NBE_20;
COM_NFT by COM_01_1 COM_02_1 COM_03_1 COM_05_1 COM_06_1;
IDE_NFT by IDE_01_1 IDE_02_1;
TRU_NFT by TRU_01_1 TRU_02_1 TRU_03_1;
CRE_NFA by TRU_01_2 TRU_02_2 TRU_03_2 REP_01_2 REP_02_2 REP_03_2
GOV_01_2 GOV_02_2 GOV_03_2;
SAT_NFT by SAT_01_1 SAT_02_1 SAT_03_1;
SAT_NFA by SAT_01_2 SAT_02_2 SAT_03_2;
INT_NFT by INT_01_1 INT_02_1 INT_03_1;
INT_NFA by INT_01_2 INT_02_2 INT_03_2;
```

```
REP_NFT by REP_01_1 REP_02_1 REP_03_1;
TRU_CRE by TRU_CRE1 TRU_CRE2 TRU_CRE3;
SAT_SAT by SAT_SAT1 SAT_SAT2 SAT_SAT3;
INT_INT by INT_INT1 INT_INT2 INT_INT3;
TBE_ATT on COM_NFT;
TBE_MER on COM_NFT;
NBE_TVS on COM_NFT;
NBE_FBO on COM_NFT;
NBE_TWI on COM_NFT;
NBE_SOF on COM_NFT;
COM_NFT on IDE_NFT TRU_NFT CRE_NFA SAT_NFT SAT_NFA INT_NFT INT_NFA
TRU_CRE SAT_SAT INT_INT;
TRU_NFT on REP_NFT;
OUTPUT:
SAMPSTAT;
STAND;
MODINDICES(10);
RESIDUAL;
TECH4;
```

Mplus Syntax Latent Profile Analysis I (LPA I)

(for reasons of space we present the four-class LPA for GER only)

```
TITLE: LPA_4_C GER;
DATA: FILE is /Users/Desktop/40_GER.txt;
VARIABLE: NAMES ARE ID QUA_01 QUA_02 QUA_03 QUA_04 QUA_05 NBE_01
NBE_02 NBE_03 NBE_04 NBE_05 NBE_0405 NBE_06 NBE_07 NBE_0607 NBE_08
NBE_09 NBE_0809 NBE_10 NBE_11 NBE_1011 NBE_FBO NBE_12 NBE_13
NBE_1213 NBE_14 NBE_15 NBE_1415 NBE_16 NBE_17 NBE_1617 NBE_TWI
NBE_18 NBE_19 NBE_20 TBE_01 TBE_02 TBE_03 TBE_04 TBE_05 TBE_06
COM_01_1 COM_02_1 COM_03_1 COM_04_1 COM_05_1 COM_06_1 TRU_01_1
TRU_02_1 TRU_03_1 INT_01_1 INT_02_1 INT_03_1 REP_01_1 REP_02_1 REP_03_1
SAT_01_1 SAT_02_1 SAT_03_1 IDE_01_1 IDE_02_1 KNO_01_1 KNO_02_1
KNO_03_1 COM_01_2 COM_02_2 COM_03_2 COM_04_2 COM_05_2 COM_06_2
TRU_01_2 TRU_02_2 TRU_03_2 INT_01_2 INT_02_2 INT_03_2 REP_01_2 REP_02_2
REP_03_2 GOV_01_2 GOV_02_2 GOV_03_2 SAT_01_2 SAT_02_2 SAT_03_2
KNO_01_2 KNO_02_2 KNO_03_2 INF_01 INF_02 INF_03 INF_04 INF_05 INF_06
INF_07 INF_10 DEM_01 DEM_02 DEM_03 DEM_04 DEM_05 DEM_06 DEM_07
DEM_07_1 TBE_ATT TBE_MER NBE_TVS NBE_SON NBE_SOF COM_NFT
TRU_NFT INT_NFT REP_NFT SAT_NFT IDE_NFT KNO_NFT ATI_NFA TRU_NFA
INT_NFA REP_NFA GOV_NFA SAT_NFA KNO_NFA;
IDVARIABLE = ID;
MISSING are all(999);
```

```
CLASSES = C(4);
USEVAR = TBE_ATT TBE_MER NBE_SON NBE_SOF NBE_TVS COM_NFT;
ANALYSIS:
TYPE = mixture;
STARTS = 50 5;
OUTPUT: SAMPSTAT STANDARDIZED TECH1 TECH10 TECH11 TECH14;
SAVEDATA:
SAVE = cprobabilities;
FILE is 4_C_GER.dat;
```

Mplus Syntax Latent Profile Analysis with covariates (LPA II)

(for reasons of space we present the four-class LPA (GER) with the covariate Credibility of the SGB only)

```
TITLE: LPA+CO_4_C_CRE_SGB GER;
DATA: FILE is /Users/Desktop/47_GER.txt;
VARIABLE: NAMES ARE ID QUA_01 QUA_02 QUA_03 QUA_04 QUA_05 NBE_01
NBE_02 NBE_03 NBE_04 NBE_05 NBE_0405 NBE_06 NBE_07 NBE_0607 NBE_08
NBE_09 NBE_0809 NBE_10 NBE_11 NBE_1011 NBE_FBO NBE_12 NBE_13
NBE_1213 NBE_14 NBE_15 NBE_1415 NBE_16 NBE_17 NBE_1617 NBE_TWI
NBE_18 NBE_19 NBE_20 TBE_01 TBE_02 TBE_03 TBE_04 TBE_05 TBE_06
COM_01_1 COM_02_1 COM_03_1 COM_04_1 COM_05_1 COM_06_1 TRU_01_1
TRU_02_1 TRU_03_1 INT_01_1 INT_02_1 INT_03_1 REP_01_1 REP_02_1 REP_03_1
SAT_01_1 SAT_02_1 SAT_03_1 IDE_01_1 IDE_02_1 KNO_01_1 KNO_02_1
KNO_03_1 COM_01_2 COM_02_2 COM_03_2 COM_04_2 COM_05_2 COM_06_2
TRU_01_2 TRU_02_2 TRU_03_2 INT_01_2 INT_02_2 INT_03_2 REP_01_2 REP_02_2
REP_03_2 GOV_01_2 GOV_02_2 GOV_03_2 SAT_01_2 SAT_02_2 SAT_03_2
KNO_01_2 KNO_02_2 KNO_03_2 INF_01 INF_02 INF_03 INF_04 INF_05 INF_06
INF_07 INF_10 DEM_01 DEM_02 DEM_03 DEM_04 DEM_05 DEM_06 DEM_07
DEM_07_1 TBE_ATT TBE_MER NBE_TVS NBE_SON NBE_SOF COM_NFT
TRU_NFT INT_NFT REP_NFT SAT_NFT IDE_NFT KNO_NFT ATI_NFA TRU_NFA
INT_NFA REP_NFA GOV_NFA SAT_NFA KNO_NFA CRE_NFA;
IDVARIABLE = ID;
MISSING are all(999);
CLASSES = C(4);
USEVAR = TBE_ATT TBE_MER NBE_SON NBE_SOF NBE_TVS COM_NFT
CRE_NFA;
MODEL:
%Overall%
C#1 C#2 C#3 on CRE_NFA;
%C#1%
[TBE_ATT TBE_MER NBE_SON NBE_SOF NBE_TVS COM_NFT];
%C#2%
```

```
[TBE_ATT TBE_MER NBE_SON NBE_SOF NBE_TVS COM_NFT];
%C#3%
[TBE_ATT TBE_MER NBE_SON NBE_SOF NBE_TVS COM_NFT];
%C#4%
[TBE_ATT TBE_MER NBE_SON NBE_SOF NBE_TVS COM_NFT];
ANALYSIS:
TYPE = mixture;
STARTS = 50 5;
OUTPUT: SAMPSTAT STANDARDIZED TECH1 TECH10 TECH11 TECH14;
SAVEDATA:
SAVE = cprobabilities;
FILE is 4_C+CO_GER.dat;
```

Appendix H Distribution of demographics and further individual variables in each spectator profile for FRA sample (frequency in %)

Variable	Flâneur		Armchair Followers		Armchair Supporters		χ^2 p-value
Gender							0.00
Male	75	(22.9)	212	(64.6)	41	(12.5)	
Female	65	(58.0)	42	(37.5)	5	(4.5)	
Age							0.00
≤ 20 years	7	(14.0)	31	(62.0)	12	(24.0)	
21 to 30 years	57	(28.4)	123	(61.2)	21	(10.4)	
31 to 40 years	42	(35.0)	70	(58.3)	8	(6.7)	
41 to 50 years	23	(46.0)	24	(48.0)	3	(6.0)	
51 to 60 years	8	(80.0)	2	(20.0)	0	(0.0)	
> 60 years	3	(75.0)	1	(25.0)	0	(0.0)	
Educational attainment							
Low	0	(0.0)	1	(50.0)	1	(50.0)	0.02
Medium	22	(23.4)	56	(59.6)	16	(17.0)	
High	112	(35.3)	178	(56.2)	27	(8.5)	
Individual income p.a.							0.30
≤ €20,000	47	(30.5)	90	(58.4)	17	(11.0)	
€20,001 - €30,000	34	(34.3)	56	(56.6)	9	(9.1)	
€30,001 - €40,000	21	(36.8)	31	(54.4)	5	(8.8)	
€40,001 - €50,000	10	(26.3)	23	(60.5)	5	(13.2)	
€50,001 - €75,000	6	(42.9)	7	(50.0)	1	(7.1)	
€75,001 - €100,000	2	(50.0)	2	(50.0	0	(0.0)	
€100,001 - €150,000	2	(66.7)	0	(0.0)	1	(33.3)	
≥ €150,001	0	(0.0)	0	(0.0)	1	(100)	
Attitude toward SGB							0.00
Low	66	(37.7)	98	(56.0)	11	(6.3)	
Medium	70	(35.5)	108	(54.3)	21	(10.6)	
High	4	(5.9)	50	(73.5)	14	(20.6)	

(Continued)

Continued.

Variable	Flâneur		Armchair Followers		Armchair Supporters		χ^2 p-value
Knowledge of SPT							0.00
Low	85	(75.2)	27	(23.9)	1	(0.9)	
Medium	31	(39.7)	39	(50.0)	8	(10.3)	
High	24	(9.6)	190	(75.7)	37	(14.7)	
Knowledge of SGB							0.00
Low	114	(48.1)	109	(46.0)	14	(5.9)	
Medium	19	(16.4)	80	(69.0)	17	(14.7)	
High	7	(7.9)	67	(75.3)	15	(16.9)	
Distinction SPT and SGB							0.01
Yes	13	(19.4)	41	(61.2)	13	(19.4)	
No	127	(33.9)	215	(57.3)	33	(8.8)	
Official supporter's club member							0.00
Yes	0	(0.0)	7	(58.3)	5	(41.7)	
No	140	(32.6)	249	(57.9)	41	(9.5)	
Unofficial supporter's club member							0.00
Yes	0	(0.0)	2	(28.6)	5	(71.4)	
No	140	(32.2)	254	(58.4)	41	(9.4)	
Supporter's club member of league team							0.00
Yes	8	(13.6)	40	(67.8)	11	(18.6)	
No	132	(34.5)	216	(56.4)	35	(9.1)	
Active, playing football club member							0.00
Yes	8	(8.7)	59	(64.1)	25	(27.2)	
No	132	(37.7)	197	(56.3)	21	(6.0)	
Passive, non-playing football club member							0.00
Yes	4	(8.2)	35	(71.4)	10	(20.4)	
No	136	(34.6)	221	(56.2)	36	(9.2)	
Football playing without affiliation to club							0.00
Yes	25	(13.8)	128	(70.7)	28	(15.5)	
No	115	(44.1)	128	(49.0)	18	(6.9)	

(Continued)

Continued.

Variable	Flâneur		Armchair Followers		Armchair Supporters		χ^2 p-value
Regularity of following league football							0.00
Never	76	(83.5)	14	(15.4)	1	(1.1)	
Every four weeks	25	(55.6)	19	(42.2)	1	(2.2)	
Every three weeks	7	(41.2)	10	(58.8)	0	(0.0)	
Every other week	9	(15.8)	40	(70.2)	8	(14.0)	
Weekly	23	(9.9)	173	(74.6)	36	(15.5)	

Appendix I Distribution of demographics and further individual variables in each spectator profile for GER sample (frequency in %)

Variable	Flâneur		Armchair Followers		Armchair Supporters		Supporters		χ^2 p-value
Gender									0.00
Male	100	(28.9)	190	(54.9)	34	(9.8)	22	(6.4)	
Female	64	(44.8)	74	(51.7)	3	(2.1)	2	(1.4)	
Age									0.00
≤ 20 years	3	(30.0)	7	(70.0)	0	(0.0)	0	(0.0)	
21 to 30 years	61	(36.3)	101	(60.1)	3	(1.8)	3	(1.8)	
31 to 40 years	31	(35.2)	42	(47.7)	14	(15.9)	1	(1.1)	
41 to 50 years	20	(27.4)	35	(47.9)	10	(13.7)	8	(11.0)	
51 to 60 years	22	(28.6)	46	(59.7)	5	(6.5)	4	(5.2)	
> 60 years	22	(32.4)	33	(48.5)	5	(7.4)	8	(11.8)	
Educational attainment									0.45
Low	12	(27.3)	22	(50.0)	5	(11.4)	5	(11.4)	
Medium	36	(28.3)	75	(59.1)	11	(8.7)	5	(3.9)	
High	106	(36.7)	150	(51.9)	19	(6.6)	14	(4.8)	
Individual income p.a.									0.04
≤ €20,000	22	(34.9)	39	(61.9)	1	(1.6)	1	(1.6)	
€20,001 - €30,000	13	(41.9)	14	(45.2)	4	(12.9)	0	(0.0)	
€30,001 - €40,000	29	(46.8)	27	(43.5)	4	(6.5)	2	(3.2)	
€40,001 - €50,000	15	(26.3)	36	(63.2)	2	(3.5)	4	(7.0)	
€50,001 - €75,000	21	(25.6)	46	(56.1)	10	(12.2)	5	(6.1)	
€75,001 - €100,000	8	(25.0)	15	(46.9)	7	(21.9)	2	(6.2)	
€100,001 - €150,000	5	(21.7)	14	(60.9)	2	(8.7)	2	(8.7)	
≥ €150,001	9	(50.0)	8	(44.4)	0	(0.0)	1	(5.6)	
Attitude toward SGB									
Low	86	(42.6)	94	(46.5)	16	(7.9)	6	(3.0)	0.00
Medium	66	(36.9)	95	(53.1)	9	(5.0)	9	(5.0)	
High	13	(11.8)	76	(69.1)	12	(10.9)	9	(8.2)	

(Continued)

Continued.

Variable	Flâneur		Armchair Followers		Armchair Supporters		Supporters		χ^2 p-value
Knowledge of SPT									0.00
Low	115	(68.0)	50	(29.6)	3	(1.8)	1	(0.6)	
Medium	27	(22.0)	87	(70.7)	5	(4.1)	4	(3.3)	
High	23	(11.6)	128	(64.3)	29	(14.6)	19	(9.5)	
Knowledge of SGB									0.00
Low	130	(48.9)	123	(46.2)	10	(3.8)	3	(1.1)	
Medium	21	(16.8)	86	(68.8)	8	(6.4)	10	(8.0)	
High	14	(14.0)	56	(56.0)	19	(19.0)	11	(11.0)	
Distinction SPT and SGB									0.30
Yes	34	(27.2)	74	(59.2)	9	(7.2)	8	(6.4)	
No	131	(35.8)	191	(52.2)	28	(7.7)	16	(4.4)	
Official supporter's club member									0.00
Yes	5	(4.5)	45	(40.5)	37	(33.3)	24	(21.6)	
No	160	(42.1)	220	(57.9)	0	(0.0)	0	(0.0)	
Unofficial supporter's club member									0.00
Yes	1	(7.7)	5	(38.5)	2	(15.4)	5	(38.5)	
No	164	(34.3)	260	(54.4)	35	(7.3)	19	(4.0)	
Supporter's club member of league team									0.00
Yes	16	(16.5)	58	(59.8)	16	(16.5)	7	(7.2)	
No	149	(37.8)	207	(52.5)	21	(5.3)	17	(4.3)	
Active, playing football club member									0.02
Yes	11	(16.7)	43	(65.2)	7	(10.6)	5	(7.6)	
No	154	(36.2)	222	(52.2)	30	(7.1)	19	(4.5)	
Passive, non-playing football club member									0.00
Yes	21	(20.0)	57	(54.3)	20	(19.0)	7	(6.7)	
No	144	(37.3)	208	(53.9)	17	(4.4)	17	(4.4)	

(Continued)

Continued.

Variable	Flâneur		Armchair Followers		Armchair Supporters		Supporters		χ^2 p-value
Football playing without affiliation to club									0.00
Yes	10	(13.7)	50	(68.5)	9	(12.3)	4	(5.5)	
No	155	(37.1)	215	(51.4)	28	(6.7)	20	(4.8)	
Regularity of following league football									0.00
Never	77	(74.0)	25	(24.0)	2	(1.9)	0	(0.0)	
Every four weeks	27	(45.8)	31	(52.5)	1	(1.7)	0	(0.0)	
Every three weeks	11	(32.4)	23	(67.6)	0	(0.0)	0	(0.0)	
Every other week	14	(21.5)	42	(64.6)	7	(10.8)	2	(3.1)	
Weekly	36	(15.7)	144	(62.9)	27	(11.8)	22	(9.6)	

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SUMMARY

The purpose of the study was to broaden the knowledge of contemporary sport spectator's relationships with sports teams and sport governing bodies. The postmodern sport consumer has been described as elusive, having a chameleon-like nature that is the manifestation of an abundance and contrariness of behaviours, wants and expectations (Bodet, 2009b). Similarly, the kinds of relationships sport spectators want to establish with sports team have become increasingly complex (Bodet et al., 2017). This study tries to capture this complexity in a holistic Fan-Relationship-Management-Model (FRM Model; Adamson et al., 2006). Different to earlier models that investigated the relationship between a sport spectator and a sports team, this study expands the original dyad and includes the team's governing body into the model. By including the sport governing body, this study gives insights in the formation of loyalty within the spectator-team-governing body-triad.

The study is of interest for theory and practice equally. An advanced understanding of the postmodern sport consumer can be the basis for marketing approaches that win and retain customers more successfully. Especially if managers of profit- and performance-oriented sport organisations pursue the retention or maximisation of profit and prestige through a large following and high audience figures, i.e. loyalty. Furthermore, the need for improved marketing intelligence has been stressed by sport marketing scholars, as they liked five contemporary challenges to customer acquisition and retention in sports:

1. High demand for enchanted experiences despite growing rationalisation (Bodet, 2016),
2. negative customer attitudes due to willful misconduct by sport governing bodies (Huiszoon et al., 2018),
3. complex relational expectations of customers (Bodet et al., 2017),
4. a plethora of entertainment alternatives (Bodet, 2009a), and
5. an absence of high media exposure or sporting success (Bodet, 2013).

Loyalty is an excellent concept to understand the quality of a relationship. It can be used as an indicator and predictor for an organisation's business success. It does not just measure customer retention but also indicates the retention's value (Reichheld & Teal, 1996). In this vein, the study tries to answer two research questions:

How and to what extent is the loyalty towards a sports team determined by a sport spectator's relationship with the sports team and its sport governing body?

By using a refined conceptualisation of loyalty, which spectator profiles can be identified?

The research environment in which the research questions are tackled is football, "the only truly global sport" (p. 53) and textbook example for sport's intense commodification and commercialisation (A. J. Walsh & Giulianotti, 2001). Specifically, this study uses the example of national football teams and national football governing bodies from France and Germany.

A structural equation modelling approach is used to test, calibrate and validate the FRM Model among samples of four hundred fifty-five and five hundred five football spectators. First, the German sample is used to test and calibrate the initial FRM Model. Then, the French sample is used to validate the final FRM Model. Further, a latent profile analysis is implemented to uncover spectator profiles based on a two-dimensional loyalty conceptualisation. Additional latent profile analyses with

covariates from the model allow identifying variables that facilitate profile belongingness.

The final model revealed major country-specific differences in the relationships within the spectator-team-governing body-triad. In the French sample, for example, satisfaction and trust do not contribute to loyalty; a major contradiction to the established marketing literature. From all suggested relationships in the FRM Model only identification with the team has an influence on the attitudinal dimension of loyalty. By contrast, in the German sample, the sport governing body's credibility has an influence on Fan commitment stronger than trust in or satisfaction with the team.

In both samples, non-loyal, latent loyal, and loyal spectator profiles were found. In reference to established literature the profiles were labelled as Flâneur (Giulianotti, 2002), Armchair Follower (cf. characterisation of Followers by Giulianotti, 2002), Armchair Supporter (Harris & Ogbonna, 2008), and Supporter (in the German sample only; Giulianotti, 2002; Tapp & Clowes, 2000). Conclusively, the influences within the FRM Model are different for both countries, yet, the composition of the spectator profiles is similar.

This study is useful to appreciate a sport governing body's role in the spectator-team relationship. Also, it offers new perspectives on spectator profiles and encourages the implementation of a Credibility variable when investigating relationship management in sports. The country-specific differences highlight the implementation of social science research in the development of marketing strategies. Overall, the study's holistic approach in analysing relationships and loyalty is unique in the sport marketing literature.

Le but de la recherche était d'approfondir les connaissances sur les relations existant entre les spectateurs du sport contemporain et les équipes sportives d'une part et les instances dirigeantes du sport d'autre part. Le consommateur de sport postmoderne a été décrit comme « insaisissable », ayant une nature caméléonesque, qui se manifeste par une multitude de comportements, de désirs et d'attentes divergents (Bodet, 2009b). De même, les types de relations que les spectateurs sportifs souhaitent établir avec les équipes sportives sont devenus de plus en plus complexes (Bodet et al., 2017). Cette étude tente de saisir cette complexité dans un modèle holistique de gestion des relations avec les fans (Fan-Relationship-Management-Model; FRM Model; Adamson et al., 2006). Différente des modèles antérieurs qui étudiaient la relation entre un spectateur sportif et une équipe sportive, cette étude élargit la dyade originale en incluant l'organisation sportive dans le modèle. En incluant l'organisation sportive, cette étude donne un aperçu de la formation de la fidélité au sein de la triade spectateur-équipe-organisation.

Cette étude présente un intérêt aussi bien théorique que pratique. Une compréhension avancée du consommateur de sport postmoderne peut être la base d'approches marketing susceptibles de gagner et fidéliser les clients avec plus de succès. Surtout si les responsables d'organisations sportives orientées vers le profit et la performance recherchent le maintien ou la maximisation du profit et du prestige par le biais d'un large public et de chiffres d'audience élevés, et par la fidélisation. De plus, les spécialistes du marketing sportif ont insisté sur la nécessité d'améliorer l'intelligence marketing, car ils privilégient les cinq défis contemporains en matière d'acquisition et de fidélisation de la clientèle dans le sport :

1. une forte demande d'expériences exaltantes malgré une rationalisation croissante (Bodet, 2016),
2. des réprobations des clients en raison d'un mauvais comportement délibéré des instances dirigeantes du sport (Huiszoon et al., 2018),
3. des attentes relationnelles complexes des clients (Bodet et al., 2017),
4. une pléthore de divertissements alternatifs (Bodet, 2009a), et
5. l'absence d'une forte visibilité médiatique ou d'un succès sportif (Bodet, 2013).

La fidélité est une excellente notion pour comprendre la qualité d'une relation. Elle peut servir d'indicateur et de prédicteur du succès commercial d'une organisation. Elle ne mesure pas seulement la fidélisation de la clientèle, mais indique également la valeur de la fidélisation (Reichheld & Teal, 1996). Dans cet esprit, l'étude tente de répondre à deux questions de recherche :

Comment et dans quelle mesure la fidélité envers une équipe sportive est-elle déterminée par la relation du spectateur sportif avec l'équipe sportive et l'organisation sportive ?

Quels profils de spectateurs peuvent être identifiés en utilisant une conceptualisation affinée de la fidélité ?

Le cadre de recherche dans lequel les questions de recherche sont abordées est le football, "le seul sport véritablement mondial" (p. 53), exemple classique de la marchandisation et de la commercialisation intense du sport (A. J. Walsh & Giulianotti, 2001). Plus précisément, cette étude utilise l'exemple des équipes nationales de football et des instances dirigeantes nationales de football de France et d'Allemagne.

Une approche de modélisation par équations structurelles est utilisée pour tester, calibrer et valider le modèle FRM parmi des échantillons de quatre cent cinquante-cinq et cinq cent cinq spectateurs de football. Tout d'abord, l'échantillon allemand est utilisé pour tester et calibrer le modèle FRM initial. Ensuite, l'échantillon français est utilisé pour valider le modèle FRM final. De plus, une analyse du profil

latent est mise en œuvre pour découvrir des profils de spectateurs basés sur une conceptualisation bidimensionnelle de la fidélité. D'autres analyses de profils latents avec les variables du modèle permettent d'identifier celles qui facilitent l'appartenance au profil.

Le modèle final a révélé d'importantes différences propres à chaque pays dans les relations au sein de la triade spectateur-équipe-organisation. Dans l'échantillon français, par exemple, la satisfaction et la confiance ne contribuent pas à la fidélité, ce qui constitue une contradiction majeure par rapport à la littérature marketing établie. De toutes les relations suggérées dans le modèle de FRM, seule l'identification avec l'équipe a une influence sur la dimension comportementale de la fidélité. En revanche, dans l'échantillon allemand, la crédibilité de la gouvernance sportive a une plus forte influence sur l'engagement des supporters que la confiance ou la satisfaction vis-à-vis de l''équipe.

Dans les deux échantillons, nous avons pu observer des profils de spectateurs non fidèles, fidèles à l'état latent et fidèles. En référence à la littérature établie, les profils ont été étiquetés comme « Flâneur » (Giulianotti, 2002), « Armchair Follower » (cf. caractérisation des Followers par Giulianotti, 2002), « Armchair Supporter » (Harris & Ogbonna, 2008), et « Supporter » (uniquement dans l'échantillon allemand; Giulianotti, 2002; Tapp & Clowes, 2000). En conclusion, les influences au sein du modèle de FRM sont différentes pour les deux pays, mais la composition des profils de spectateurs est similaire.

Cette étude est utile pour apprécier le rôle d'une organisation sportive dans la relation spectateur-équipe. De plus, il offre de nouvelles perspectives sur le profil des spectateurs et encourage la mise en œuvre d'une variable de crédibilité dans l'étude de la gestion des relations dans le sport. Les différences propres à chaque pays mettent en évidence la nécessité de la recherche en sciences sociales dans l'élaboration des stratégies de marketing. Dans l'ensemble, l'approche holistique de l'étude dans l'analyse des relations et de la fidélité est unique dans la littérature scientifique sur le marketing sportif.