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FAN-FAMILY CONFLICT: AN EXAMINATION OF INTER-ROLE CONFLICT
BETWEEN SPORT FAN AND FAMILY ROLES

By

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B.A., University of Nevada, Reno, 2003
M.S., University of Louisville, 2007

A Dissertation
Submitted to the Faculty of the
Graduate School of the University of Louisville
in Partial Fulfillment of the Requirements
for the Degree of

Doctor of Philosophy

College of Education and Human Development
University of Louisville
Louisville, Kentucky

May 2011

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A Dissertation Approved on

January 28, 2011

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DEDICATION

This dissertation is dedicated to my loving wife, Kristen – the best writer I know. I could not have completed the doctoral journey without your unwavering love and support. This is as much yours as it is mine.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

I would like to acknowledge a number of important individuals who assisted and inspired me throughout the dissertation process. Such an undertaking would not have been possible without each of their unique contributions. First, I would like to thank my dissertation chair, Dr. Chris Greenwell, for patiently answering all of my “quick questions” and working tirelessly through multiple revisions to improve the quality of this study. Thank you to Dr. Mary Hums for teaching me the only way to eat an elephant is one bite at a time. You have always been there for me, as a professor, as a mentor, and as a friend. Thank you to Professor Anita Moorman for pushing me beyond where I thought I could go. Thank you to Dr. Joseph Petrosko for providing an excellent statistical foundation in ELFH 703 and for helping me navigate my way through Chapter IV. Thank you to Dr. Craig Hochbein for providing feedback on the very first draft of my literature review. This dissertation is undoubtedly better thanks to your comments and suggestions.

I would also like to acknowledge three very special people in my life, Dr. Marion Hambrick, Dr. Nels Popp, and soon-to-be Dr. Meg Hancock. Words cannot express my gratitude to Dr. Hambrick for all his guidance and advice since day one in the doctoral program. Thank you for taking the time to read my dissertation and provide invaluable feedback. Thank you to Dr. Popp for inspiring me to pursue a doctoral degree. Your mentorship, both at Bellarmine and in academia, has helped shape who I am today. To

Meg Hancock, thank you for always making time and lending an ear. You have been a steady pillar of support.

I would be remiss if I failed to mention the rest of my dissertation support committee. Thank you to Dr. Greg Greenhalgh, Brittany Carpenter, Nick Stover, Jaepil Ha, Dr. Dustin Thorn, Dr. Sagatomo Tokuyama, Katie Sime-McJury, Mathew Bergman, Tara Mahoney, and Kelly Short.

At times, this dissertation has consumed my thoughts and large quantities of time. As a result, I have not been able to be as much a part of the lives of my family and friends outside of the university as I would have liked. Thank you to Mom, Dad, Lindsay, Elizabeth, Ann, and Dan for standing behind me and supporting me during this time.

Finally, I would like to thank my amazing wife, Kristen. Your sacrifice has allowed us to reach this goal together. Thank you for everything you are. Thank you for pushing me to be myself. I love you so much.

ABSTRACT

FAN-FAMILY CONFLICT: AN EXAMINATION OF INTER-ROLE CONFLICT BETWEEN SPORT FAN AND FAMILY ROLES

Jason M. Simmons

January 28, 2011

An individual's role set consists of a variety of different roles (Biddle, 1979; Madsen & Hammond, 2005). Parent, spouse, student, and even sports fan, all constitute roles within one's role set. Fulfilling role demands requires time, energy, and in some cases, money. These resources are perishable, meaning once they are allocated to satisfying the demands of one role, they may not be used to fulfill the demands of alternative roles (Goode, 1960). Further, the behavioral expectations from one role may contrast with behavior expected in another (Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985). The difficulty one experiences in balancing the demands/pressures of multiple roles is known as inter-role conflict (Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985).

The purpose of the current study was to examine inter-role conflict between sport fan and family roles. This form of inter-role conflict is referred to as fan-family conflict. Specifically, this study was interested in the relationship between fan identification and four types of fan-family conflict: time-based, strain-based, behavior-based, and economic-based. A secondary purpose of this study was to examine the extent to which

family support and family involvement influenced the fan identification/fan-family conflict relationship.

Data were collected from spectators attending an NCAA D-I intercollegiate football game. Results indicated highly identified fans experienced significantly greater levels of time-based and strain-based fan-family conflict than lesser identified individuals. Further, those indicating high levels of family support for their sport fan role perceived less conflict than those receiving low or moderate levels of support; however, the difference was not significant. Finally, family involvement did not appear to have a significant influence on the fan identification/fan-family conflict relationship. For the most part, however, the sample did indicate relatively high levels of family involvement, which may have contributed to perceptions of inter-role conflict for highly identified fans (Frone & Rice, 1987; Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985). Highly identified fans, and their families, should be cognizant of the effect of sport fan role engagement on the fulfillment of family role demands and work together to make cognitive and behavioral adjustments to minimize fan-family conflict.

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

In a given day, an individual may play a variety of roles. The concept of a role refers to how an individual behaves within a specific context (Biddle, 1979). For example, an individual may wake her children up for school and make them breakfast. In this context, the individual is engaged in her role as a parent. After dropping her children off at school, this same individual may make a presentation at work and meet with an important client in the afternoon. Within this context, she is engaged in her role as an employee. Later that same evening, this individual may don her lucky jersey and watch her favorite team play its arch rival. Such behavior is consistent with engagement within the sport fan role.

This example, while generic, demonstrates the wide range of roles with which an individual may identify. Demands of each role have the potential to either complement or conflict with each other. The stress this individual might feel due to the pressures of her upcoming presentation may distract her from fully functioning in the parental role in the morning. Likewise, the time it takes to watch her team play in the evening may take away from time needed to help her child with her homework. Such interference refers to inter-role conflict, or the difficulty one experiences in balancing his/her various role demands (Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985; Kahn, Wolfe, Quinn, Snoek, & Rosenthal, 1964). The

current study is interested in fan-family conflict, or the extent to which engaging in the sport fan role interferes with one's ability to fully function within the family role.

At first glance sport spectating may appear to be a harmless hobby. Consuming sport is supposed to be fun, an activity in which we participate for leisure. Smith (1988) argued however, the line separating the sport fan role as a healthy habit and an addictive activity is somewhat fuzzy. According to Hunt, Bristol, and Bashaw (1999), one's fandom becomes dysfunctional when fan role demands "interfere with the ability to perform normal role behavior outside of the behavior as a fan" (p. 447). In the same vein, Smith (1998) contended "when the activity [being a sports fan] begins to have a negative effect on family life..., one would suspect the activity is becoming addictive" (p. 59).

Like any role, the sports fan role requires devoting time, money, and energy to fulfill role demands (i.e. game attendance, merchandise/media consumption). The resources required to engage in such behaviors are perishable. The time, money, and energy devoted to the sport fan role may not be simultaneously devoted to alternative role demands, such as those associated with family (i.e. spouse, parent, child). The stress and behavioral norms associated with the sport fan role may also interfere with one's ability to adequately fulfill family obligations (Goode, 1960; Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985; Lapierre et al., 2008) such as taking a child to soccer practice, making dinner, or watching a movie together.

Opportunities for conflict between fan and family roles are seemingly endless. Imagine for example, a die-hard NFL fan whose daughter is playing in a youth soccer game on a Sunday afternoon in the fall, a college basketball fan who shouts obscenities at his television during the game disrupting the game experience for other family members,

or even a fan whose team loses and he/she is not in the mood to tend to household responsibilities such as taking out the trash or walking the dog. A more extreme example of fan-family conflict was offered in the Warren St. John (2004) book *Rammer Jammer Yellow Hammer*. St. John tells the story of an Alabama couple who missed their daughter's wedding in favor of a Crimson Tide football game. When asked why he missed his daughter's wedding, Mr. Reese said, "I just love Alabama football" (St. John, 2004, p. 15).

As noted above, the difficulty one experiences in balancing the demands of two or more roles, in this case fan and family, is known as inter-role conflict (Kahn et al., 1964). Researchers have examined inter-role role conflict extensively through the lens of work and family roles (Burke, Weir, & DuWors, 1980; Carlson & Kacmar, 2000; Dixon & Bruening, 2005; Frone & Rice, 1987; Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985; Lapierre et al., 2008), as well as between leisure and family roles (Fick, Goff, & Oppliger, 1996; Gillespie, Leffler, & Lerner, 2002; Goff & Fick, 1997; Goff, Fick, & Oppliger, 1997). Like engagement within the work role, participation in serious leisure activities are "time, resource, and...identity intensive" (Gillespie et al., 2002, p. 286), thus creating an ideal condition for inter-role conflict. Further, Gillespie et al. (2002) contended serious leisure participation has the potential to shape an individual's identity beyond what he/she does for a living. Given that researchers have already investigated leisure-family conflict however, the question becomes, why is it necessary to examine inter-role conflict between sport fan and family roles?

Stebbins (1982) argued serious leisure activities are characterized by six distinct qualities: (a) perseverance through adversity; (b) stages of achievement or turning points

within the participation career; (c) exertion of effort based on knowledge, training, or skills pertaining to the activity; (d) durable benefits such as self actualization, self-enrichment, or self-concept enhancement; (e) development of beliefs, values, and norms specific to the leisure pursuit; and (f) strong identification with the activity. Examples of leisure activities which fall under Stebbins' classification of serious leisure include running (Fick et al., 1996; Goff & Fick, 1997; Goff et al., 1997) and participation in dog sports (Gillespie et al., 2002). Further, Stebbins held hobbies such as stamp or coin collections, and makers, such as quilters or inventors, are also considered serious leisure pursuits.

Results from Gibson, Willming, and Holdnak's (2002) study, however, suggested that like running or dog sport participation, engagement in the sport fan role also satisfies each of Stebbins' characteristics for serious leisure in a manner unique to sport fandom. Regarding perseverance, for example, where a runner may persevere in terms of injuries or endurance, sport fans, particularly highly identified fans, will remain loyal to a team even if it is losing (Kwon, Trail, & Lee, 2008; Wann & Branscombe, 1990). In terms of effort, where a runner may exert physical effort over the course of a race, sport fans exert effort travelling to and attending events. Sport fans develop norms in the form of game day rituals such as tailgating, songs and chants, and attire, consistent with Stebbins' classification. Sport fans also identify with the team such that their fan role becomes an important part of their self-concept (Hunt et al., 1999).

Although leisure-family conflict has been examined in the past within the context of running and dog sports, the unique characteristics of sport fandom described by Gibson et al. (2002) suggest engagement in the sport fan role is an entirely separate form

of serious leisure. Further, Gibson et al. found evidence indicating sport fans devote significant resources towards fulfilling fan role demands, however “the extent to which participation [in the sport fan role] stressed other relationships a fan had with family and friends” (p. 420) was not clear. Little research has been conducted examining the effects of the fan role on one’s family life (Gantz, Wenner, Carrico, & Knorr, 1995a, 1995b; Smith, Patterson, Williams, & Hogg, 1981). The current study addressed this gap.

The Sport Fan Role

The sport fan role involves more than just watching games and wearing team-related paraphernalia. For some fans, particularly those placing a high degree of importance on being a fan, the fan role becomes a central component of their identity (Hunt et al., 1999). In addition to consumptive behaviors, sport fans know a great deal about their team/sport, invest themselves emotionally in their team’s performance such that their mood and affective responses vary based on game outcomes, integrate sport into conversations with peers and family members, and schedule alternative life activities around sporting events (McPherson, 1975).

The sport fan role may be explained by social identity theory, which suggests an individual’s self-concept is defined, in part, through his/her group categorizations (Abrams & Hogg, 1990; Tajfel & Turner, 1986; Turner, 1982). The groups to which an individual belongs, or perceives belonging, constitute one’s social identity (Abrams & Hogg, 1990; Turner, 1982). According to Tajfel and Turner (1986), an individual’s social identity is evaluated based on the positive or negative connotations associated with group memberships. Being a fan of a team represents membership in a group. In keeping with social identity theory, an individual will be evaluated based on his/her association with

that team (Tajfel & Turner, 1986). For example, a Baltimore Orioles fan perceives belonging to a group of fans who are of the same social category, or share in common their affinity for the Orioles. Not only is that fan defined, in part, by his/her identification as an Orioles fan (i.e. I am a Baltimore Orioles fan), out-group members, or non-Orioles fans, will evaluate that fan based on his/her membership as a fan of the Baltimore Orioles.

Fan Identification

Not all sport fans are the same. Where some fans attend games merely for socialization with minimal interest in the actual games, others become involved in the game to the point where their fandom borders on addiction. Whereas some fans may only watch a game if it is convenient, others schedule alternative leisure activities around sporting events (Smith et al., 1981). Not surprisingly, the affective, behavioral, and cognitive responses of sport fans vary based on their level of identification with the team (Wann & Branscombe, 1993). Researchers have offered a variety of definitions pertaining to fan identification. Wann, Melnick, Russell, and Pease (2001) defined identification as “the extent to which a fan feels psychologically connected to a team” (p. 3). Sutton, Milne, McDonald, and Cimperman (1997) referred to fan identification as “the personal commitment and emotional involvement customers have with a sport organization” (p. 15). Others referenced a sense of oneness or connectedness to a sport organization (Madrigal, 2001; Mael & Ashforth, 1992).

The more fans identify with a team, the more likely they will engage in team supportive behaviors such as game attendance and merchandise/media consumption (Fisher & Wakefield, 1998; James & Trail, 2008; Wann & Branscombe, 1993). Highly

identified fans are also more likely to employ cognitive identity maintenance responses such as in-group biases and success/failure attributions (Wann & Branscombe, 1995; Wann & Dolan, 1994a, 1994b; Wann & Schrader, 2001). Social identity theory posits group members conform to behaviors consistent with group norms. The extent to which an individual conforms is predicated by his/her degree of identification with the group (Turner, 1982). Therefore, consistent with social identity theory, highly identified fans are more likely to engage in behaviors perceived to be normative of their fan group (i.e. game attendance, merchandise consumption, intergroup comparison). Greater levels of identification may also lead to fluctuations in mood as a result of team performances (Hirt, Zillman, Erickson, & Kennedy, 1992; McPherson, 1975; Smith et al., 1981). Negative outcomes associated with higher levels of identification include dysfunctional fan behaviors such as aggression or blasting (Dimmock & Grove, 2005; Wakefield & Wann, 2006; Wann, 1993; Wann, Carlson, & Schrader, 1999). Blasting is a social identity maintenance response which refers to acting out in a negative or hostile manner towards a member of an out-group (e.g. fan of an opposing team) in an effort to improve one's own perceptions of in-group membership (Wann, 1993).

Inter-Role Conflict

The sport fan role represents one of many roles within an individual's role set. Biddle (1979) referred to role sets as "a collection of roles" (p. 76). Common roles might include being a parent, spouse, student, employee, or customer (Madsen & Hammond, 2005). Given this wide array of roles, individuals may experience conflict when attempting to balance their various role demands (Goode, 1960). Such conflict is referred

to as inter-role conflict, or “pressures arising in one role [that] are incompatible with pressures arising in another” (Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985, p. 77).

Greenhaus and Beutell (1985) proposed three types of inter-role conflict: time-based, strain-based, and behavior-based. Time-based conflict occurs when the time allocated to one role prohibits an individual from fulfilling the demands of another role (Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985). For example, time spent studying for a big test within the student role is time that cannot be spent attending to one’s family. Therefore, the time necessary to fulfill student role obligations may make it difficult to adequately meet family role demands. Strain-based conflict occurs when strain, stress, or anxiety experienced in one role negatively affects one’s performance in another role due to a spillover effect (Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985). An individual may experience strain within his/her family role if a child is sick or if he/she is experiencing marital problems. In this case, strain or stress originating from the family role may adversely affect one’s performance at work. Behavior-based conflict refers to incompatible behavioral expectations from role to role (Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985). For example, as a member of a local soccer team one might exhibit aggressive behaviors; however, such behaviors are unsuited for the family role.

Researchers have examined inter-role conflict extensively within the context of work and family roles. Greenhaus and Beutell (1985) defined work-family conflict as “a form of inter-role conflict in which the role pressures from the work and family domains are mutually incompatible in some respect” (p. 77). The current study is interested in inter-role conflict between fan and family roles, specifically the demands of the fan role that may be incompatible with family role demands. This form of inter-role conflict is

referred to as fan-family conflict. Borrowing from the definition of work-family conflict provided by Greenhaus and Beutell (1985), fan-family conflict is defined as a form of inter-role conflict whereby the demands associated with the fan role are incompatible with family role demands.

Previous research suggests a direct relationship between the amount of time an individual devotes to a role and inter-role conflict (Burke et al., 1980; Carlson & Kacmar, 2000; Dixon & Bruening, 2007; Fick et al., 2007; Mazerolle, Bruening, & Casa, 2008). Within the context of fan-family conflict, highly identified fans devote more time to their team/fan role than fans low in identification (Wann & Branscombe, 1993) and engage in higher levels of support behaviors such as attendance and media consumption which require commitments of one's time (Fisher & Wakefield, 1998; James & Trail, 2008; Matsuoka, Chelladurai, & Harada, 2003; Wann & Branscombe, 1993). To that point, results from the Smith et al. (1981) study indicated the amount of time required to follow one's team was the most frequently cited negative aspect of the sport fan role. Referring to highly identified fans, Smith et al. noted, "They felt that if they put this extra time and effort into their jobs, studies, or family lives [as opposed to their sport fan role] the time would have been spent more productively" (p. 42). More than a quarter of participants in the Smith et al. study indicated their spouses had complained about the amount of time they spent watching sports. Similarly, 34% of males in the Gantz et al. (1995b) study believed their spouses resented them for watching sports on television.

Like role time commitments, role strain/stress has been shown to lead to higher levels of inter-role conflict (Carlson & Kacmar, 2000; Kopelman, Greenhaus, & Connolly, 1983; Reinardy, 2007). The tendency for highly identified fans to

maintain/enhance their social identity through intergroup comparisons or success/failure attributions suggests some degree of strain associated with the sport fan role. Fans, particularly those high in identification, also experience negative mood states as a result of team losses (Hirt et al., 1992; Smith et al., 1981).

In terms of behavior-based conflict, Greenhaus and Beutell (1985) proposed that within work and family roles, managerial characteristics such as self reliance, emotional stability, and aggressiveness may be incompatible with family role behaviors which are typically more nurturing and vulnerable. Applying this logic to fan-family conflict, dysfunctional fan behaviors such as aggression, blasting, and hooliganism may be unsuited for the family role. Further, a positive relationship has been shown between fan dysfunction/aggression and identification (Dimmock & Grove, 2005; Wakefield & Wann, 2006; Wann, 1993; Wann et al., 1999).

Beyond time, strain, and behavior-based conflict, the current study also examined economic-based fan-family conflict, defined as perceived difficulty fulfilling financial obligations in the family role due to the amount of money spent in the fan role. Like other economic activities such as going to the movies, gambling, or going out to dinner, the behavioral demands associated with the sport fan role (i.e. attendance, merchandise/media consumption) require a financial commitment on the part of the fan. Like time, money is a perishable resource in that money devoted to one role may not be spent elsewhere. Within gambling literature for example, financial concerns are a primary source of conflict in families with a problem gambler (Downs & Woolrych, 2010; Wenzel, Oren, & Bakken, 2008). Families expressed difficulty paying for essentials such as food, mortgage, and utilities as a result of gambling role spending of a family member.

As noted above, highly identified fans consume sport to a greater degree than fans low in identification, requiring an even greater commitment of financial resources. Wann and Branscombe (1993) and Wann, Bayens, and Driver (2004) found highly identified fans were willing to commit greater financial resources to consumptive activities than fans low in identification.

While work, leisure, and fan roles are undoubtedly different, many of the concepts discussed within the work-family conflict/leisure-family conflict literature are applicable to sport fans and their families. As presented in this section, highly identified fans commit time to fulfilling sport fan role demands, experience strain in the form of identity maintenance and mood fluctuations, have a tendency to engage in dysfunctional fan behaviors, and devote financial resources to the sport fan role as a product of behavioral engagement. Conceivably then, highly identified fans may experience higher levels of time-based, strain-based, behavior-based, and economic-based conflict than lesser identified fans.

Family Involvement

Like fan identification, family involvement refers to the extent to which the family role is important and central to an individual's self-concept (Carlson & Perrewe, 1999; Parasuraman & Simmers, 2001). A number of studies have found a positive relationship between role involvement and inter-role conflict (Carlson & Kacmar, 2000; Carlson & Perrewe, 1999; Goff et al., 1997; Halbesleben, Harvey, & Bolino, 2009). For example, Halbesleben et al. found individuals who are more psychologically involved in their work role will devote more time and energy to fulfilling work role demands than less involved individuals. In turn, highly involved individuals experienced higher levels

of inter-role conflict between their work and family roles. As noted by Goode (1960), individuals only have a finite reservoir of resources (i.e. time, money, energy) at their disposal to fulfill role obligations. Thus, a highly involved mother is more likely to commit significant resources to the fulfillment of family role demands. This may create conflict among other roles, as that individual will have fewer resources available to satisfy the demands of competing roles.

However, Greenhaus and Beutell (1985) contended perceptions of conflict will be greatest among two or more highly salient roles. The authors proposed higher levels of role involvement may lead to increases in role time commitment and/or increases in strain/stress emanating from that role. Perceptions of inter-role conflict then would be most intense when time requirements and role strain stem from two or more highly salient roles. This makes sense as a highly involved mother is not likely to perceive inter-role conflict between her family role and a competing role, such as work or church member, unless that competing role was also highly salient. In such a case, the individual may struggle balancing the demands of both roles. Frone and Rice (1987) tested this theory empirically. The authors found the effect of job involvement on inter-role conflict was only significant for those individuals who were also highly involved with their spousal role. Theoretically, highly identified fans may be more likely to experience fan-family conflict if they are also highly identified with their family role.

Family Support

Support within the family domain has been shown to lessen perceptions of inter-role conflict between family and competing roles (Boyar, Maertz, Mosley, & Carr, 2008; Fick et al., 1996; Goff et al., 1997; Holahan & Gilbert, 1979). For example, Fick et al.

found runners experienced higher levels of inter-role conflict between their running and family roles when they received little support for their running at home. Spouses of highly committed runners were also less likely to indicate conflict if they were supportive of their partner's running role (Goff et al., 1997).

According to Goff et al. (1997), family support may take three forms: behavioral, logistical, and emotional. Behavioral support occurs when family members jointly participate in an activity together. For example, rather than watching the ballgame alone, a fan might watch the game with his/her spouse and/or children. Previous research suggests inter-role conflict and domain satisfaction (i.e. family, job, life) are inversely related (Carlson & Kacmar, 2000; Chiu, 1998; Judge, Ilies, & Scott, 20006; Parasuraman & Simmers, 2001). Behavioral support however, has been shown to significantly improve satisfaction within one's family life (Orthner, 1975; Smith, Snyder, Trull, & Monsma; 1988). The second type of family support, logistical support, refers to enabling behaviors such as designating time or money to another family member's fan role as opposed to actively participating in the role together. Finally, emotional support may be conveyed through positive attitudes regarding a family member's alternative role behaviors (Goff et al., 1999). Building on the findings reported by Fick et al. (1996), Goff et al., and Boyar, Maertz, Mosley, and Carr (2008), highly identified fans may perceive less fan-family conflict if their family members are supportive of their sport fan role. In the current study, family support was considered as a moderating variable to the fan identification/fan-family conflict relationship.

Statement of the Problem

The cognitive, behavioral, and affective responses of sport fans are well documented. Sport fans attend games, follow their team(s) through the media, purchase team-related merchandise, and discuss sport in conversations with their peers. Beyond observable behaviors however, sport fans employ cognitive tools to maintain a positive social identity and experience mood fluctuations as a result of team performances. Additionally, sport fans are commonly associated with problem behaviors such as aggression and blasting. While scholars have studied these various responses extensively, little is known regarding the effect of the sport fan role on one's family. Fans spend time and energy consuming sport, experience strain associated with the need to maintain a positive social identity, devote money to the fulfillment of fan role obligations, and engage in behaviors unsuitable for the family domain. Such responses may lead to perceptions of inter-role conflict between one's fan and family roles. Inter-role conflict has been shown to adversely affect one's family/marital satisfaction, as well as overall life satisfaction (Bedeian, Burke, & Moffett, 1988; Carlson & Kacmar, 2000; Judge et al., 2006). The current study focused on inter-role conflict between sport fan and family roles and the extent to which fan identification, family involvement, and family support influenced perceptions of fan-family conflict.

Purpose

The primary purpose of the current study was to examine the relationship between fan identification and fan-family conflict. Also of interest was the interaction effect between fan identification and family involvement on fan-family conflict. Four types of fan-family conflict were assessed: time-based, strain-based, behavior-based, and

economic-based. Additionally, this study examined the moderating effect of family support on the fan identification/fan-family conflict relationship.

Research Questions

To test the relationships among variables within the fan-family conflict framework, three research questions were developed.

RQ1: What is the effect of fan identification on fan-family conflict (time-based, strain-based, behavior-based, and economic-based)?

RQ2: How does family support impact the relationship between fan identification and fan-family conflict (time-based, strain-based, behavior-based, and economic-based)?

RQ3: How does family involvement impact the relationship between fan identification and fan-family conflict (time-based, strain-based, behavior-based, and economic-based)?

Study Significance

Sport fans are commonly studied in terms of their influence on a sport organization. Researchers have investigated the various outcomes of fan identification and strategies for sport organizations to increase levels of identification (Gwinner & Swanson, 2003; James & Trail, 2008; Sutton et al., 1997; Wann & Branscombe, 1993). Others have examined fans in terms of their motivations for consumption (James & Ross, 2004; Trail, Fink, & Anderson, 2003; Trail & James, 2001). From a marketing perspective, such studies serve the purpose of understanding sport fan consumption and ultimately increasing sport organization revenue. The impact of one's fandom or identification on mood states, well-being, and affective responses has also been examined

within sport management literature (Wann, Dunham, Byrd, & Keenan, 2004; Wann, Inman, Ensor, Gates, & Caldwell, 1999; Wann, Walker, Cygan, Kawase, & Ryan, 2005). Few studies, however, have examined how the sport fan role impacts other roles within an individual's life, specifically one's family roles (Gantz et al., 1995a; 1995b; Smith et al., 1981).

This study builds on the current body of literature pertaining to fan identification and inter-role conflict by examining inter-role conflict between fan and family roles (i.e. spouse, parent, child). Inter-role conflict has been studied extensively through the lens of work and family, and to a lesser extent, leisure and family roles. Research shows individuals spending more time at work will experience higher levels of inter-role conflict (Boyar et al., 2008; Greenhaus, Bedeian, Mossholder, 1987; Reinardy, 2007). Strain variables such as role overload, role conflict, and role ambiguity have also been identified as predictors of work-family conflict (Carlson & Kacmar, 2000; Kopelman et al., 1983; Reinardy, 2007). Additionally, Greenhaus and Beutell (1985) suggested behaviors from the work role may be incompatible with those necessary within the family domain, thus creating behavior-based conflict. Like work, sport fans, particularly those high in identification, also devote time and energy to their fan role. Sport fans experience strain and stress in an effort to maintain a positive social identity. Dysfunctional behaviors such as aggression, hooliganism, and blasting have also been associated with sport fans. Unlike work however, sport fans must devote money to fulfill fan role demands. Therefore, a fourth type of inter-role conflict, economic-based fan-family conflict, was created and assessed. Results from this study could aid researchers not only

in understanding if sport fans experience inter-role conflict, but also how they experience it.

Beyond contributing to the literature, results from this study have several practical implications for families. First, sport fans should be aware of the impact of their fan role demands on other life roles. Research suggests inter-role conflict is negatively related to spousal well-being (Burke et al., 1980). If an individual perceives his/her fan role to be interfering with family role demands, it is likely such conflict is affecting other members of one's family as well. Second, in order to minimize conflict, highly identified fans and their families must make cognitive and behavioral adjustments in their approaches to the sport fan role (Gantz et al., 1995b). Such adjustments will be more effective with a better understanding of how fans perceive their fan role to conflict with their family role obligations. For example, if a fan feels as though he/she does not have enough time to tend to family demands due to the amount of time he/she is spending immersed in the fan role, a more concerted effort to limit the amount of time he/she devotes to the fan role may address this issue. Feelings of inter-role conflict are less intense for individuals who are conscientious of competing role demands (Halbesleben et al., 2009).

Delimitations

Several delimitations exist within the present study. First, this study examined inter-role conflict among fan and family roles. Given the variations in affective, cognitive, and behavioral responses of sport fans (Wann & Branscombe, 1993), fan identification was chosen as the primary variable of interest. Further, research suggests role involvement/centrality is predictive of inter-role conflict (Carlson & Perrewe, 1999; Frone & Rice, 1987; Frone, Russell, & Cooper, 1992). According to Carlson and Kacmar

(2000) the inclusion of role involvement/identification is necessary to fully understand inter-role conflict. Other factors, particularly on the family side, however, have been shown to influence one's perceptions of inter-role conflict. Such factors include marital status, number of children living in the household, and the ages of those children (Boyar et al., 2008; Cooke & Rousseau, 1984; Dixon & Bruening, 2005; Dixon & Sagas, 2007; Parasuraman & Simmers, 2001). However, this study was interested in the effect of fan identification, family involvement, and family support on fan-family conflict. Therefore, the analysis was limited to these factors.

Second, fan identification was measured as it relates to an NCAA Division I college football team in the Midwest. The purpose of this study was to examine fan-family conflict among sport fans, not just football fans. Football was chosen, however, due to its popularity and the unique nature of football fandom. Fantasy football is the most popular fantasy sport in the United States with an estimated 17 million users (Bell, 2008). Spring football practice games draw crowds in excess of 60,000 spectators at schools like Nebraska, Ohio State, and Auburn. In 2010, Alabama attracted 91,312 fans to its spring football game (*SportsBusiness Daily*, 2010). Football fans travel long distances for games and transform a three hour game into a full day activity with tailgating before and after the event. This study was interested in the extent to which an individual's sport fan role interferes with his/her family life. Given the interest and popularity of football in the United States, surveying football fans was deemed appropriate for achieving this objective. The extent to which fans identify with other sports such as basketball, baseball, and soccer was not included in this study.

Third, fan and family roles only represent two roles within an individual's role set. Other roles may include work, student, customer, church member, and volunteer. Each role is accompanied by a set of role demands. Conceivably, the role demands of a sports fan may conflict with one's ability to perform these other roles as well. However, this study was only interested in inter-role conflict as it pertains to fans and family. Future research is needed to examine alternative forms of inter-role conflict involving sport fans.

Fourth, this study only considered the perceptions of fans in attendance at a college football game. However, this population does not reflect all potential fans of the team. Some fans watch the game in a sports bar, others listen to it on the radio, while others watch the game at home with their family and/or friends. These fans may experience fan-family conflict differently, thus the results from this study may not be generalizable to fans consuming the game through means other than attendance.

Fifth, respondents were asked to indicate their level of identification with the home football team. Unlike identification in professional sports, the possibility exists that fans may identify with the university as opposed to just the team itself. For example, a fan of Clemson football might identify with the team because she is a Clemson fan as opposed to a football fan. Fans of professional sport may respond differently as professional teams are not representative of a larger organization, but instead a city, state, or region.

Limitations

This study also contains several limitations. First, the instrument used to assess fan-family conflict in this study was adapted from Carlson, Kacmar, and Williams'

(2000) work-family conflict scale. While this scale has been shown to have good reliability and validity (Carlson et al., 2000; Lapierre et al., 2005), a literature search of 270 articles failed to reveal a version adapted for inter-role conflict between fans and family. That is not to say other work-family conflict scales have never been adapted for the purpose of inter-role conflict outside of the work and family realms. Fick et al. (1996) and Goff et al. (1997) adapted items from the Kopelman et al. (1983) work-family conflict scale to measure leisure family conflict among spouses of highly committed runners.

Second, fan-family conflict scale items asked respondents to indicate the extent to which their fan role interferes with their family role. Respondents might have been hesitant to answer truthfully to self-incriminating questions. For example, items such as “Following (*team name*) football keeps me from my family activities more than I would like” and “I am often so emotionally drained when I get home from a (*team name*) game that it prevents me from contributing to my family” ask respondents to admit the extent to which they put their fan role ahead of their family roles. Unlike work, the fan role is not considered an essential role; thus, respondents may have felt guilty about answering questions pertaining to fan-family conflict truthfully.

Third, the interaction effect between fan identification and family involvement on fan-family conflict is the heart of this study. Results from this study, however, represent a snapshot in time. As noted by Carlson and Kacmar (2000), “the importance of roles may fluctuate over time” (p. 1050). Perceptions of fan-family conflict may be more intense during football season, but from January through September such conflict may be less intense or non-existent. Further, intensity of fan-family conflict may vary based on the

team's win/loss record. Granted, several studies have shown highly identified fans continue to support the team regardless of record (Fisher & Wakefield, 1998; Laverie & Arnett, 2000; Matsuoka et al., 2003; Sutton et al., 1997), the amount of time devoted to the team or the amount of strain experienced as a result of game outcomes may be lessened if the team is not eligible for the post-season. As such, team success should be considered when generalizing results to other fan bases.

Additional limitations were revealed following collection and analysis of the data. First, given the skewed nature of the family involvement data, it was not possible to assess the moderating effect of family involvement on the fan identification/fan-family conflict relationship as initially intended. Instead, a MANCOVA was utilized to examine the relationship between fan identification and fan-family conflict while controlling for one's level of family involvement. Second, results of the MANCOVA must be interpreted with caution as the regression hyperplanes assumption was violated, indicative of a significant covariate by treatment interaction (Stevens, 2002). Third, the data for time-based, strain-based, behavior-based, and economic-based FFC were positively skewed, resulting in the violation of several assumptions for multivariate tests. As would be expected with skewed data, the normality assumption for MANOVA was violated. The equality of covariance matrices assumption was also violated; however, according to Stevens (2002) and Field (2009), this may have been a product of non-normal data. Stevens (2002) noted however, multivariate tests are robust to violations of these assumptions given relatively equal group sizes, as was the case in this study.

Definitions

Sports fan – individual emotionally vested in his/her team, who devotes time and money into consumptive behaviors, knows a great deal of team-specific information, experiences game-induced fluctuations in mood, discusses his/her team in conversations with peers, and arranges alternative life activities around sporting events (McPherson, 1975).

Fan identification – degree to which an individual perceives a psychological commitment to and emotional involvement with a sport organization (Sutton et al., 1997; Wann & Branscombe, 1990; 1993; Wann et al., 2001)

Inter-role conflict – “experienced when pressures arising in one role are incompatible with pressures arising in another role” (Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985, p. 77)

Time-based conflict – difficulty fulfilling role obligations due to time demands stemming from membership in alternative roles (Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985)

Strain-based conflict – spillover effect of strain or stress experienced in one role affecting one’s ability to fully perform in another (Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985)

Behavior-based conflict – behavioral requirements of one role which are unsuited for another (Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985)

Economic-based conflict – difficulty fulfilling financial commitments due to money spent in alternative role(s)

Fan-family conflict – form of inter-role conflict in which participation in one’s family role is made difficult due to sport fan role demands (Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985)

Family – “people who think of themselves as part of the family, whether related by blood or marriage or not, and who support and care for each other on a regular basis” (Park et al., 2003)

Family involvement – the extent to which the family role is important and central to an individual's self-concept (Carlson & Perrewé, 1999; Parasuraman & Simmers, 2001)

Family support –favorable attitudes towards or joint participation in fan role activities (Goff et al., 1997)

CHAPTER II

LITERATURE REVIEW

The primary purpose of this study was to examine the relationship between fan identification and inter-role conflict between fan and family roles. Further, this study sought to understand the moderating effects of family involvement and family support on the fan identification/inter-role conflict relationship. Although sport fans have been studied extensively in terms of their affective, behavioral, and cognitive responses, research has yet to examine the effect of these responses on one's family life, specifically, the extent to which the demands associated with the sport fan role are incompatible with the demands required in the family roles (i.e. spouse and/or parent). The following literature review offers a comprehensive discussion of research pertaining to the sport fan role and inter-role conflict.

In order to examine inter-role conflict between fan and family roles, it is important to first establish an understanding of the sport fan role. As such, the first section of this chapter discusses the sport fan role as a social identity. Following the discussion of sport fans, a detailed review of literature pertaining to inter-role conflict is provided. Finally, the chapter concludes with a summary of the literature.

Toward an Understanding of the Sport Fan Role

To a casual observer, the role of a sport fan appears rather simplistic. Sport fans attend games, watch, listen to, and read about sport content through the media, purchase team-related merchandise, and experience fluctuations in mood as a result of game outcomes. While such a portrayal may be accurate, it is far from complete. As Stewart, Smith, and Nicholson (2003) noted in their comprehensive review of fan typologies, the role of a sport fan “involves far more than simply turning up to a game, tuning in, and going home” (p. 211). Indeed, for enduring fans, or those who perceive some degree of psychological or emotional attachment to a team, the fan role takes on a much greater meaning (Funk & James, 2001; Hunt et al., 1999; Mahony, Madrigal, & Howard, 2000; Wann et al., 2001).

Researchers have offered an array of definitions pertaining to sport fans. Wann et al. (2001) defined sport fans as individuals whose interest in sport goes beyond consumption. Smith (1988) noted in addition to consuming sport, fans become emotionally vested in the game’s outcome. A similar definition was put forth by Hirt et al. (1992) who noted the value and emotional significance placed on a fan’s perceived association with the team. Pooley (as cited in Funk & James, 2001) held that a defining characteristic of sports fans is that their identification as a fan permeates other areas of life outside of the fan role. Fans have also been characterized as “enthusiastic devotee[s] of some particular sports consumptive object” (Hunt et al., 1999, p. 440), where devotee refers to an individual who perceives an emotional and psychological attachment to the sport organization. Further, Hunt et al. contended consumptive behavior is a product of the degree to which one has integrated the fan role into his/her self-concept. Said

differently, fans who consider the fan role to be more closely aligned with their self-concept engage in more intense consumptive behaviors directed towards the team than those individuals whose role as a fan is less salient.

McPherson (1975) offered perhaps the most complete portrayal of sports fans, noting six characteristics of sport fandom. According to McPherson, sport fans will: a) devote time and money towards sport consumptive behavior; b) possess team-specific knowledge including rosters, statistics, and strategy; c) experience some degree of emotional involvement with the sport organization; d) experience fluctuations in mood during a sporting event; e) include team- or sport-related content in conversations with peers; and 6) plan other life activities around sporting events.

The depictions of sport fans offered by McPherson (1975), Smith (1988), Hirt et al. (1992), and Wann et al. (2001) are critical in that they speak to the notion that fandom extends beyond observable consumptive behaviors. Indeed, while support behaviors are characteristic of sport fans, Giulianotti (2002) noted behaviors such as attendance, adornment in team-related merchandise, and participation in team cheers, represent “a ceremony, through which the supporters worship themselves” (p. 33). This quote lends credence to support Hunt et al.’s (1999) contention that the sport consumptive behaviors are a way in which fans can act out their own identity, specifically their identity as a fan.

Fan as a Social Identity

The fan role can be explained in large part by social identity theory. According to social identity theory, an individual’s self-concept is comprised of a personal identity and a social identity (Turner, 1982). Whereas the personal identity reflects attributes,

characteristics, and preferences unique to an individual, the social identity consists of social categorizations or groups to which one perceives membership or belonging (Abrams & Hogg, 1990; Tajfel & Turner, 1986; Turner, 1982). Thus, perceived group membership as a fan contributes to one's social identity and overall definition of self. Heere and James (2007) suggested however, only highly salient group memberships will become integrated into one's self-concept. As such, the fan role takes on a greater deal of importance to the social identity and self-concept of highly identified fans (Hunt et al., 1999; Wann et al., 2001).

Tajfel and Turner (1986) contended one facet of group categorization is the presentation of oneself to others in terms of the group. Sport fans, for example, use their "affiliation or attachment [to the team] as a significant part of identifying and expressing his or her self-concept to others and to his or herself" (Hunt et al., 1999; p. 445). Saying "I am a Washington Redskins fan," or engaging in sport consumptive behaviors (i.e. attendance, merchandise consumption, social comparisons) is consistent with role expectations for group membership as a fan. Given the public nature of social identities then, it is not surprising that a key tenant of social identity theory references the tendency for individuals to actively seek ways in which to maintain or enhance evaluations of their own group memberships (Abrams & Hogg, 1990; Tajfel & Turner, 1986, Turner, 1982). To that point, Turner (1982) noted, "The need for positive social identity motivates a search for, and the creation and enhancement of, positive distinctiveness for one's own group in comparison of other groups" (p. 34). Sport fans achieve this objective by way of success/failure biases, in-group/out-group biases, basking in reflected glory (BIRGing), and cutting off reflected failure (CORFing).

The ensuing fan role discussion is broken into three sections. First, the cognitive identity maintenance processes of sport fans are explored in more detail, with particular attention paid to in-group biases, success/failure attributions, and basking in reflected glory. The second section explores the fan/team relationship as perceived by the fan. That is, how do fans understand their role in relation to the team? The third section discusses fan behaviors including game attendance, merchandise and media consumption, as well as problem behaviors, most notably, fan aggression. Within each section, the effect of fan identification on fan responses is considered.

Identity Maintenance Processes

Identity maintenance processes refer to cognitive tools designed to maintain or enhance one's self esteem. The identity maintenance processes discussed in this section relate specifically sport fans and include success/failure biases, in-group/out-group biases, and basking in reflected glory. In terms of success/failure biases, research has shown fans are more likely to attribute team successes to internal factors (e.g., player endurance, skill level, quality of coaching), while attributing external factors (e.g. weather, game officials, field conditions) as the causes for team failures (Grove, Hanrahan, & McInman, 1991; Mann, 1974). The second identity maintenance process discussed in this section, in-group/out-group biases, refers to the practice of making favorable comparisons (e.g. number of championships won, quality of facility, game environment) with members of the out-group (Murrell & Dietz, 1992; Wann et al., 2006). In this case, the out-group consists of fans of opposing teams. The concept of BIRGing then, refers to an ego-boosting process in which individuals attempt to enhance their self-

esteem and how others perceive them by associating with a successful group (Hunt et al., 1999; Trail et al., 2000; Wann & Branscombe, 1990).

Included in the discussion of identity maintenance processes is the effect of fan identification on success/failure biases, in-group/out-group biases, and BIRGing. Fan identification has been defined as the extent to which one feels a psychological connection to a sports team (Wann et al., 2001). Other researchers have also defined identification in terms of oneness or connectedness to a sport organization (Madrigal, 2001; Mael & Ashforth, 1992; Sutton et al., 1997; Wann & Branscombe, 1993). Similarly, Trail, Anderson, and Fink (2000) defined identification as “an orientation of the self in regard to other objects including a person or group that results in feelings or sentiments of close attachment” (p. 166). Beyond commitment, connectedness, and attachment, fan identification has also been operationalized in terms of one’s emotional or affective involvement in relation to a sport organization (Sutton et al., 1997; Wann & Branscombe, 1990). In addition to the psychological and emotional connections to the team referenced above, Dimmock, Grove, and Eklund (2005) included the value one places on his/her role as a fan of a team into their conceptualization of fan identification. From these ideas, the following definition of identification was adopted for purposes of the current investigation: an individual’s perceived psychological and emotional involvement with a sport organization.

Success/Failure Biases

A primary method for sport fans to enhance their social identity is through on-field team success. Researchers have shown sport fans share an intimate relationship with their team such that fans, particularly those high in identification, internalize team

successes and failures as their own (Cialdini et al., 1976; Hirt et al., 1992; Kwon et al., 2008; Wann & Branscombe, 1990). As is the nature of sporting competitions however, there can only be one winner. Fans of the losing team must rely on alternative coping processes, such as success/failure biases and in-group/out-group biases, to enhance their group membership evaluations.

One of the earliest studies assessing success/failure bias among sport spectators was conducted by Mann (1974). Specifically, Mann was interested in the extent to which spectators of two separate South Australian Football League championship games attributed team successes or failures to either internal or external factors. Spectators were approached following the games and asked to complete a questionnaire assessing the contest on several different attributes including number of free kicks awarded to each team, reason for winning team's success, perceptions of umpire quality during the contest, whether "dirty play" affected the outcome, and overall rating of the game in general. Results indicated fans of the losing teams were significantly more likely to attribute external factors to the game outcome than fans of the winning team (Mann, 1974). Specifically, losing team fans estimated a significantly greater amount of free kicks had been awarded to the victor, were more likely to blame the umpire and/or luck for the outcome of the game, recalled observing dirty play to a greater extent than fans of the winning team, and provided a significantly lower overall rating of the contest than fans of the opposing team.

Grove et al. (1991) examined the success/failure attributions of coaches, participants, and spectators in recreational basketball leagues across three dimensions: internal/external, stable/unstable, and controllable/uncontrollable. Similar to the findings

reported by Mann (1974), results indicated that across all three groups, team successes were attributed to factors within the team's control (i.e. skill level and effort) to a greater degree than team failures. On the contrary, team losses were attributed to unstable factors outside of the team's control (i.e. game officials and luck). Grove et al. (1991) and Mann (1974) suggested success/failure attribution biases allow fans (as well as coaches and players) to protect their social identities from threats of poor team performance or enhance their ego following team victories.

Whereas both Grove et al. (1991) and Mann (1974) provided evidence of success/failure bias among sport fans, their findings were limited because they failed to account for differences in fan type. Before continuing, it is imperative to acknowledge that sport fandom exists on a vast continuum. On one end lie those individuals who are merely aware of a team's existence (Funk & James, 2001). On the other end, lie highly identified, dysfunctional fans, who have become so involved with their role as a fan, they struggle to fulfill demands associated with alternative roles such as those related to job or family (Hunt et al., 1999). To that point, Smith (1988) noted, "there are gradations of being a sports fan, ranging all the way from minimal interest to addiction" (p. 55). The extent to which an individual conforms to behaviors consistent with his/her group memberships is a direct reflection of the centrality of that group to his/her self-concept (Turner, 1982). Within sport marketing and sport sociology literature, the construct of fan identification has emerged as an important variable in understanding the affective, behavioral, and cognitive differences among sport fans.

Wann and Dolan (1994a) addressed the limitations in the Grove et al. (1991) and Mann (1974) studies by assessing the success/failure biases among highly and lowly

identified spectators at a men's college basketball game. Results suggested evidence of a difference in success/failure bias tendencies between fans with varying degrees of identification with the team. Highly identified fans were significantly more likely to attribute internal factors (player skill, fan base) as opposed to external factors (opponent, referee, fate) to team successes, while attributing team failures to external factors (Wann & Dolan, 1994a). This schism was not as pronounced for fans low in identification with the team. In others words, while both highly and lowly identified fans displayed some degree of success/failure bias following the game, the tendency to attribute victories to internal factors and losses to external factors was most prominent among fans with high levels of identification with the team.

More recently, Wann and Schrader (2000) examined the effects of identification not only on internal/external biases but also controllable and stable attributions for team successes and failures. The authors sampled 114 undergraduate students following two of their university's NCAA men's college basketball games. The target team won the first game and lost the second game. Findings reported by Wann and Schrader (2001) were consistent with those reported by Wann and Dolan (1994a) and Grove et al. (1991). Highly identified respondents perceived internal factors such as team ability and home team fans, as well as controllable and stable factors to be responsible for team wins. Conversely, team losses were attributed to opposing team ability and luck. Success/failure biases were not detected for fans with low levels of identification with the team. These results provide further evidence that highly identified fans rely on coping mechanisms to maintain and/or enhance their self-esteem following a sporting event. This is most likely attributable to the fact that the point of attachment, in this case the team,

was more closely aligned with highly identified fans' central definition of self than fans who are not as committed to the team (Hunt et al., 1999; Wann & Schrader, 2000).

In-Group/Out-Group Biases

As noted above, identity maintenance processes refer not only to demonstrations of success/failure bias but also in-group favoritism, or in-group/out-group biases. Turner (1982) held that membership to a group, by itself, is sufficient to elicit behavior normative of that group. Along those same lines, Tajfel and Turner (1986) suggested, "the mere awareness of the presence of an out-group is sufficient to provoke intergroup competitive or discriminatory responses on part of the in-group" (p. 281). Dimmock et al. (2005) reported evidence of this social identity enhancement strategy in their study, which investigated the relationship between team identification and intergroup bias. Within the context of their study, identification was conceptualized as a three-dimensional construct: (a) cognitive-affective (psychological and emotional perceptions of attachment to the team), (b) personal evaluative (individual perceptions regarding the value of identification to the self), and (c) social or other evaluative (perceptions of how others value one's identification to a team). In-group/out-group comparisons were based on perceptions of friendliness, fairness, aggressiveness, rowdiness, likeableness, and team knowledge. Participants in the study (N=362) consisted of self-reported fans of an Australian football team. Findings indicated a positive relationship between the cognitive-affective dimension of team identification and intergroup bias. That is, based on the attributes assessed, respondents exhibiting higher levels of cognitive-affective identification were more likely to demonstrate preference for in-group members than fans low in cognitive-affective identification (Dimmock et al., 2005).

Wann and Branscombe (1995) also reported evidence of in-group bias by highly identified fans. A sample of undergraduate students was asked to list attributes which best described sport fans of the in-group (fellow University of Kansas fans) and fans of an out-group (University of Missouri fans). Results indicated that highly identified fans listed a significantly greater number of positive traits (i.e. knowledgeable, loyal, spirited) for the in-group members and a significantly greater percentage of negative traits (i.e. arrogant, obnoxious, rowdy) for the out-group members. A tendency to derogate out-group members was not evident among respondents indicating low levels of identification.

Similarly, Wann and Dolan (1994b) examined in-group biases among undergraduate, collegiate men's basketball fans within the context of rival fan evaluations. Participants were provided a scenario which described a close game between the respondents' in-group team and a rival school. Participants were randomly assigned to read a scenario in which either a fan of the rival team or the fan of the in-group team engaged in dysfunctional behaviors (i.e. jumping on their seat, throwing objects onto the floor, shouting obscenities at game officials) following a close loss. Participants were asked to evaluate the behavior of the fan in terms of appropriateness, likelihood of being friends with this fan, likelihood of attending a game and/or interacting with this fan, and whether or not the fan should be punished for his behavior. Findings reported by Wann and Dolan (1994b) indicated that highly identified fans rated the behavior of the in-group dysfunctional fan significantly more appropriate than fans low in identification. Additionally, highly identified fans were significantly more likely to rate the behavior of the in-group fan more positively than the rival fan.

The effects of identification on in-group bias extend beyond evaluations of other fans. For example, Wann et al. (2006) examined the relationship between level of identification and fan evaluations of a potential recruit. Participants were randomly assigned to one of two groups in which they were told the recruit would either be attending the in-group school or a rival out-group school. After watching a ten-minute video of the potential recruit, participants were asked to evaluate the recruit on a number of attributes including athleticism, talent, and star power. Much like the results reported by Wann and Dolan (1994b), ANOVA results from the Wann et al. (2006) study revealed a significant effect of identification on recruit evaluations. Highly identified fans were significantly more likely to indicate positive evaluations of the recruit when they believed he would be attending the in-group university as opposed to the rival institution. No significant differences were found in player evaluations among fans low in identification (Wann et al., 2006).

Basking in Reflected Glory

As noted above, team successes are a primary source of identity maintenance/enhancement. To that end, basking in reflected glory refers to the tendency of sport fans to support successful teams for the purpose of enhancing their social identity (Cialdini et al., 1976; Wann & Branscombe, 1990). Research on the BIRGing phenomenon in sport can be traced back to the Cialdini et al. (1976) study, in which the authors observed the propensity for students to demonstrate their identification with a team by wearing school-related apparel following university football games. A second experiment was conducted to assess the extent to which students used the pronoun “we” when describing game outcomes. Results indicated that students were more likely to wear

school-of attendance clothing following a team win and more likely to use the pronoun “we” when describing a victory, while non-we or “they” responses were more common following a non-victory (Cialdini et al., 1976). These results indicated fans of winning teams are more likely to BIRG than fans of non-winning teams.

A similar study was conducted by Bernache-Assollant, Lacassagne, and Braddock (2007), who looked at BIRGing behaviors of highly identified soccer fans in France. The authors conducted a content analysis of fan magazines (fanzines) of two highly-identified fan groups, in which the word choices of fans were analyzed for evidence of BIRGing (instances of the pronoun ‘we’ when describing team successes). Results indicated fans from both fan groups were more likely to use the term ‘we’ following a win, as opposed to a loss. The findings reported in this study were consistent with those from Cialdini et al.’s (1976) study which suggested sport fans engage in BIRGing behaviors in an effort to increase self-esteem.

Fan identification has also been shown to influence the degree to which fans BIRG or CORF in response to game outcomes. CORFing, or cutting off reflected failure, is an alternative self-esteem preservation response in which individuals actively distance themselves from unsuccessful groups (Campbell, Aiken, & Kent, 2004; Snyder, Lassegard, & Ford, 1986; Wann & Branscombe, 1990). Like in-group biases and success/failure attributions, research has shown highly identified fans are more likely to engage in BIRGing responses following team wins and less likely to engage in CORFing responses following team losses than fans low in identification. For example, Wann and Branscombe (1990) assessed one’s propensity to BIRG and/or CORF through a measure of personal enjoyment derived from watching one’s team win or lose. Using a sample of

208 college students, results from the Wann and Branscombe (1990) study suggested tendencies to BIRG following a team win were more prevalent among highly identified fans compared to fans moderate or low in identification. Conversely, highly identified fans were significantly less likely to CORF following a loss. From a marketers perspective, the findings reported by Wann and Branscombe (1990) suggest highly identified fans will continue to support the club, even if the team is losing. More relevant to the current discussion however, is the notion that highly identified fans will rely on BIRGing to enhance their self-esteem when the team is winning, yet must rely on alternative identity maintenance processes (e.g. success/failure biases and in-group/out-group biases) to preserve their social identities in the wake of team losses.

Findings from the Kwon et al. (2008) investigation offered causal support for the results reported by Wann and Branscombe (1990). Three models were proposed to explain the moderating and mediating effect of fan identification between vicarious achievement and BIRGing and CORFing tendencies among sport spectators. Participants in the study were undergraduate students enrolled in health and human performance classes at a Midwestern university. Confirmatory factor analysis results revealed that identification accounted for nearly 50% of the variance in BIRGing within the fully-mediated model. Identification only partially mediated the relationship between vicarious achievement and CORFing, accounting for less than 30% of the variance in CORFing tendencies of fans of an unsuccessful team. Additionally, the path from identification to CORFing indicated a negative relationship between the two variables. In other words, consistent with the findings reported in the Wann and Branscombe (1990) study, highly

identified fans BIRG to a greater degree and CORF to a lesser extent than non-highly identified fans (Kwon et al., 2008).

Trail et al. (2000) posited a theoretical model of sport consumptive behavior in which identity maintenance processes, or self-esteem responses (BIRGing/CORFing), were indirectly influenced by fan identification. An initial follow-up study conducted by Trail et al., (2003) found poor empirical support for the proposed model. Despite moderate overall fit of the model to the data ($RMSEA = .056$), several of the path coefficients were non-significant or minimal, suggesting the need for model refinement. Specifically, results indicated identification was not related to self-esteem responses or behavioral intentions, despite research providing evidence to the contrary (Fisher & Wakefield, 1998; James & Trail, 2008; Wann & Branscombe, 1990; Wann & Branscombe, 1993). Further, the entire model only explained 11% of the variance in spectator consumptive behavior (Trail et al., 2003).

The model was revisited in the Trail, Anderson, and Fink (2005) study as the authors proposed three refined models, grounded in consumer satisfaction theory and identity theory, to explain spectator behavior. Using a sample of spectators at two men's and two women's home basketball games at a large Midwestern university, the authors reported a good fitting model which accounted for 49% of the variance in customer loyalty. Of importance to this discussion, however, was the reported relationship between identification and BIRGing. Identification accounted for 26% of the variance in self-esteem responses and more importantly, the positive, significant relationship between the two factors suggests that higher levels of identification with the team will lead to increased BIRGing responses (Trail et al., 2005).

In brief, research presented in this section provides evidence to support Tajfel and Turner's (1986) and Turner's (1982) contentions that group members employ cognitive processes to protect or enhance their social identities. Research on the BIRGing phenomenon suggests highly identified fans use the success of the team with which they identify as a method of identity maintenance (Bernache-Assollant et al., 2007; Kwon et al., 2008; Wann & Branscombe, 1990). When the team does not win however, highly identified fans must rely on alternative processes, such as in-group/out-group biases (Dimmock et al., 2005; Wann & Branscombe, 1995; Wann & Dolan, 1994b; Wann et al., 2006) and success/failure biases (Grove et al., 1991; Mann, 1974; Wann & Dolan, 1994a; Wann & Schrader, 2000), to maintain a positive social identity. Conversely, lesser identified fans do not require such attributions, as their social identities are not predicated upon on the game's outcome.

The Fan/Team Relationship

In continuing with the discussion of the sport fan role as a social identity, the focus of this section will shift from identity maintenance processes to the relationship sport fans share with their team. To a highly identified fan, the team may represent a non-tangible object to which they perceive ownership by way of their emotional investment in the club (Hunt et al., 1999). To some, the team is likened to a close family member or friend (Giulianotti, 2002; Mitrano, 1999). Given the importance of the fan role to a highly identified fan's self-concept, it is not surprising that fans share a unique relationship with the team, unlike those seen with traditional consumer objects (i.e. candy bar, laundry detergent, vacuum cleaner). This section will explore the sport fan/team relationship in more detail, including the effect of fan identification on this relationship.

Hunt et al. (1999) proposed sport fans may be classified into five typologies: temporary, local, devoted, fanatical, and dysfunctional. Those whose motivation to consume is bound by time or place are known as temporary and local fans respectively. Devoted, fanatical, and dysfunctional fans on the other hand, exhibit more enduring consumption motivation which is not constrained by time or geographical boundaries. These latter three fan types develop an attachment to their team such that the team becomes part of their self-concept. The authors theorized fans come to perceive “ownership” of their team (i.e. the Redskins are “my” team) through emotional investments, which elicit responses toward their “possession” similar to that of a tangible object to which an individual is attached (Hunt et al., 1999).

Findings from the Ball and Tasaki (1992) investigation indicated individuals become more attached to self-defining objects, such as houses, cars, or even hobby items, as opposed to objects less instrumental in the maintenance of one’s identity (i.e. wallet, television, watch, shoes). Attachment was as defined as “the extent to which an object which is owned...is used by [an] individual to maintain his or her self-concept” (Ball & Tasaki, 1992, p. 158). Given this definition, the researchers contended individuals will devote significant resources (i.e. time and energy) to maintain and protect objects to which they are attached, so as to avoid or delay the emotional toll resulting from loss of such objects (Ball & Tasaki, 1992). In line with Hunt et al.’s (1999) contention, enduring sport fans will spend time, energy, and money (through supportive behaviors and identity maintenance processes such as basking in reflected glory and success/failure biases) to maintain a positive social identity/self-concept as a result of their attachment to and identification with the team.

Aside from conceptualizing the team as an object to be owned, sport fans also share a relationship with their team symbolic of a relationship one might share with a close friend or family member. In an effort to better understand this relationship, Mitrano (1999) examined the social-psychological effects of the Hartford NHL franchise's relocation on highly identified Whaler fans. Specifically, the author observed metaphors used by Whaler fans as they tried to understand and make sense of the team's move to North Carolina. Data were collected through content analysis of fan letters in the newspaper and fan posts to an online Whalers' message board. In addition, online interviews were conducted with 25 active contributors to the team's message board. Content analysis results revealed fans compared the relocation of the team to the death of a loved one. For example, one fan said, "Leaving the seat in 105 [following the team's final game] was like leaving your dog behind to be put to sleep" (Mitrano, 1999, p. 138). Another fan said, "The team I grew up with – the team I cherished – died yesterday" (Mitrano, 1999, p. 137). To others, the team's relocation evoked feelings similar to that of their own parents' deaths, "What else is there to say except that this is the third saddest day of my life only ranking behind my mother dying back in February and my father passing away eight years ago" (Mitrano, 1999, p. 148). Given the prevalence of the death metaphor, it is not surprising that Mitrano (1999) reported evidence of grieving stages by Hartford fans similar to those experienced by those who are dying: denial, anger, bargaining, depression, and acceptance. One fan poignantly expressed his anger at the Whalers' owner saying, "Screw you...if you are ever near me, look out, I'll run you over boy" (Mitrano, 1999, p. 141).

In addition to the death, fans also likened the team's relocation to divorce, "I feel as though I have just gotten divorced, and the soul mate I once knew has been banished from my life forever" (Mitrano, 1999, p. 146). Another fan characterized the team in terms of a family member saying, "The team that was there for us is just about dead. A member of the family is dying" (Mitrano, 1999, p. 149). As noted by the author, these metaphors suggest a perceived intimate relationship the fans share with the team extending beyond mere consumption. Findings from the Mitrano (1999) investigation suggest highly identified fans share an emotional bond with their team similar to that of a spouse, child, or parent.

Up to this point, the discussion of the sport fan/team relationship has focused on the emotional attachment fans share with their team. However, research suggests this relationship extends beyond attachment. For example, research on the BIRGing phenomenon presented in the previous section suggests sport fans consider themselves to be actual members of the sport organization, such that successes and failures of the team become shared experiences (Cialdini et al., 1976; Wann & Branscombe, 1990). This was conveyed through the 'we' responses employed by sport fans in the Bernache-Assollant et al. (2007) and Cialdini et al. (1976) investigations when describing the team.

In the same vein, Hirt et al. (1992) examined the extent to which fans internalized team successes and failures as their own. The authors sampled 167 undergraduate students enrolled in psychology and communications courses at Indiana University. Participants watched an entire Indiana University basketball game in order to assess the effects of team performance on one's mood, task performance estimates, and actual task performance. Subjects were placed into one of three game conditions: win, loss, and a

control group in which participants watched a Division II men's basketball game to which they did not have a rooting interest. Results indicated significant differences in mood state and performance estimates between the three groups. Participants in the win group indicated significantly more positive mood states following the game than those in the loss and control groups. Similarly, estimates of self-performance on mental and social tasks were significantly greater for win-group participants than participants in the other two groups. Differences in actual performance on these tasks did not differ between groups.

As noted in the previous section however, fan identification, or in the case of the Hirt et al. (1992) investigation, identity importance, moderates fan responses to sporting events. Hirt et al. found the differences in mood and self-task performance estimates between win and loss conditions was only present among participants indicating a high degree of fanship with the Indiana University men's basketball team. Only those fans whose fan roles carry high levels of importance to their identity internalize team successes and failures as their own. Lesser identified fans on the other hand, distance themselves from the team, or CORF (cutting off reflected failure), following team losses, thereby avoiding detrimental identity responses (Hirt et al., 1992).

In summation, this section focused on the fan/team relationship and the effects of fan identification on this relationship. Research suggests the fan/team relationship is different than the relationship that exists between consumers and non-sport related products such as a television, a pair of shoes, or a carton of ice cream. For example, Mitrano (1999) noted a fan's relationship with a team is similar to that of a family member or close friend. Additionally, sport fans, particularly those high in identification,

come to internalize the successes and failures of the team as their own (Hirt et al., 1992). This is not surprising considering the significance of the sport fan role to the self-concept of a highly identified fan (Hunt et al., 1999; Tajfel & Turner, 1986; Turner, 1982; Wann et al., 2001). This contention is further supported in the basking in reflected glory literature. As noted by Cialdini et al. (1976) and Bernache-Assollant et al. (2007), BIRGing responses may be detected through the use of 'we' responses when discussing the team. This suggests fans perceive themselves to be actual members of the sport organization. Further, highly identified fans have been shown to BIRG to a greater degree than fans low in identification (Kwon et al., 2008; Trail et al., 2005; Wann & Branscombe, 1990).

The next section of this literature review will continue to explore the sport fan role with a discussion of the behavioral responses of sport fans. In line with prior sections, behavioral responses such as game attendance, media and merchandise consumption, and problem behaviors such as fan aggression, are also intensified by one's degree of identification with the team.

Sport Fan Behaviors

Not to be forgotten in the discussion of sport fandom are the behavioral responses of fans. Behavioral responses may range from game attendance to merchandise consumption to decorating oneself in team-related paraphernalia to following news about one's team on the Internet. While such behaviors portray the stereotypical depiction of a sports fan, Turner (1982) contends these behaviors are a product of one's perceived membership in a group. Meaning, sport fans engage in these behaviors because they are

understood to be normative behaviors of in-group members. According to Wann et al. (2001), the process of adopting a group's norms as one's own is known as socialization.

Given the fact that fan identification has been shown to intensify the cognitive and affective responses of sport fans (Dimmock et al., 2005; Hirt et al., 1992; Kwon et al., 2008; Wann & Branscombe, 1990, 1995; Wann & Dolan, 1994a), it is not surprising that fan identification affects one's behavioral responses as well (Wann et al., 2001). As noted above, social identity theory holds the degree to which one conforms to the norms and behaviors of a group reflects the salience of that group membership to one's self-concept (Turner, 1982). Therefore, an examination of fan behaviors, and more importantly, the effect of identification on those behaviors, may aid in better understanding the sport fan role.

In the seminal piece regarding sport fan identification, Wann and Branscombe (1993) examined the relationship between identification with the University of Kansas men's basketball team and a number of affective, cognitive, and behavioral consumer responses. The sample in their study was comprised of undergraduate students enrolled in psychology courses. In terms of behavioral responses, findings revealed highly identified fans reported higher levels of involvement with the team (greater number of years as a fan, higher expectations of home game attendance, greater likelihood of attending away games) and greater investment of time and money into the team than fans low in identification.

The effect of fan identification on team supportive behaviors was also investigated by Fisher and Wakefield (1998). The authors sampled fans of both winning and losing (determined by overall won/loss record and likelihood of qualifying for the

post-season) professional hockey teams in order to determine both the antecedents and outcomes of identification. Surveys were randomly distributed to fans upon entry into the arena. A total of 206 respondents participated in the study (132 from the winning team, 74 from the losing team). In terms of the outcomes of identification, a significant positive relationship was reported between identification and game attendance, game behaviors (wearing team-related clothing, possession of signage or posters, artificial noisemakers), and consumption of team-related merchandise. In addition, the relationship between identification and each of these behavioral outcomes was significant for fans of both the winning and non-winning hockey teams. The latter finding suggests highly identified fans will continue to consume regardless of team performance. Furthermore, results from Fisher and Wakefield (1998) support the findings reported by Wann and Branscombe (1993) which held level of identification significantly influences the consumptive behavior of sport fans.

Similar findings were also reported by Laverie and Arnett (2000) and Matsuoka et al. (2003). Laverie and Arnett observed the combined effects of identification and satisfaction on attendance decisions. The sample ($N = 190$) was drawn from undergraduate students on campus following the 1997/1998 women's college basketball season. Results indicated identity salience ($\beta = .39$) was a more influential factor in predicting fan attendance than game satisfaction ($\beta = .15$). Said differently, as identification with a team increases, satisfaction with game outcome becomes less important to one's re-patronage intentions (Laverie & Arnett, 2000).

According to Matsuoka et al. (2003), these findings are not limited to fans of North American sport. Matsuoka et al. examined the relationship between both

identification and transaction-specific satisfaction (immediate evaluation of purchase) and future purchase intentions, which was operationalized as intent to attend future games, among spectators at J-League and Japan Football League games. Results indicated both identification and satisfaction with the event (team performance, final score, and quality of play) were significant predictors of future attendance intentions. However, when examining the interaction between identification and satisfaction, results indicated identification accounted for a much larger percentage of the variance in future attendance than any of the three elements of satisfaction. Further, overall satisfaction with team performance was much more important to the future purchase intentions of fans low in identification than highly identified fans, suggesting that fans demonstrating higher levels of identification with a team will continue to attend even if they are not satisfied with the on-field performance (Matsuoka et al, 2003).

Consistent with the results reported by Fisher and Wakefield (1998), Laverie and Arnett (2000), Matsuoka et al. (2003), and Wann and Branscombe (1993), Wann et al. (2004) also detected a positive relationship between identification and future attendance intentions. Further, highly identified fans were also willing to commit greater financial resources to ticket purchases, as well as forgo competing entertainment alternatives in favor of the game.

In an effort to better understand the determinants of future attendance decisions in sport, Wakefield (1995) proposed a model which assessed the effects of team identification, perceived ticket value, and perceived community acceptance of attendance on future purchase intentions. Data were collected from fans attending two different AA baseball games. The sample sizes from each stadium were 301 and 308, respectively.

Structural equation modeling results indicated good model fit of the data. The combined effects of all three determinants accounted for 47.1% of the variance in future attendance decisions. For both data sets however, identification with the team was the most influential factor in a fan's decision to attend a future game. Further, a significant positive relationship was reported between identification and perceived ticket value, which suggests highly identified fans believe they are getting more value at sporting events than do fans low in identification.

More recently, James and Trail (2008) observed the effects of identification on support behaviors independently in order to determine whether the influence of identification was consistent across various consumptive behaviors. The sample consisted of 507 season ticket holders of a Major League Baseball team who completed a survey measuring level of identification and consumptive support behaviors. Results from the James and Trail investigation suggested identification accounted for a much larger percent of the variance in media and merchandise consumptive behaviors (66%) than it did attendance (16%). This finding indicates that the effect of identification across support behaviors is not consistent. According to these results, identification with a team is more important to an individual's decision to support the team through merchandise and media consumption than it is to one's decision to attend a game in person.

An element of merchandise consumption not examined by James and Trail (2008) was impulse buying of team-related merchandise. Impulse buying was defined by Kwon and Armstrong (2002) as "the immediate urge to engage in unplanned purchases" (p. 151). Kwon and Armstrong examined the effects of several factors identified through earlier research on impulse buying behaviors including identification, shopping

enjoyment, time availability, and money availability. Using a sample of 145 undergraduate students, the authors found evidence to support their hypothesis that level of identification would significantly influence an individual's impulse buying of sport team licensed merchandise. Additionally, findings suggested that team identification was a significant predictor of the amount of money consumers were willing to spend on impulse buying of team-related merchandise. Further, of the four potential predictors of impulse buying behaviors included in the study, identification was the only one found to significantly predict the outcome variable (Kwon & Armstrong, 2002).

In summary, sport fans engage in a wide range of consumptive behaviors. Further, those behaviors are most prevalent among individuals whose fan role is highly salient to their self-concept. As noted by Turner (1982), membership to groups which reflect strongly on one's social identity is likely to elicit behaviors normative of that group. In the case of the sport fan, normative behaviors include game attendance, merchandise consumption, indirect game consumption through the media, and game behaviors such as wearing player jerseys, participating in team cheers, or bringing signs/posters to a game. However, in addition to the consumptive behaviors discussed above, sport fans engage in a number of detrimental or problem behaviors, most notably fan aggression. A more thorough discussion of dysfunctional fan behaviors is presented in the ensuing section.

Problem Behaviors by Sport Fans

To be fair, the stereotypical depiction of sport fans at a game cheering on their favorite team is only partially complete. The characterization of a "die-hard" sports fan also conjures images of heavy drinking, hooliganism, rioting after sporting events, and even racism. For example, police in Montreal were forced to use tear gas to break up a

fan riot following the Canadians' victory over the Pittsburgh Penguins in the 2010 Eastern Conference semi-finals. A Columbus Crew fan directing a racial slur towards a black player on the New England Revolution during a Major League Soccer game is another example of disruptive fan behavior (Goff, 2008). According to Hunt et al.'s (1999) classification of sport fans, such behaviors are characteristic of a dysfunctional fan. For a dysfunctional fan, the fan role represents the foundation of self-definition. As noted by Hunt et al. (1999), "The dysfunctional fan will readily engage in violent or other disruptive behavior under the pretext that this behavior is somewhat justified because of being a fan" (p. 447).

To that point, Wann (1993) argued that spectator aggression may be a self-esteem protection mechanism similar to BIRGing and CORFing. As discussed in earlier sections, highly identified fans are less likely to CORF following a loss compared to non-highly identified fans (Trail et al., 2000; Wann & Branscombe, 1990). Therefore, highly identified individuals must rely on alternative coping processes to protect their identity. One such coping process is blasting. Blasting allows fans to protect their self-esteem following a loss by derogating or acting out aggressively towards out-group members (Wann, 1993). The Bernache-Assollant et al. (2007) study discussed above provides some evidence of the blasting phenomenon among deeply committed soccer spectators; however, such behavior was not consistent across all highly identified fans.

Findings from the Wann (1994) study indicated fan aggression is a product of impulse behavior as opposed to pre-disposed aggressive traits of an individual. The researcher surveyed 230 undergraduate students in order to assess the relationship between fan identification and trait-level aggression. Pearson correlations failed to reveal

a significant relationship between the two constructs, suggesting highly identified fans are not pre-disposed towards aggressive tendencies (Wann, 1994).

Despite Wann's (1994) findings, literature pertaining to fan aggression suggests a positive link between aggression at sporting events and fan identification. For example, Wann, Carlson, et al. (1999) examined the relationship between fan identification and two types of aggression, hostile and instrumental. Hostile aggression refers to "violent actions that are motivated by anger with the goal of harming another person" (p. 279), while instrumental aggression was defined as "actions intended to harm another person with the goal of achieving a result other than the victim's suffering" (p. 279). An example of hostile aggression occurred at a Cleveland Browns game in 2001 when fans littered the field with plastic beer bottles following an overturned call which cost their team the game. Instrumental aggression is far more common and may be seen on a daily basis at basketball games across the country. Routinely when a member of the opposing team is taking a free throw, fans will shout obscenities and other rude remarks directed towards the player. Unlike the Browns' fans in the example of hostile aggression provided above, fans in this example are not trying to "hurt" the opposing player, but rather distract him/her from making the free throw.

Wann, Carlson, et al. (1999) surveyed 196 undergraduate students at a men's college basketball game to test their hypothesis that highly identified sport fans would display higher levels of both hostile and instrumental aggression than non-highly identified fans. MANOVA results indicated a significant main effect of identification on both types of aggression. In other words, significantly higher levels of both hostile and

instrumental aggression were reported by highly identified fans compared to fans low in identification (Wann, Carlson, et al., 1999).

More recently, Dimmock and Grove (2005) examined the relationship between identification and aggression among sport fans ($N=181$) in Australia who had attended specific sporting events including soccer, basketball, or Australian Rules Football. Specifically, the authors examined the effects of identification on participants' attitudes towards fan aggression, perceptions of behavioral norms at sporting events, and perceived behavioral control. Results suggested attitudes towards aggression and perceptions of behavioral norms do not significantly differ based on level of identification, however, highly identified fans ($\mu = 7.53$) did report significantly less behavioral control at sporting events than fans low in identification ($\mu = .830$).

Building on the above findings, Wakefield and Wann (2006) examined the extent to which highly identified fans engaged in problem, or dysfunctional, behaviors. The authors defined highly identified, dysfunctional fans as individuals with "abnormal or...impaired functioning as it relates to socialization and social groups in a sports context" (p. 170). Data were collected from a sample of spectators at a major college football game. Highly identified fans were segmented based on self-reported levels of dysfunctional behavior. Results indicated that highly identified, highly dysfunctional fans were more likely to blast officials, view alcohol consumption as an important part of game experience, and have lower perceptions of service quality at the game than highly identified fans in low or moderate dysfunction groups. Additionally, respondents in the high dysfunction group were more likely to call into talk radio shows and post comments

on opposing team message boards for the purpose of inciting altercations than non-dysfunctional, highly identified spectators (Wakefield & Wann, 2006).

In addition to fan aggression, spectator sport has been linked to a number of other negative social consequences, including fan violence (Case & Boucher, 1981; Case, Greer, & Lacourse, 1987; Edwards & Van Rackages, 1977; Roberts & Benjamin, 2000; Ward, 2002), anti-social behavior (Eitzen, 1988; Hughson, 2000), gender inequity (Wann et al., 2001), racism (Eitzen, 1988; Ferber, 2007; Jones & Fleming, 2007; Newman, 2007; Wann et al., 2001), and hooliganism (Spaaij, 2008). Hooliganism is primarily a European and Latin American phenomenon and has been described as “competitive violence of socially organized fan groups in football, principally directed against opposing fan groups” (Spaaij, 2006, p. 11). Spaaij (2008) suggested that hooliganism is explained, in part, by intense emotional experiences, the need to manage one’s social identity, and a sense of connectedness to a group. His contention is similar to that of Wann (1993), who also held fan aggression was a behavioral identity maintenance mechanism. An example of hooliganism occurred in 2008 when upwards of 100 supporters of Leicester City and Coventry City soccer clubs came to blows in a pre-planned brawl prior to their teams’ game in England (Stone, 2008).

To summarize, the sport fan role is associated with a plethora of behavioral responses, many of which are intensified as a result of identification. Game attendance, merchandise and media consumption, and game behaviors represent supportive behaviors which Giulianotti (2002) referred to as a celebration of one’s identity as a fan. Additionally however, sport fandom has been linked to a number of dysfunctional fan behaviors ranging from fan aggression to hooliganism to racism. Engagement in such

behaviors may be incompatible with behaviors required for alternative roles, such as family. Similarly, the time, money, and energy one must commit to support his/her favorite team is perishable in nature. Once those resources are spent, they may not be devoted to fulfilling the demands of competing roles. Conceivably then, sport fans may experience inter-role conflict when attempting to balance the demands of multiple roles. This study was primarily concerned with inter-role conflict between fan and family roles, or fan-family conflict. The next section of this dissertation will explore inter-role conflict in detail, tying in what we know about the sport fan role.

Inter-Role Conflict

Roles reflect the behaviors of individuals within a specific context (Biddle, 1979). Such contexts may include student, parent, spouse, employee, boss, customer, or even, as discussed above, fan of a sports team. A person may actively identify with several roles at the same time. For example, one may be employed at a department store, have a wife and two children, belong to a local biking community, and be a die-hard fan of the local college football team. This collection of roles is known as a role set (Biddle, 1976; Goode, 1960; Madsen & Hammond, 2005). Inter-role conflict is concerned with conflict experienced between two or more roles within an individual's role set. Kahn et al. (1964) defined inter-role conflict as "role pressures associated with membership in one group [that] are in conflict with pressures stemming from membership in other groups" (p. 20). According to Madsen and Hammond (2005), research exploring the phenomenon of inter-role conflict is commonly grounded in role theory. Role theory seeks to explain the situational behaviors of individuals and the processes influencing such behaviors (Biddle, 1979).

Within academic literature, inter-role conflict is commonly examined through the lens of work and family roles. In fact, of the first 100 hits on a literature database search of inter-role conflict, 85 were related to work-family conflict. Similar to the definition of inter-role conflict offered by Kahn et al. (1964), work-family conflict has been operationalized as “a form of inter-role conflict in which the role pressures from the work and family domains are mutually incompatible in some respect” (Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985, p. 77). Given the abundance of literature pertaining to inter-role conflict as it relates to work and family roles, and the relative dearth of research regarding fan-family conflict, the key variables included in this dissertation will be examined primarily through the lens of work-family conflict.

Greenhaus and Beutell (1985) held perceptions of inter-role conflict are most intense when the competing role demands originate from two or more highly salient role contexts. Goode (1960) contended individuals have a finite arsenal of resources at their disposal to fully satisfy all of their role demands. Time, energy, and finances represent examples of limited resources that must be appropriately allocated between roles in order to avoid conflict. The difficulty one experiences in meeting his/her role demands is known as role strain (Biddle, 1976; Goode, 1960). Role strain is commonly associated with stress, anxiety, and depression (Goode, 1960; Keith & Schafer, 1980). Such stress makes it difficult for an individual to adequately fulfill the role demands of either role (Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985).

According to Greenhaus and Beutell (1985) inter-role conflict can take three forms: time-based, strain-based, or behavior-based. Time-based conflict infers that time devoted to one role cannot be devoted to another role. This notion supports Goode's

(1960) contention that individuals have limited resources to fulfill role demands. Strain-based conflict occurs when stress or anxiety from one role spills over to negatively interfere with one's ability to perform another role. Finally, behavior-based conflict refers to behaviors within work and family roles that are not compatible with each other. For example, drinking at a sporting event and shouting obscenities may not be acceptable behavior within one's family role. Such behaviors may lead to perceptions of behavior-based inter-role conflict. Each of these forms of inter-role conflict will be discussed in detail later in this chapter.

Beyond the time-based, strain-based, and behavior-based forms of inter-role conflict, research has also examined inter-role conflict as a bi-directional construct. Through the work-family lens, bi-directional inter-role conflict refers to work interference with family and family interference with work (Boyar et al., 2008; Carlson, Grzywacz, & Zivnuska, 2009; Carlson et al., 2000; Lapierre et al., 2008; Netemeyer, Boles, & McMurrian, 1996). Through a combination of forms and direction, six types of inter-role conflict (work-family conflict) emerge in the literature: time-based family interference with work, strain-based family interference with work, behavior-based family interference with work, time-based work interference with family, strain-based work interference with family, and behavior-based work interference with family (Carlson et al., 2000; Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985; Halbesleben et al., 2009; Lapierre et al., 2008; Madsen & Hammond, 2005). The current study is interested in the extent to which the fan role interferes with family role demands. Thus, for the purpose of this study, fan-family conflict will refer to fan interference with family.

In order to fully understand inter-role conflict between fan and family roles, a clear definition of family is required. Not surprisingly, the concept of family is going to mean different things to different people. For some, family might mean one's spouse/partner and children. For others, family may include parents and grandparents. Some may consider close friends as members of the family. Therefore, it is important to clarify how family will be operationalized. From a healthcare perspective, Bonomi, Boudreau, Fishman, Meenan, and Revicki (2005) defined family as "adults linked by marriage or partnership, and their biological or adopted children" (p. 1128). This definition is limited however in that it does not allow for family members or close friends who fall outside of the parent/child relationship. Rothausen (1999) spoke to this point, noting that families may also include individuals "related through affection, obligation, dependence, or cooperation" (p. 820). Therefore, for the purpose of this study, the definition of family offered by Park et al. (2003) will be adopted. Park and colleagues defined family as, "people who think of themselves as part of the family, whether related by blood or marriage or not, and who support and care for each other on a regular basis" (p. 368). Understanding inter-role conflict as it pertains to family is particularly important because family role demands are relatively stable when compared to other roles competing for one's resources. As such, family role obligations both affect and are affected by resource allocation decisions directed towards other roles (Goode, 1960).

While this study was primarily concerned with the relationship between fan identification and fan-family conflict, as well as the extent to which family involvement and family support moderated this relationship, it is prudent to understand additional factors which may contribute to perceptions of inter-role conflict. For example, given that

one facet of inter-role conflict is time-based conflict, it is not surprising that researchers have identified a positive relationship between role time commitment and inter-role conflict. In their study of work-family conflict among NCAA Division I (D-I) athletic trainers, Mazerolle et al. (2008) found the amount of time spent at work was a significant predictor of inter-role conflict. Similarly, Dixon and Bruening (2007) conducted focus groups with 41 female head coaches at the NCAA D-I level to better understand work-family conflict among the female coaching population. At the organizational level, job time commitment was the most commonly cited factor contributing to perceptions of inter-role conflict. A significant path coefficient from work time demands to inter-role conflict was also reported in the Carlson and Kacmar (2000) investigation. Boyar et al. (2008) reported time spent at work and time spent caring for one's family were positively related to perceived demand in both work and family domains, respectively. Perceived role demand in turn, directly affected inter-role conflict such that higher levels of perceived demands led to greater feelings of conflict. A number of other researchers have detected a similar relationship between role time commitment and conflict (Burke et al., 1980; Carlson & Perrewé, 1999; Dixon et al., 2006; Greenhaus et al., 1987; Keith & Schaffer, 1980; Parasuraman & Simmers, 2001; Reinardy, 2007).

Outside of work and family, time commitment to leisure roles has also been shown to negatively interfere with alternative role demands. For example, Gillespie et al., (2002) conducted a qualitative investigation involving highly identified dog sport participants and the impact of this leisure role on other areas of life. The authors held that conflict between leisure roles and roles of the "dominant culture" (i.e. work, family, religion) are inevitable given the perishable nature of time and money. Through

interviews and observations, Gillespie et al. (2002) found evidence to support this contention. Respondents indicated friction between family members regarding the amount of time and money devoted to dog sports. One respondent said her family ate dinner late in the evening to accommodate her dog schedule. Another admitted to missing family events such as birthdays and funerals as they conflicted with dog shows (Gillespie et al., 2002). In another leisure-family conflict study, Fick et al. (1996) reported a positive relationship between time devoted to running and inter-role conflict. Although this relationship was not significant, individuals perceiving high levels of leisure-family conflict spent 7.9 hours per week running, compared to 6.6 hours per week for those respondents indicating low inter-role conflict (Fick et al., 1996).

Like role time demands, intra-role strain/stress-related variables have also been linked to higher levels of inter-role conflict. While many of the strain-related variables identified in the literature pertain to work and family roles, the main implication as it relates to sport fans is that role stress is predictive of inter-role conflict. For example, in Reinardy's (2007) study of work-family conflict involving newspaper sports editors, a significant, positive correlation was reported between role overload and work-family conflict. Role overload is a stress-related variable, which was defined by the authors as "the general feeling of having too much to do and not enough time to do it" (Reinardy, 2007, p. 112). Carlson and Kacmar (2000) reported stress experienced in the family domain, operationalized in terms of role conflict and role ambiguity, were predictive of family-to-work conflict. The same constructs were employed to represent work role stress in the Bedeian et al. (1988) study, in which role stress in the work domain was associated with higher levels of work-family conflict.

In an earlier study, Kopelman et al. (1983) examined the effects of role conflict within both work and family domains on inter-role conflict. Within the context of the Kopelman et al. (1983) study, role conflict referred to competing pressures within a given role. Correlational and path analysis results revealed a positive relationship between work and family conflict and inter-role conflict. A path analysis was also employed to detect the relationship between role conflict and inter-role conflict in the Chiu (1998) investigation. Consistent with the findings reported by Kopelman et al. (1983), Chiu (1998) found significant, positive paths from work conflict and family conflict to inter-role conflict. Additionally, regression results from the Greenhaus et al. (1987) study indicated reward inequity, or stress as a result of perceived unfairness in pay, was predictive of inter-role conflict between work and family roles.

According to Dixon and Bruening's (2005) framework of work-family conflict, family structure is another important stress-related factor associated with inter-role conflict. Family structure refers to marital status and number of children. As noted by Dixon and Bruening, "the experience of [inter-role] conflict differs for individuals depending on their family structure" (p. 235). To their point, Cooke and Rousseau (1984) held, "as individuals marry and have children, they are subject to increased inter-role conflict as their non-work roles change and become increasingly demanding" (p. 258). A number of studies have found evidence supporting this claim.

More recently, Boyar et al. (2008) reported increased levels of inter-role conflict among those respondents with children living at home. Additionally, married respondents indicated higher levels of work-family conflict compared to single participants. Parasuraman and Simmers (2001) hypothesized parental demands would increase one's

perception of conflict between work and family roles. Parental demand was operationalized in terms of number of children living at home and age of children. Age was important as younger children require more supervision, thus requiring additional time and energy to fulfill parental role demands. Results indicated higher levels of parental demand were positively associated with increased levels of work-family conflict among self-employed respondents. Others offered similar results. Dixon and Sagas (2007) reported that among college head coaches, the number of minors living at home significantly increased inter-role conflict between work and family roles. The same was true of newspaper sports editors in the Reinardy (2007) investigation.

Not only do family demands increase strain, they also serve to drain one's time resources. Herman and Gyllstrom (1977) surveyed university employees to assess perceptions of inter-role conflict. In terms of family demands, findings revealed significant differences in the amount of time married respondents and married respondents with children devoted to family and personal activities compared to respondents without such family demands. Single participants spent an average of 1.1 hours per day devoted to family demands and nearly four hours per day to personal activities. Conversely, married respondents with children committed 3.35 hours to family demands on a daily basis compared to just 2.14 hours to personal activities. Not surprisingly, those with family demands reported significantly greater amounts of work-to-home conflict and home-to-work conflict than those without children or a spouse.

As demonstrated, role time commitment, strain variables, and family structure are associated with more intense feelings of inter-role conflict. However, as noted in Chapter II, the variables of primary interest in the current study include family involvement,

family support, and the three types of inter-role conflict identified by Greenhaus & Beutell (1985): time-based, strain-based, and behavior-based inter-role conflict. In addition, the sport fan role differs from the work role in that the behavioral requirements of the fan role (i.e. attendance, merchandise/media consumption) require a monetary investment. Thus, sport fans may also experience a fourth type of inter-role conflict, economic-based conflict, not found within the work-family conflict framework. These four forms of inter-role conflict serve as dependent variables in this dissertation. The dialogue will now turn to a review of relevant literature pertaining to each of these variables.

Time-Based Conflict

Time-based conflict refers to demands from one role that take away from the time needed to perform in another role (Lapierre et al., 2008). In the same vein, Greenhaus and Beutell (1985) defined time-based conflict as “time pressures associated with membership in one role [which] may make it physically impossible to comply with expectations arising in another role” (p. 78). Said differently, time is a perishable resource. Time devoted to one role cannot be simultaneously devoted to the demands of another. As noted above, several researchers have identified role time demands as a significant predictor of inter-role conflict (Boyar et al., 2008; Burke et al., 1980; Carlson & Kacmar, 2000; Carlson & Perrewé, 1999; Dixon & Bruening, 2007; Dixon et al., 2006; Greenhaus et al., 1987; Keith & Schaffer, 1980; Mazerolle et al. 2008; Parasuraman & Simmers, 2001; Reinardy, 2007).

Instruments designed to assess inter-role conflict have included a measurement of time-based conflict. For example, a time-based conflict item from the Netemeyer et al.

(1996) study is “The amount of time my job takes up makes it difficult to fulfill family responsibilities.” Frone, et al. (1992) also included a time-based conflict item in their measure of work-family conflict: “How often does your job or career keep you from spending the amount of time you would like to spend with your family?” More recently, Carlson et al. (2000) designed an instrument to measure all three forms of inter-role conflict proposed by Greenhaus and Beutell (1985): Time-, strain-, and behavior-based inter-role conflict. Items designed to measure time-based conflict specifically included “My work keeps me from my family activities more than I would like,” “The time I must devote to my job keeps me from participating equally in household responsibilities and activities,” and “I have to miss family activities due to the amount of time I must spend on work responsibilities.” Likewise, three items were also created to assess inter-role conflict from family to work. Although these measures examine inter-role conflict through the context of work and family, in terms of time-based conflict, they appear applicable to other contexts as well. For example, Goff et al. (1997) and Fick et al. (1996) successfully adapted work-family conflict scales for their work on leisure-family conflict. Such adaptations are discussed further in Chapter III.

Time-based conflict has been found to be negatively associated with family outcome measures. Findings from the Lapierre et al. (2008) study suggested individuals experiencing greater levels of time-based conflict from their work to family roles were less satisfied with their family lives than those able to balance their work and family role time demands. Time-based inter-role conflict has also been shown to mediate the relationship between the amount of time devoted to one’s work role and family satisfaction, such that more time spent at work led to lower levels of family satisfaction

(Hughes & Parkes, 2007). Carlson and Kacmar (2000) did not delineate between time-, strain-, and behavior-based conflict, however their measure of work-family conflict included an item designed to assess role time interference. Results from their study of work-family conflict among state government employees indicated time spent on the job was positively related to work-interference with family. Consequently, structural equation modeling results revealed a significant negative path from work-interference with family and family satisfaction. While these studies demonstrate the effects of time-based conflict between work and family roles, a similar effect may be present within fan and family domains.

According to Wann and Branscombe (1993), highly identified fans devote more time to following their team than fans low in identification. This may be attributed to the fact that highly identified fans consume sport to a greater degree than individuals whose fan role is less central to their identity (Fisher & Wakefield, 1998; James & Trail, 2008; Wakefield, 1995; Wann & Branscombe, 1993). Consumption activities may range from game attendance to watching a game on television to surfing the web for team-related information. Regardless of the activity, highly identified fans commit significant amounts of time to following their team, time which may be otherwise spent attending to alternative role demands, such as family.

In a study assessing the effects of televised sport consumption on marital relationships, Gantz et al. (1995b) found that of 200 male respondents surveyed, nearly 35% felt as though their spouses resented them over the amount of televised sport they consumed. Further, one out of every ten males surveyed indicated the impact of televised sport on their relationship was negative. Similarly, a quarter of the respondents in the

Smith et al. (1981) study of deeply committed sport fans in Canada acknowledged that their families complained about the amount of time they spent consuming sport. These results speak to the notion that sport fans, particularly those high in identification, may experience time-based conflict when attempting to balance the demands of their fan and family roles.

Strain-Based Conflict

Like time, strain or stress associated with one role may adversely affect one's ability to perform in another (Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985). This is known as strain-based conflict. As noted by Goode (1960), strain may be a product of guilt or anxiety over committing resources to undeserving or less important roles. Additionally, strain may be caused by the various demands of a given role. Within the context of work and family, stress-related factors which contribute to perceptions of inter-role conflict include role conflict, role overload, role ambiguity, and parental demands (Boyar et al., 2008; Carlson & Kacmar, 2000; Chiu, 1998; Kopelman et al., 1983). Items employed in previous research to measure strain-based conflict include "When I get home from work I am often too frazzled to participate in my family activities/responsibilities," "Tension and anxiety from my family life often weakens my ability to do my job," "Because I am often stressed with my family responsibilities, I have a hard time concentrating on my work" (Carlson et al., 2000), and "Because my work is demanding, at times I am irritable at home" (Kopelman et al., 1983).

From the discussion of the sport fan role provided in earlier sections, a case could be made that the fan role is associated with a number of stressors which may spill over into one's family life. McPherson (1975) referenced this point in his definition of sport

fans, noting sport fans not only invest themselves emotionally into a team, they also experience fluctuations in mood states as a result of a sporting event. Smith et al. (1981) found evidence to support this depiction. The authors interviewed 52 “hard-core” male sports fans to gain a better understanding of the sport fan role. According to the researchers, hard-core fans consume sport on a daily, weekly, monthly basis, either through the media (newspapers or magazines), or through game attendance. In addition, these fans incorporate sport into their daily conversations. In terms of strain-based conflict, Smith et al. (1981) reported 98% of respondents revealed they were at least “somewhat upset” following a team loss. More than a quarter of respondents indicated they became “very upset.” The effects of the game outcome on the mood of participants carried over into other areas of their lives. Following a loss, participants felt depressed, turned to alcohol as a coping mechanism, and vented their frustrations through physical damage to inanimate objects (Smith et al., 1981). Such affective and behavioral responses suggest sport fans experience strain/stress deriving from their role as a fan.

Additionally, identity maintenance processes, such as in-group biases and success/failure attributions, employed by sport fans in the wake of a loss suggest some degree of stress or anxiety over the need to enhance one’s social identity. Results from the Hirt et al. (1992) study indicated sporting events may adversely affect fan moods and evaluations of self-performance. Further, research indicates sport fans experience fluctuations in arousal and anxiety when exposed to team-related content. Hillman et al. (2000), for example, examined the differences in emotional responses between individuals of varying levels of identification to team-relevant and team-irrelevant pictures. Emotional responses, measured in a laboratory setting, included changes in heart

rate, intensity of eyeblink, and startle responses. Highly identified fans were expected to show increased startle responses to team-relevant pictures. Additionally, respondents completed a subjective arousal index for each photograph. The authors reported significant differences in the emotional responses of highly identified fans between team-relevant and team-irrelevant pictures. Specifically, highly identified fans of the University of Florida football team reported great subjective arousal, showed smaller startle responses (indicative of intense engagement), and exhibited decelerated heart rates for team-relevant pictures only. The same effect was not found among fans low in identification.

Similar findings were reported in the Branscombe and Wann (1992) study, which looked at the physiological responses of participants with varying degrees of identification with the United States. Participants watched clips from the movie *Rocky IV* and were exposed to one of two treatments: one in which the American fighter won the match, and one in which the Russian fighter was victorious. Highly identified participants experienced significant elevations in blood pressure during the treatment suggesting increased states of physiological arousal. Additionally, highly identified fans in the Russian victory condition experienced significantly lower levels of enjoyment during the fight compared to those in the United States victory condition. Findings from the Branscombe and Wann (1992) and Hillman et al. (2000) studies lend further credence to the notion that sport fans experience strain and anxiety associated with group membership as a fan.

Behavior-Based Conflict

The third type of inter-role conflict assessed in this study was behavior-based conflict. Greenhaus and Beutell (1985) defined behavior-based conflict as “specific patterns of in-role behavior [which] may be incompatible with expectations regarding behavior in another role” (p. 81). Behavior-based conflict has also been conceptualized as “a form of spillover in which behavior developed in one domain influences behavior in the other domain, with the added condition that the transferred behavior inhibits role performance in the latter domain” (Edwards & Rothbard, 2000, p. 182). According to Lapierre et al. (2008), behavior-based conflict will occur if the behavioral expectations of two or more roles are contrasting. For example, dysfunctional sport fan behaviors such as aggression and blasting may not be compatible in the family domain which Greenhaus and Beutell (1985) characterized as “warm, nurturant, emotional, and vulnerable” (p. 82). Like time- and strain-based conflict, research has shown a significant negative relationship between behavior-based inter-role conflict and family satisfaction (Lapierre et al., 2008).

Carlson et al. (2000) developed a scale to assess behavior-based conflict between work and family roles. Items from their scale include, “The problem solving behaviors I use in my job are not effective in resolving problems at home,” “Behavior that is effective and necessary for me at work would be counter-productive at home,” and “The behaviors I perform that make me effective at work do not help me to be a better parent or spouse.” Netemeyer et al. (1996) also created an inter-role conflict scale which, unlike the Carlson et al. (2000) instrument, did not differentiate between time-, strain-, and behavior-based conflict. However, an example of an item assessing behavior-based

conflict is “Due to my work-related duties, I have to make changes to my plans for family activities.”

Given the behavioral responses of sport fans identified above, a case could be made that sport fans will experience behavior-based inter-role conflict between their fan and family roles. In terms of incompatible behaviors, research has demonstrated highly identified fans are more likely to engage in aggressive behaviors during a game (Wakefield & Wann, 2006; Wann, 1994) and report less behavioral control than fans low in identification (Dimmock & Grove, 2005). Additionally, sport fans have been linked to a number of dysfunctional behaviors including hooliganism, violence, and racism. While research has not related these behaviors to fan identification directly, engagement in dysfunctional behaviors, such as rioting following a team victory, are triggered by one's association with the team. Social norms suggest the average person does not use racial slurs in conversation, nor yell vulgarities at complete strangers on a day-to-day basis; however, within the context of the sport fan role, such behavior is deemed acceptable. The potential for behavior-based conflict occurs when comparing these fan behaviors with those typically associated with membership in the family role (i.e. caring, tenderness, respect).

Clearly this depiction of sport fans is not true of all fans. In their study of dysfunctional fan behavior, Wakefield and Wann (2006) acknowledged this point, segmenting highly identified fans based on self-reported levels of dysfunctional behavior. Results from their study suggested fan behaviors such as blasting officials and heavy drinking were more likely to be associated with highly identified, dysfunctional fans, as opposed to all highly identified fans. However, the point to be made is that the sport fan

role is associated with several behavioral norms which may cause conflict with family role demands.

Economic-Based Conflict

Unlike work, engagement in the sport fan role is an economic activity. Downs and Woolrych (2010) described an economic activity as one which “requires the use of money in order to participate” (p. 313). As such, the potential exists for sport fans to experience a fourth type of inter-role conflict, economic-based conflict, which refers to difficulty fulfilling financial commitments in one role due to spending in alternative roles. Consumptive behaviors such as game attendance and team-related merchandise purchases are normative behaviors of the sport fan role; however, such behaviors require not only the devotion of one’s time, but one’s financial resources as well. Research has shown, when compared to fans low in identification, highly identified fans attend more games, devote greater dollar amounts to the team, and consume higher levels of team-related media and merchandise (Fisher & Wakefield, 1998; James & Trail, 2008; Kwon & Armstrong, 2002; Wann & Branscombe, 1993). Therefore, it might be expected that highly identified would experience more economic-based fan-family conflict than lesser identified fans.

Although economic-based conflict is a new construct created for this study, the idea that family problems may be brought about by spending in another role is not unique to sport fans and their families. For example, research examining the effects of problem gambling on families has identified financial concerns as a primary source of stress and conflict (Abbott, Cramer, & Sherrets, 1995; Downs & Woolrych, 2010; Gaudia, 1987; Wenzel, Oren, & Bakken, 2008). Family problems arising as a result of problem

gambling spending include the inability to pay for necessities such as food or gas (Abbott et al., 1995; Downs & Woolrych, 2010); health problems linked to financial stress (Abbott et al., 1995; Gaudia, 1987), and formidable credit card debt (Wenzel et al., 2008). Results from the Downs and Woolrych study indicated debt accrued within the gambling role “can be disruptive to stable family relationships” (p. 319). Such disruptions ranged from removing one’s children from private schools due to the inability to afford tuition, to moving back home with one’s parents. Likewise, Wenzel (2008) surveyed spouses of problem gamblers and found gambling role spending to have a detrimental effect on family finances.

While the sport fan and problem gambling roles are undoubtedly different, the above examples provide empirical evidence that spending in one role can hinder one’s ability to meet financial demands within the family role. As noted above, sport consumption is an economic activity. Game tickets, merchandise, personal seat licenses, premium television packages, lunch at the sports bar, and team-related travel are all sport consumptive expenses which add up over the course of a season. Given that highly identified fans consume sport to a greater degree, and are willing to spend more money on their team than fans low in identification (Fisher & Wakefield, 1998; James & Trail, 2008; Kwon & Armstrong, 2002; Wann & Branscombe, 1993), it becomes necessary to also examine the extent to which economics become a source of inter-role conflict between sport fans and their families.

Together, time-based, strain-based, behavior-based, and economic-based fan-family conflict served as dependent variables in this study. In addition to the effect of fan identification on fan-family conflict, research questions two and three were concerned

with the moderating effects of family support and family involvement on the fan-identification/fan-family conflict relationship. The final two sections of this literature review will focus on each of these variables, respectively.

Family Involvement

In addition to fan identification, the present study was interested in the effects of involvement within the family role on perceptions of inter-role conflict. Parasuraman and Simmers (2001) defined family involvement as “the importance of the family to an individual and the extent of psychological investment in the family” (p. 555). Likewise, Carlson and Perrewe (1999) operationalized family involvement as “the degree to which family is central to one’s life” (p. 524). From these definitions, the following conceptualization of role involvement was utilized for this study: the extent to which a role is important and central to an individual’s self-concept.

Prior research has identified role involvement as an important construct within the inter-role conflict interface (Boyar et al., 2008; Carlson & Kacmar, 2000; Carlson & Perrewe, 1999; Halbesleben et al., 2009; Parasuraman & Simmers, 2001). A review of inter-role conflict research unveils an array of constructs/terms used to describe role involvement. Such constructs include importance (Carlson & Kacmar, 2000), centrality (Boyar et al., 2008), involvement (Carlson & Perrewe, 1999; Parasuraman & Simmers, 2001), engagement (Halbesleben et al., 2009), role value (Carlson & Kacmar, 2000; Dixon & Bruening, 2005), and commitment (Fick et al., 1996). Despite differences in terminology, each construct represents a slightly different way of looking at the same thing. Just as fan identification moderates sport fan responses, higher levels of role

involvement have been shown to increase perceptions of inter-role conflict (Carlson & Perrewe, 1999; Frone et al., 1992).

For example, findings from the Halbesleben et al. (2009) study suggested individuals who were highly engaged in their jobs experienced greater inter-role conflict with their family roles. Dixon and Bruening (2007) also reported an effect of role involvement, or role value, on inter-role conflict during their qualitative study of work-family conflict among female head coaches. While both family and work roles were valued, participants in the Dixon and Bruening (2007) study tended to value family roles over work. This led to conflict because time spent at work fed a perception that work was interfering with family role demands. This finding is in line with that reported by Carlson and Kacmar (2000) in which the relationship between work domain antecedents (role conflict, role time commitment, job involvement) and work-to-family conflict were greatest for individuals placing high value on their family roles. Additionally, Carlson and Perrewe (1999), Frone et al. (1992), and Staines and O'Connor (1980) reported positive relationships between family involvement and work-family conflict.

In Goff et al.'s (1997) study of leisure-family conflict among runners, involvement was conceptualized in the form of affective (role centrality) and behavioral commitment (commitment in spite of desirable alternatives). The researchers examined the effects of running role involvement on perceptions of inter-role conflict. Participants in the study were 342 spouses of individuals who were runners in their leisure time. Results indicated affective attachment and behavioral consistency towards running were significant predictors of leisure-family conflict (Goff et al., 1997). Spouses of highly

committed runners perceived greater conflict between leisure and family roles than spouses of less highly committed runners.

In an earlier study, Fick et al. (1996) examined the differences in running commitment, family commitment, and family functioning among runners perceiving high degrees of running-family conflict and those perceiving less conflict between the two roles. The authors surveyed 724 members of a running club located in the Midwest. ANOVA results indicated respondents in the high conflict group were less committed to their families and scored lower on the family functioning measures than individuals in the low conflict group. The two groups did not differ statistically in terms of running commitment. This finding suggests individuals committed to their family roles may perceive less inter-role conflict between family and leisure role activities, irrespective of leisure role commitment. Such a finding may be explained by the conscientiousness variable examined in the Halbesleben et al. (2009) query. As noted above, Halbesleben et al. reported a significant positive relationship between role engagement and inter-role conflict between work and family roles. However, results indicated conscientiousness of work and family roles moderated this relationship such that individuals who were highly conscientious of their work and family role demands perceived less conflict.

Although the research presented above indicates a positive relationship between role involvement and inter-role conflict, Greenhaus and Beutell (1985) noted, an individual must feel a simultaneous pull from two or more roles to produce inter-role conflict. Further, the authors contended inter-role conflict will be most intense when the roles in question “are salient or central to the person’s self-concept” (p. 77). This means only those roles with which an individual is highly involved will produce inter-role

conflict. Intuitively, this makes sense as it is less likely an individual will perceive inter-role conflict between a highly salient role and an alternative, meaningless role. Following Greenhaus and Beutell, an individual must be highly identified with his/her fan role and highly involved with his/her family role as a necessary condition of fan-family conflict.

To test this theory, Frone and Rice (1987) sampled 141 staff members of a northeastern university to observe the effects of involvement in both the work and family domains on perceptions of inter-role conflict. Role involvement was defined as “the importance of a role for one’s self concept” (Frone & Rice, 1987, p. 46). Following Greenhaus and Beutell (1985), the authors hypothesized involvement with both work and family roles is necessary to produce inter-role conflict. Items from the family involvement measure included “The most important things that happen to me involve my role as a spouse,” “Most of my interests are centered around my spouse,” “I am very much involved in my role as a spouse,” and one reverse coded item: “To me, my spouse role is only a small part of who I am.” In addition to a spousal involvement scale, the authors included an adapted version of this instrument to assess both parental and job involvement.

Results from the Frone and Rice (1987) study revealed a moderating effect of spouse involvement on the job involvement/job-spouse conflict relationship. Consistent with the study’s hypothesis, job involvement was positively related to job-spouse conflict only for participants also indicating high levels of spouse involvement. Conversely, the job involvement/job-parent conflict relationship did not differ based on level of parental involvement. The authors attributed this finding to the required demands of the parental role. Job-parent conflict is inevitable, regardless of parental involvement, as the role

requirements of being a parent are inescapable. Therefore, parents will experience strain when trying to balance their parental and job demands, especially parents with high job involvement (Frone & Rice, 1987).

In terms of fan-family conflict, the results from the Frone and Rice (1987) query have important implications. Role involvement among sport fans is represented by fan identification. As noted above, fan identification refers to one's degree of psychological commitment to and emotional involvement with a sports team. Studies show highly identified fans engage in fan role identity maintenance (Wann & Dolan, 1994a; Wann et al., 2006; Wann & Schrader, 2000), perceive oneness with the team such that team success become personal successes (Bernache-Assollant, 2007; Hirt et al., 1992; Kwon et al., 2008; Wann & Branscombe, 1990), experience fluctuations in mood and emotions in response to a game (Branscombe & Wann, 1992; Hillman et al., 2000), and consume team-related products to a greater degree than lowly identified fans (Fisher & Wakefield, 1998; James & Trail, 2008; Wakefield, 1995; Wann & Branscombe, 1993). As such, highly identified fans may be more likely to experience fan-family conflict than fans low in identification. According to Frone and Rice's findings however, highly identified fans will only perceive conflict if their family role is a highly valued one. Therefore, it is essential to measure one's degree of involvement with his/her family in addition to level of fan identification.

Family Support

Thus far, the discussion of inter-role conflict has focused on constructs or variables (e.g. family involvement, role time commitments, family structure, role strain variables) which increase one's perception of inter-role conflict. Research suggests

however, the presence of family support may negate the effects of time- and stress-related variables on inter-role conflict. This variable, in turn, could lessen the detrimental effects of inter-role conflict on domain outcomes such as satisfaction and quality of life. As such, family support was included in the current study as a moderating variable to the fan identification/fan-family conflict relationship.

According to Goff et al. (1997) family support may take three forms. The first form, active participation, refers to family participation or involvement in an activity. Rather than one family member independently participating in a leisure activity, he or she actively participates with family members together. The second form of family support, logistical support, occurs when family members do not participate in an activity together, but instead the family supports one's participation in leisure activities through enabling behaviors such as setting aside money for one to use at a game or providing transportation to and from a sporting event. The third form of support, emotional support, occurs when family members encourage or display positive attitudes towards another family member's participation in a leisure activity (Goff et al., 1997).

In their study, Goff et al. (1997) found evidence of leisure-family conflict among spouses of highly committed runners. However, perceptions of inter-role conflict were shown to be most intense within relationships in which the respondent was less supportive of their spouse's running activity. In other words, family support of one's leisure activities may minimize conflict between leisure and family role demands. In an earlier study, Fick et al. (1996) noted a similar relationship between support and inter-role conflict. Specifically, Fick et al. found individuals perceiving high levels of conflict between running and family role demands received significantly less spousal support of

their running participation. In line with the Goff et al. (1997) results, findings from the Fick et al. (1996) investigation suggest family support of leisure activities and inter-role conflict are inversely related.

Fick et al. (1996) used a four-item measure to assess perceptions of spousal support of respondents' running participation. Support items included "My spouse/partner has a favorable attitude toward my running," "My spouse/partner feels positive about my level of commitment to running," "I can discuss running concerns with my spouse/partner," and "My spouse/partner is a source of emotional support where my running is concerned." These items reflect emotional support, or the third type of family support described by Goff et al. (1997).

Carlson and Perrewe (1999) conceptualized family support as "the quality of the relationship subjects have with their spouses, family, and friends" (p. 524). In their study, Carlson and Perrewe (1999) examined four different models of inter-role conflict and support in order to determine whether support is an antecedent to inter-role conflict, a moderating variable between role domain antecedents and inter-role conflict, an intervening variable, or a mediating variable between antecedents and conflict. Structural equation modeling results suggested that of the four models, the antecedent model fit the data best. In terms of the relationships between variables, Carlson and Perrewe (1999) found a negative relationship between family support and family stress and time variables. Participants enjoying positive relationships with family and friends perceived less strain within their family role. Family role conflict, family role ambiguity, and family time demands were all significantly, positively related to work-family conflict. Therefore,

by reducing these variables through support, participants experienced decreased levels of inter-role conflict.

Other studies have offered similar results as they pertain to the family support/inter-role conflict relationship. Boyar et al. (2008) reported a negative correlation between family social support and family interference with work. In an earlier study, Lo, Wright, and Wright (2003) interviewed 50 working women in Hong Kong to assess the relationship between work-family conflict and job satisfaction. Results revealed lack of spousal support was the most commonly cited problems associated with balancing work and family roles. Finally, Holahan and Gilbert (1979) measured spousal support in terms of attitude, emotional support, and perceptions of commitment towards the spouse's career. Their findings suggested individuals with higher levels of spousal support for their jobs experienced less inter-role conflict. In their study, spousal support was measured in terms of attitude, emotional support, and perceptions of commitment towards the spouse's career (Holahan & Gilbert, 1979).

As mentioned above, family support may also be present by way of behavioral support, or active participation in a family member's leisure activity. However, participation alone does not automatically reduce conflict. Orthner (1975) proposed three types of leisure activities which may affect perceptions of inter-role conflict within families: individual, joint, and parallel. Individual activities refer to leisure pursuits which are engaged in independently. Joint and parallel leisure activities both require family member participation, however they differ in terms of interaction and communication. According to Orthner (1975), joint activities require interaction among family members for successful completion. An example of a joint activity would be playing a round of

miniature golf. The family engages in this activity together and in an environment that encourages interaction and communication. Parallel activities on the other hand involve multiple family members, yet interactions are kept to a minimum. In essence, during parallel leisure activities, family members participate together, but do not interact.

Attending church or a movie is an example of a parallel leisure activity. A sporting event, such as a football game, is unique in that it is an example of a joint activity, yet it may be consumed on an individual basis as well. A husband may attend a game with his friends, independent of his family, or he may have season tickets and attend with his spouse and children. Unlike a movie theater, interaction is encouraged at a sporting event.

Engagement in joint activities constitutes behavioral family support (Goff et al., 1997).

Behavioral support is important as it has been shown to be positively related to marital satisfaction (Orthner, 1975; Smith, Snyder et al., 1988). Conversely, Orthner and Mancini (1990) contended independent participation in leisure activities had detrimental effects on family outcomes such as satisfaction, interaction, and stability. To their point, Orthner (1975) reported a negative relationship between independent leisure participation and marital satisfaction for both husbands and wives. More recently, results from the Smith, Snyder et al. (1988) suggested leisure time spent independently was significantly and positively correlated with and marital dissatisfaction and marital distress. The negative relationship between independent leisure participation and family outcome measures is most intense among salient leisure roles (Orthner & Mancini, 1990). As noted by Halbesleben et al. (2009), a high level of psychological engagement to a role is predictive of behavioral engagement. Meaning, resources devoted to highly salient,

independent leisure roles may detract from one's ability to maintain his/her family roles, thus leading to perceptions of inter-role conflict.

While the above studies did not examine inter-role conflict directly, research has shown decreased levels of marital or family satisfaction to be an outcome of inter-role conflict (Bedeian et al., 1988; Carlson & Kacmar, 2000; Chiu, 1998; Judge et al., 2006). Conceivably, engagement in independent leisure activities would detract from one's available resources creating conflict with alternative role demands such as family or job. As such, it is important to assess the moderating role of behavioral family support, in addition to emotional family support, within the fan-to-family conflict interface.

Summary of Literature

Stewart et al. (2003) held sport fandom involves more than simply consuming a sporting event. Indeed, for highly identified fans, the fan role is a central component of their self-concept (Tajfel & Turner, 1986; Turner, 1982). As such, sport fans engage in a number of affective, behavioral, and cognitive responses normative of the sport fan role. Fans think of themselves as members of the team (Hirt et al., 1992; Wann & Branscombe, 1990), employ cognitive identity maintenance mechanisms to protect their self-esteem in the wake of defeat (Mann, 1974; Wann & Schrader, 2001), consume team-related content both directly and indirectly (Fisher & Wakefield, 1998; James & Trail, 2008; Wann & Branscombe, 1993; Wann et al., 2001), and engage in dysfunctional behaviors including fan aggression, racism, and hooliganism (Dimmock & Grove, 2005; Eitzen, 1988; Spaaij, 2008; Wakefield & Wann, 2006; Wann, 1993).

Conceivably then, sport fans may experience inter-role conflict between fan and family role demands. Kahn et al. (1964) defined inter-role conflict as "role pressures

associated with membership in one group [that] are in conflict with pressures stemming from membership in other groups” (p. 20). Fan-family conflict, or inter-role conflict between fan and family roles, may stem from conflicts over time, strain, incompatible behaviors (Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985), or finances. Research has demonstrated role time commitments and role strains to be predictive of inter-role conflict (Burke et al., 1980; Greenhaus et al., 1987; Keith & Schaffer, 1980; Kopelman et al, 1983; Mazerolle et al., 2008; Reinardy, 2007). Additionally, inter-role conflict will most likely occur between two or more highly salient roles (Frone et al., 1992; Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985). While time, stress, and involvement-related variables have been found to be positively associated with inter-role conflict, family support has been shown to minimize the effect of these variables on conflict (Carlson & Perrewe, 1999; Goff et al., 1997; Holahan & Gilbert, 1979). Therefore, it is important to assess the effects of family support on the fan-family conflict interface. According to Goff et al. (1997) support may be either emotional or behavioral.

Research has looked at inter-role conflict extensively through the lens of work-family conflict; however, less attention has been paid to leisure-family conflict, with little, if any, pertaining directly to fan-family conflict. This dissertation addressed this gap. Therefore, the purpose of this study was to examine the relationship between fan identification and four forms of fan-family conflict: time-based, strain-based, behavior-based, and economic-based. A secondary purpose of this study was to observe the moderating effects of family support and family involvement on this relationship.

CHAPTER III

METHODS

This chapter will discuss the research methods that were used to address the study's purpose and research questions. Specifically, the discussion will focus on research design, study participants, sampling procedure, data collection procedure, instrumentation, and data analysis.

Purpose

The primary purpose of the current study was to examine the relationship between fan identification and fan-family conflict. Also of interest was the interaction effect between fan identification and family support on fan-family conflict. Four types of fan-family conflict will be assessed: time-based, strain-based, behavior-based, and economic-based. Additionally, this study examined the effect of family involvement on the fan identification/fan-family conflict relationship.

Research Questions

The following research questions were developed to guide this study's purpose.

RQ1: What is the effect of fan identification on fan family conflict (time-based, strain-based, behavior-based, and economic-based)?

RQ2: How does family support impact the relationship between fan identification and fan-family conflict (time-based, strain-based, behavior-based, and economic-based)?

RQ3: How does family involvement impact the relationship between fan identification and fan-family conflict (time-based, strain-based, behavior-based, and economic-based)?

Research Design

The research design employed in the current study was a cross-sectional survey design. Survey designs are appropriate for assessing attitudes, opinions, behaviors, or characteristics of a population (Creswell, 2008). As this study was interested in current perceptions of fan-family conflict, a cross-sectional survey design was most appropriate (Creswell, 2008). Cross-sectional survey designs offer several advantages. First, due to the ease of completing a survey, participant attrition rates are typically lower than traditional experimental designs. As such, sample sizes tend to be larger in cross-sectional designs. Second, findings from cross-sectional designs may be generalized to a large population, assuming probabilistic sampling (Gratton & Jones, 2010). The downside of survey designs lie in the correlational nature of the results. Due to the absence of treatment conditions, results obtained from survey research only suggest causality through variable relationships (Creswell, 2008). Survey designs are also limited in that they do not allow for follow-up questions or clarification on the part of the researcher (Frankfort-Nachmias & Nachmias, 2000).

Study Participants

The aim of the current investigation was to understand fan-family conflict as experienced by sport fans. As such, sport fans represented the survey population in the current study. According to Dillman (2007), the survey population “consists of all the units to which one desires to generalize survey results” (p. 196). It is not feasible to

survey all sport fans, therefore a sample of sport fans was drawn from spectators in attendance at a Division-I FBS (Football Bowl Subdivision) intercollegiate football game located in a large Midwestern city. The decision to collect data from college football fans, as opposed to fans of another sport, was made due in large part to the popularity of not only football, but college football in the United States. College football games are played in every region of the country. Opportunities to consume college football are seemingly endless with televised games throughout the week in the fall and all day on Saturdays. In addition, hundreds of games are available online at no cost to the consumer. With the exception of auto racing facilities, college football stadiums are among the largest in the country with schools such as Michigan, Penn State, Ohio State, and Tennessee consistently hosting over 100,000 spectators on a weekly basis. Attendance at scrimmages during the off-season is further evidence of the popularity of the sport. Crowds in excess of 60,000 were reported for spring games at Auburn, Nebraska, Ohio State, and Alabama in 2010 (*SportsBusiness Daily*, 2010). College football is also associated with fan behaviors such as long road trips and tailgating before and after games. These behaviors indicate time devoted to the sport fan role on game days may exceed the three hours it typically takes to watch a game.

The practice of collecting data from fans at a sporting event is not foreign to sport management research. Greenwood, Kanters, and Casper (2006), for example, surveyed spectators at an arena football game to examine the development of fan identification for non-mainstream sport organizations. Others have collected data from fans in attendance at mixed martial arts events for the purpose of understanding motives for consumption (Andrew, Kim, O'Neal, Greenwell, & James, 2009; Kim, Andrew, & Greenwell, 2009).

Funk, Mahony, and Ridinger (2002) also examined fan motives by surveying spectators at a U.S women's soccer game. Data have also been collected from attendees of minor league baseball (Greenwell, Lee, & Naeger, 2007; Wakefield, 1995), intercollegiate non-revenue sports (James & Ross, 2004), minor league hockey (Fisher & Wakefield, 1998), international soccer (Jones, 1997; Matsuoka et al., 2003), college basketball (James & Ridinger, 2002; Trail et al., 2003; Trail et al., 2005), and college football (Dees, Bennett, & Villegas, 2008; Robinson, Trail, Dick, & Gillentine, 2005; Wakefield & Wann, 2006). Since fans in attendance are direct consumers of the sport product, attitudes, perceptions, and opinions of attendees are highly desirable to sport organizations and sport management academics. Individuals in attendance at a sporting event are actively involved in the sport fan role. Thus, attendees were an ideal group from which to assess perceptions of fan-family conflict.

Data Collection and Sampling Procedure

The survey instrument for this study contained five sections: (a) fan-family conflict, (b) fan identification, (c) family involvement, (d) family support, and (e) demographics. The estimated time to complete the survey was five to seven minutes. Data were collected in a fashion similar to that employed by Funk et al. (2002). In their study, fans were approached in their seats prior to the game and asked to complete a survey. Respondents were randomly chosen from each seating section within the facility in an effort to obtain a representative sample of all ticketing price points. This collection procedure resulted in an 86% response rate. An alternative strategy involves collecting data from fans upon entry to the facility (Robinson et al., 2005; Wakefield & Wann, 2006). Andrew et al. (2009) noted however, such a procedure does not ensure a

representative sample from all ticketed seating areas. Therefore, the decision was made to collect data from fans in their seats prior to the game.

The researcher recruited a group of undergraduate sport administration students to aid in the data collection process. Stratified sampling was employed to ensure the sample was representative of the entire population. Seating sections were randomly selected from each ticketing price point within the facility. Within each section selected, individuals appearing to be 25 years of age or older were targeted specifically in an effort to maximize responses from individuals with families of their own. Data collectors were grouped in pairs. Each pair was assigned to a section in the facility. Beginning 60 minutes prior to kickoff, individuals were approached in their seats and asked to participate in the study. Those wishing to participate were provided with a paper survey, which included a description of the study, IRB information, and researcher contact information.

The data collection procedure described above is a derivative of the mall intercept technique, which refers to the practice of surveying respondents at a shopping mall or other centralized locations attracting diverse populations in large numbers (Dillon, Madden, & Firtle, 1993; Gates & Soloman, 1982). The advantage of using the mall intercept technique at a sporting event is two-fold. First, unlike sampling students or alumni who may or may not be sport fans, respondents in attendance at a sporting event are more likely to perceive some degree of identification with the team. Secondly, as noted above, attendees are actively engaged in the sport fan role and are therefore an ideal sampling frame from which to assess fan-family conflict. Additionally, mall intercept sampling is relatively inexpensive, allows for large amounts of data to be

collected in a short amount time, and typically results in high response rates (Dillon et al., 1993; Gates & Solomon, 1982). Researchers employing the mall intercept technique at sporting events have reported responses rates in excess of 70% (Fink, Trail, & Anderson, 2002; Funk et al., 2002; James & Ross, 2004; Kim et al., 2009; Kim, Greenwell, Andrew, Lee, & Mahony, 2008).

A major disadvantage associated with mall intercept sampling concerns selection error. Murry, Lastovicka, and Bhalla (1989) defined selection error as “a lack of representativeness due to a sampling frame’s inadequacy as a population list and using non-probability methods to sample the list or frame” (p. 46). According to the authors, the mall intercept technique lacks a true sampling frame from which the sample may be drawn. Without a traditional sampling frame, the actual sample may not be representative of the population to which the researcher is attempting to generalize results (Murry et al., 1989). A sampling frame also allows for simple random sampling, in which every individual in the sampling frame has an equal chance of participating in the study (Creswell, 2008). The mall intercept technique, however, typically assumes non-probability sampling, whereby participants are chosen based availability and convenience. As such, results may not be generalizable to the desired population (Creswell, 2008; Gates & Solomon, 1982; Murry et al., 1989).

The current study minimized these disadvantages in the following ways. First, sport fans were the population of interest in this investigation. Individuals from which data were collected are representative of that population, thus addressing the sampling frame issue. It is worth noting however, not all sport fans attend sporting events. Non-attendees may experience fan-family conflict differently than fans in attendance.

Therefore, caution must be taken when generalizing results beyond those attending games.

Second, unlike traditional mall intercept surveys which employ non-random sampling, stadiums provide a seating format which allows for probability sampling. As noted above, seating sections representing all ticket pricing points within the facility were randomly chosen for data collection purposes. Every person within that section appearing to be at least 25 years of age had an equal chance of being selected to participate in the study, provided they were in their seat prior to the start of the game.

The minimum sample size required for this study was determined on the basis of sampling error. To attain a 95% confidence level with less than 5% sampling error, Dillman (2007) suggested a sample size of 382 for a population of 50,000 (actual attendance was 48,427). As noted above, previous sport management studies employing a similar mall intercept technique have reported responses rates exceeding 70% (Fink et al., 2002; Funk et al., 2002; James & Ross, 2004; Kim et al., 2009; Kim et al., 2008). Assuming a similar response rate, 550 surveys were distributed in an effort to achieve the desired sample size to maintain less than 5% sampling error.

Instrumentation

Modified versions of four instruments were used to collect data in the current study. This section will describe the four scales in detail, including a discussion of prior reliability and validity measures of each. Fan-family conflict was measured using a modified version of Carlson et al.'s (2000) work-family conflict scale. The full version of the scale contains 18 items designed to assess the bi-directional nature of work-family conflict (work interference with family and family interference with work) across the

three types of inter-role conflict (time-based, strain-based, and behavior-based) originally proposed by Greenhaus and Beutell (1985). As this study is interested in the effect of the fan role on an individual's family life, only items assessing work interference with family were modified for inclusion in this study. The Team Identification Index (Trail & James, 2001) was used to measure respondents' level of identification with the target university's football team. A four-item measure of family involvement (Frone & Rice, 1987) captured the degree to which the family role is important and central to one's self-concept. Finally, a four-item measure of family support was adapted from Fick et al.'s (1996) measure of spousal support.

Fan-Family Conflict

Greenhaus and Beutell (1985) contended work-family conflict (WFC) is a bi-directional construct consisting of three forms: time-based, strain-based, and behavior-based conflict. In line with Greenhaus and Beutell's contention, Carlson et al (2000) developed and validated a work-family conflict scale to measure both work interference with family (WIF) and family interference with work (FIW) across all three forms of work-family conflict. Overall, the scale contains 18 items; however, only seven items were adapted for use in the current investigation: three for time-based fan-family conflict, three for strain-based fan-family conflict, and one for behavior-based fan-family conflict. The remaining behavior-based items from Carlson et al.'s (2000) scale are not appropriate measures of fan-family conflict, as they refer to problem solving compatibility between work and family roles, and workplace effectiveness. As such, two additional items from Stephens and Sommer's (as cited in Carlson et al., 2000) work-family scale were adapted for inclusion in this study. New items were created to assess

economic-based conflict based on Carlson et al.'s (2000) and Gutek, Searle, and Klepa's (1991) measures of time-based work-family conflict. Participant responses were measured on a 7-point Likert-type scale with anchors ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 7 (strongly agree).

The decision to use Carlson et al.'s (2000) measure was based on its ability to assess the different forms of inter-role conflict. Other work-family conflict scales (i.e. Kopelman et al., 1983; Netemeyer et al., 1996; O'Driscoll, Ilgen, & Hildreth, 1992) are limited in that they fail to capture the multi-dimensional nature of work-family conflict. According to Netemeyer et al. (1986), such scales "are not as useful as scales that use the multidimensional approach" (p. 408).

Prior research suggests Carlson et al.'s (2000) scale is a valid and reliable measure of WFC. Carlson et al. conducted a confirmatory factor analysis to assess the construct validity of the scale's items. Construct validity refers to "the degree to which a measure assesses the construct it is purported to measure" (Peter, 1981, p. 134). Results indicated each of the 18 items loaded significantly on the work-family conflict factor it was intended to measure. Fit indices for the six-factor model suggested good model fit ($\chi^2_{(120)} = 237.40$; CFI = .95; RMSEA = .06). The reported CFI and RMSEA values meet the thresholds for good model fit (.95 for CFI; .06 for RMSEA) suggested by Hu and Bentler (1999).

The scale also demonstrated evidence of discriminant and concurrent validity. Discriminant validity was assessed through a correlational analysis of the six WFC factors within Carlson et al.'s (2000) model. Discriminant validity refers to the extent to which each factor is a unique measure of work-family conflict (Messick, 1995).

Correlations exceeding .85 suggest definitional overlap between constructs (Garson, 2009b). Carlson et al. (2000) reported between factor correlations ranging from .24 to .83, suggesting the scale shows good discriminant validity. Concurrent validity on the other hand is a form of criterion-related validity which refers to “the extent to which a measurement scale performs as expected in relation to some external variables considered to be meaningful criteria” (Trail & James, 2001, p. 118). An examination of pathway coefficients between each dimension of work-family conflict and several external variables (i.e. role conflict, role involvement, role ambiguity, domain satisfaction, organizational commitment) suggested Carlson et al.’s (2000) measure behaved as expected in terms of relationships with external variables. For strain-based and behavior-based work-family conflict, 30 of the 32 relationships were either significant or in the hypothesized direction. Conversely, eight of the 16 time-based work-family conflict relationships were inconsistent with previous research; however, none of these pathway coefficients reached a level of significance ($\alpha = .05$).

Carlson et al. (2000) also tested the reliability of their work-family conflict instrument through a measure of internal consistency. “Internal consistency estimates relate to item homogeneity, or the degree to which items on a test jointly measure the same construct” (Henson, 2001, p. 177). Cronbach’s alphas for each of the six measures of work-family conflict ranged from .78 to .87, exceeding the .70 cutoff value for acceptable reliability suggested by Nunnally (1978). These results suggest Carlson et al.’s instrument is a reliable and valid measure of work-family conflict.

Since its creation, a number of researchers have employed Carlson et al.’s (2000) scale to measure work-family conflict (Boyar et al., 2008; Carlson et al., 2009;

Halbesleben et al., 2009; Hughes & Parkes, 2007; Lapierre et al., 2005; Lapierre et al., 2008). These studies offer further support for the reliability and validity of the instrument. However, this study is not concerned with work-family conflict, but rather inter-role conflict between fans and family. Work-family conflict scales have been adapted previously for use in arenas outside work and family domains. Fick et al. (2006) and Goff et al. (2007), for example, adapted items from Kopelman et al.'s (1983) WFC scale to measure leisure family conflict among highly committed runners and their families. Examples of adapted items included "After running, I come home too tired to do some of the things I'd like to do" and "Running makes it difficult to be the kind of family member I would like to be" (Fick et al., 1996). The original versions of those items read as follows: "After work, I come home too tired to do some of the things I'd like to do" and "My job makes it difficult to be the kind of spouse or parent I'd like to be" (Kopelman et al., 1983). While Fick et al. (1996) and Goff et al. (1997) did not adapt Carlson et al.'s WFC scale, the practice of adapting WFC measure for use in other domains is not without precedent. Similar adaptations of work-family conflict items will be made in the current study.

As this study is concerned with the effect of one's fan role on his/her family life, only items assessing fan role interference with family role (originally worded as "work interference with family") were included. As noted above, six items measuring time-based WIF and strain-based WIF were adapted for this study, along with one behavior-based WIF item. The remaining behavior-based items from Carlson et al.'s (2000) scale ("The problem solving behaviors I use in my job are not effective in resolving problems at home" and "The behaviors I perform that make me effective at work do not help me to

be a better parent or spouse”) are not appropriate for the fan domain. Two additional behavior-based items were adapted from Stephens and Sommer’s (as cited in Carlson et al., 2000) work-family conflict scale. The original work-family conflict items adapted for this study are shown in Appendix A. Four new items were created to assess economic-based conflict.

In terms of time-based fan-family conflict, the items modified for use in the current study were as follows: “Being a fan of (*team name*) keeps me from my family activities more than I would like,” “The time I must devote to being a fan of (*team name*) keeps me from participating equally in household responsibilities and activities,” and “I have to miss family activities due to the amount of time I must spend on activities involving (*team name*).” Strain-based fan-family conflict items include “When I get home from a (*team name*) game I am often too frazzled to participate in family activities/responsibilities,” “I am often so emotionally drained when I get home from a (*team name*) game that it prevents me from contributing to my family,” and “Due to all the tension/pressures of being a fan of (*team name*), sometimes I am too stressed to do the things I enjoy.” The single behavior-based item adapted from Carlson et al. (2000) is as follows: “The behavior I exhibit as a fan of (*team name*) is inappropriate at home.” Additionally, two items from Stephens and Sommer’s (as cited in Carlson et al., 2000) work-family conflict measure were modified to assess behavior-based fan-family conflict: “I am not able to act the same way at home as I do at a (*team name*) game” and “In order for me to be a (*team name*) fan, I must be a different person at the game than I can be at home.” These two items were originally included in Carlson et al.’s (2000) WFC measure, but were removed from the final 18-item instrument due to issues with

content adequacy and model refinement. Four new items were created to assess economic-based FFC based on Carlson et al.'s (2000) and Gutek et al.'s (1991) time-based measures of work-family conflict. Practically, the economic-based FFC items were designed to capture the degree of difficulty sport fans experience fulfilling family financial obligations due to the amount of money they spend on their team. The four economic-based conflict items used in this study were as follows: "My family dislikes how much money I spend on (*team name*)," "My family is unable to participate in other activities due to the amount of money I spend on (*team name*)," "My family struggles to fulfill financial commitments due to the amount of money I spend on (*team name*)," and "My family complains about the amount of money I spend on (*team name*)."

Fan Identification

In addition to the fan-family conflict measure, respondents were also asked to complete the Team Identification Index (TII; Trail & James, 2001), a three-item scale designed to assess one's identification with a sports team. Items from the TII include "I consider myself to be a "real" fan of (*team name*)," "I would experience a loss if I had to stop being a fan of (*team name*)," and "Being a fan of (*team name*) is very important to me." Previous research suggests the TII is a valid and reliable measure of fan identification. Confirmatory factor analysis results reported by Trail et al. (2005) revealed each item loaded on a single factor with loadings ranging from .750 to .852, evidence of the scale's construct validity. Further, the TII has been shown to behave in relation to outcome variables in a manner consistent with prior theory regarding fan identification. James and Trail (2008) reported fan identification, as measured by the TII, to be a significant predictor of game attendance and media/merchandise consumption. Trail et al.

(2005) also used the TII and found a positive relationship between identification and consumption intentions. In terms of reliability, Trail et al. (2005) observed a Cronbach's alpha of .83. As noted above, Nunnally (1978) suggested a .70 cutoff for internal consistency reliability. Kwon et al. (2008), Trail et al. (2003), and Trail and James (2008) also reported reliability estimates exceeding the .70 threshold.

The TII was chosen in favor of another widely used measure of fan identification, the Sport Spectator Identification Scale (SSIS; Wann & Branscombe, 1993), for two reasons. First, the TII is a shorter, more parsimonious measure of fan identification. Second, consistent with the definition of fan identification, the TII measures the emotional and cognitive connection a fan shares with his/her team (James & Ridinger, 2002). Four of the seven items included in the SSIS do not address these concepts, but rather outcomes of identification, disdain for team rivals, and the degree to which one's friends view the respondent as a fan (Wann & Branscombe, 1993). Based on these justifications, the decision was made to use the TII as a measure of fan identification for this study.

Family Involvement

The current study employed modified items from Kanungo's (1982) job involvement questionnaire (JIQ) to assess family role involvement. The JIQ was originally designed to measure one's degree of psychological identification with his/her job; however, researchers have adapted the instrument to measure involvement within the family domain as well (Carlson & Frone, 2003; Frone & Rice, 1987; Frone et al., 1992). For example, Frone and Rice (1987) used a modified four-item version of the JIQ to measure spousal and parental involvement. Similar modifications were made for the

current study. The JIQ has shown good reliability and validity both in use as a measure of job involvement and family involvement (Adams, King, & King, 1996; Carlson & Frone, 2003; Frone & Rice, 1987; Frone et al., 1992; Kanungo, 1982).

The full JIQ contains ten items derived from prior role involvement measures (Kanungo, 1982). Examples of scale items include “The most important things that happen to me involve my present job,” “I am very much involved personally in my job,” “Most of my personal life goals are job-oriented,” and “Most of my interests are centered around my job.” The scale showed good internal consistency reliability with a reported Cronbach’s alpha of .87 (Kanungo, 1982). Further, the JIQ showed acceptable test-retest reliability. In terms of construct validity, exploratory factor analysis results revealed a one factor model of job involvement, with factor loadings ranging from .44 to .77. Concurrent validity was assessed through correlations between job involvement and external outcome variables including job satisfaction and salient need satisfaction. As hypothesized, job involvement, as measured by the JIQ, was positively and significantly correlated with job satisfaction ($r = .57; p < .01$) and salient need satisfaction ($r = .49, p < .01$).

As noted above, Frone and Rice (1987) adapted the JIQ to assess family involvement. The authors extracted four items from the JIO to measure job involvement. Those same four items were then modified to measure both spouse and parental involvement. The items used to measure spouse involvement include “The most important things that happen to me involve my role as a spouse,” “Most of my interests are centered around my spouse,” “I am very much involved in my role as a spouse,” and one negatively worded item, “To me, my spouse role is only a small part of who I am.”

The authors reported acceptable Cronbach's alphas for both parental involvement (.83) and spousal involvement (.76) scales. Similar statistics were reported in the Frone et al. (1992) study. Specifically, an internal consistency reliability estimate of .88 was reported for the family involvement scale. The authors averaged spousal involvement and parental involvement into a single measure of family involvement. Regarding construct validity, Frone et al. (1992) reported the items designed to measure family involvement loaded onto a single factor (factor loadings not reported). The above calculations provide evidence of the reliability and validity of Frone and Rice's (1987) family involvement measure.

For purposes of parsimony, the family involvement measure in this study did not differentiate between spousal and parental involvement. Further, as noted in Chapter II, family is defined as "people who think of themselves as part of the family, whether related by blood or marriage or not, and who support and care for each other on a regular basis" (Park et al., 2003). Limiting the family involvement measure to spouse and parental roles excludes individuals not belonging to these groups, but still think of themselves as part of a family (i.e. domestic partners or individuals in a serious relationship but not married). It should be noted however, relationship status, number of children living at home, and age of children will be requested in the demographic portion of the survey. Following Frone and Rice (1987), four items will be used to measure family involvement: (a) "The most important things that happen to me involve my family," (b) "Most of my interests are centered around my family," (c) "I am very much involved in my family role," and one negatively worded item, (d) "To me, my family role

is only a small part of who I am.” Responses will be recorded on a 7-point Likert-type scale with anchors of 1 (strongly disagree) and (7) strongly agree.

Family Support

According to Goff et al., (1997), family support may take three forms: behavioral, logistical, and/or emotional. This study was concerned with behavioral and/or emotional support provided by family members for one’s fan role. Goff et al. (1996) used a four-item measure to assess perceived spousal support of an individual’s running role. A similar measure was employed by Fick et al. (1997) to observe the degree of support spouses provide for their partner’s running role, as perceived by the spouse. Items included in the Fick et al. scale are as follows: “My spouse/partner has a favorable attitude toward my running,” “My spouse/partner feels positive about my level of commitment to running,” “I can discuss running concerns with my spouse/partner,” and “My spouse/partner is a source of emotional support where my running is concerned.” Fick et al. (1996) reported an internal reliability estimate of .90 for the spouse support scale. Goff et al. (1997) observed a Cronbach’s alpha of .89 for the same scale. Both values exceed the .70 threshold established by Nunnally (1978) for acceptable reliability. Concurrent validity was evidenced through the inverse relationship between spouse support and leisure-family conflict reported by both Goff et al. (1997) and Fick et al. (1996). This illustrates that the more support one receives from his/her spouse, the less one experiences inter-role conflict.

A modified version of Fick et al.’s (1996) spousal support scale was employed in this study. However, rather than spousal support, items were worded to observe family support. An example of a family support item was “My family is a source of emotional

support where my fandom for (*team name*) is concerned.” Two additional items were included in the family support scale to assess behavioral support, that is, the degree to which family members are also fans. Behavioral support items include, “Members of my family are also fans of (*team name*)” and “Members of my family watch (*team name*) games with me.” Family support items were measured on a 7-point Likert-type scale with anchors of 1 (strongly disagree) to 7 (strongly agree). The complete family support subscale is shown in Appendix B.

Pretests

Prior to administering the survey, a series of pretests were conducted to ensure the reliability, validity, and readability of the instrument. The pretesting process was divided into three stages as outlined by Dillman (2007). First, a field test was conducted for purposes of item understanding and readability. Participants for this step were comprised of undergraduate students enrolled in sport administration classes at an urban, Midwestern university. The second stage in the pre-testing process was a small pilot test. The pilot test for this study served two purposes: a) to check the internal consistency of the modified fan-family conflict items, and b) to determine which, if any, items are consistently left unanswered. The third step is a “final check” to ensure there are no mistakes or problems with the survey. A small group of individuals were asked to complete and review the survey for any errors not detected during the previous two steps. As the inter-role conflict instrument employed in the current study has not been used within the fan-family domains, such a pretest was deemed necessary.

Data Analysis

To address the research questions posed in this study, a 3 x 3 multivariate analyses of variance (MANOVA) was conducted, as well as a 3 x 3 multivariate analysis of covariance (MANCOVA; discussed further in Chapter IV). MANOVA is an extension of analysis of variance (ANOVA) where group differences are detected across more than one dependent variable. Field (2009) noted the grouping of multiple dependent variables into a single analysis should be supported by prior theory or empirical research. Stevens (2002) echoed this sentiment contending MANOVA is most appropriate when “variables are correlated and share a common conceptual meaning” (p. 173). In addition to the multivariate analyses, Cronbach’s alphas were calculated for each of the four scales included in the instrument (fan-family conflict, fan identification, family involvement, family support) to assess scale reliability. Nunnally (1978) suggested a minimum threshold of .70 for acceptable internal consistency reliability.

Each research question contained four dependent variables (time-based FFC, strain-based FFC, behavior-based FFC, and economic-based FFC). As noted above, each dependent variable in the current study represents a different dimension of inter-role conflict (Carlson et al., 2000; Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985). The inclusion of each will provide a richer understanding of how sport fans perceive fan-family conflict. Furthermore, prior research indicates significant positive correlations between time-based, strain-based, and behavior-based inter-role conflict (Carlson et al., 2000; Halbesleben et al., 2009; Lapierre et al., 2008). Thus, the inclusion of all four types of fan-family conflict as dependent variables for the purpose of MANOVA was justified from a theoretical and empirical perspective.

The decision to conduct MANOVA instead of ANOVA, regression, or correlation analyses was made for several reasons. First, separate analyses on each dependent variable will increase the likelihood of making a Type I error. Second, MANOVA accounts for correlations among dependent variables. Such correlations are lost in univariate tests or individual regression analyses. Third, MANOVA is a more powerful test as it measures group differences across multiple dependent variables. Small differences among levels of the independent variable(s) may not be detected using ANOVA; however, the combined effect of differences across several dependent variables may be large enough to warrant significance (Field, 2009; Stevens, 2002).

The first two research questions were addressed using the same MANOVA. The first research question concerned the relationship between fan identification and fan-family conflict. Fan identification served as the independent variable in this analysis, while time-based, strain-based, behavior-based, and economic-based FFC were the dependent variables. The main effect analysis of fan identification on fan-family conflict from the MANOVA addressed this research question.

Research question two sought to understand the moderating effect of family support on the fan identification/fan-family conflict relationship. “A moderator is a qualitative or quantitative variable that affects the direction and/or strength of the relation between an independent or predictor variable and a dependent or criterion variable” (Baron & Kenny, 1986, p. 1174). In other words, research question two addressed the extent to which the fan identification/fan-family conflict relationship changed due to the degree of family support an individual receives for his/her sport fan role. As such, fan identification and family support were considered as independent variables. The

dependent variables were time-based, strain-based, behavior-based, and economic-based FFC. An analysis of the interaction effect between fan identification and family support on fan-family conflict from the MANOVA addressed this research question.

A similar MANOVA was initially intended to be employed to answer the third research question. Fan identification and family involvement were slated to serve as independent variables, with the four forms of FFC again being utilized as dependent variables. Like research question two described above, the interaction between fan identification and family involvement was of primary interest. However, due to the skewed nature of the family involvement data (described in Chapter IV), it did not make sense from a practical perspective to categorize respondents into groups based on this variable. As such, a MANCOVA was conducted to examine the interaction effect of fan identification and family support on fan-family conflict, as well as the main effect of fan identification on fan-family conflict, while controlling for family involvement. This process is discussed in detail in Chapter IV.

In the case where both the independent and moderator variables are categorical, as they were in this study (fan identification: high, moderate, and low; family support: high, moderate, and low), Baron and Kenny (1986) suggested a two-way MANOVA is the analysis of choice where moderation is implied by a significant interaction. “An interaction means that the effect one independent variable has on a dependent variable [or in the case of MANOVA, dependent variables] is not the same for all levels of the other independent variable” (Stevens, 2002, p. 322). Therefore, a 3 x 3 MANOVA and a 3 x 3 MANCOVA were utilized to examine the interaction effect among the independent variables in research questions two and three respectively.

Although fan identification and family support are measured as continuous variables, for purposes of MANOVA they will be treated as categorical variables. Pedhazur (1997) warns this practice may result in a loss of variability in data. Mean fan identification scores of 4.2 and 4.3 may not have significance from a practical perspective; however, when respondents are grouped on the basis of a median split, such a disparity may mean the difference between moderate identification and high identification. Further, when continuous variables are artificially categorized “all subjects are treated alike even though they may have been quite different on the continuous variable” (Pedhazur, 1997, p. 577). In other words, when interpreting data, respondents in each group are treated the same regardless of variations in their scores. In this study, a tripartite split was used for each independent variable. Respondents were categorized into three groups (high, moderate, and low) with an equal number of participants in each group. This ensured that at least two groups (high and low) are indeed distinct from each other. A potential pitfall with this procedure however is that “the determination of “high” and “low” is entirely dependent on the type of subjects involved” (Pedhazur, 1997, p. 576). Scores falling in the moderate identification group in this study may represent low identification in another sample. As such, caution must be taken when comparing data across samples.

Summary of Methods

In summary, this study examined fan-family conflict among spectators at an NCAA inter-collegiate football game located in a large, urban, Midwestern city. Prior to collecting data, a series of pretests were administered to assess the reliability, validity, and readability of the instrument. Following pretesting, data were collected using a

version of mall intercept sampling. Spectators were approached in their seats prior to kick-off and asked to participate in the study. The survey contained five sections: (a) fan-family conflict, (b) fan identification, (c) family involvement, (d) family support, and (e) demographics. The complete survey is shown in Appendix B. MANOVA was utilized to address research questions one and two. Research question three was analyzed using MANCOVA. A more detailed discussion of MANCOVA and the rationale for using MANCOVA in the current study is presented in Chapter IV.

CHAPTER IV

RESULTS

The purpose of the current study was to examine inter-role conflict between sport fan and family roles. Data were collected from spectators in attendance at an NCAA Division-I intercollegiate football game. Four types of inter-role conflict were examined: time-based, strain-based, behavior-based, and economic-based. In addition to each type of fan-family conflict, respondents were assessed in terms of their identification with the home team, family involvement, and perceived level of family support for their sport fan role. A 3x3 factorial MANOVA was employed to examine the interaction effect between fan identification and family support across all four types of fan-family conflict. Additionally, a 3x3 factorial MANCOVA was utilized to examine this interaction effect while controlling for level of family involvement. Results of these analyses are presented below.

Scale Development

Prior to collecting data, a series of pre-tests were conducted to ensure the reliability, validity, and readability of the study's instrument. A pilot study was conducted two weeks prior to the actual data collection to assess scale reliability. Fans were approached in the parking lot prior to a NCAA D-I intercollegiate football game and asked to complete a short survey pertaining to fan-family conflict. Participants were presented with a preamble explaining the nature of the study and their rights as a study

participant, the survey, and a pencil. Fifty-six usable surveys were collected from this process.

Internal consistency reliability estimates were calculated for each independent and dependent variable in the study. Cronbach's alphas for fan identification (.870) and family support (.892) exceeded the .70 cutoff for acceptable internal consistency reliability proposed by Nunnally (1978). The remaining reliability estimates ranged from $\alpha = .288$ (family involvement) to $\alpha = .667$ (time-based FFC). According to DeVellis (2003), "Internal consistency reliability...is concerned with the homogeneity of the items within a scale" (p. 27). In other words, items sharing a similar conceptual meaning should be scored in a similar manner. After reviewing the survey, several modifications were made to address the lack of reliability. First, item order on the pilot study survey was completely randomized. However, participants tended to agree more strongly with items measuring fan identification, family involvement, and family support, and less strongly with items pertaining to fan-family conflict. This led to a recurring theme where responses from item to item tended to bounce back and forth from either strongly agree to strongly disagree, or vice versa. Respondents may not have paid close attention to detail and inaccurately indicated "strongly disagree" on an item representing a construct for which they indicated "strongly agree" on all other construct items. Given the small sample size utilized for the pilot study, influential data points and/or outliers would have a larger effect. Therefore, the decision was made to group like items together to avoid unnecessary errors during survey completion.

Next, a fourth item was created and added to the time-based, strain-based, and behavior-based FFC constructs to account for individual items that may have skewed the

data. The new items were as follows: “The time I invest in (*team name*) interferes with my ability to participate in family activities,” “Sometimes I am irritable at home due to the stress I experience following (*team name*),” and “I behave differently at a (*team name*) game than I do at home.”

Third, all the questions on the pilot study survey were included on the inside pages of the survey pamphlet. As a result, items were spaced closely together, increasing the likelihood of respondent error due to the lack of adequate spacing between items. On the adapted version of the survey, items were spaced out to utilize the entire pamphlet (front and back), with demographic items moved to the back page. A new set of instructions was included at the top of each page as well.

Following the pilot study and ensuing scale adjustments, a field test was conducted to assess item understanding and item readability. Undergraduate students enrolled in a sport marketing class at a large Midwestern university were given a blank survey and an eight question comment form. Students were instructed to read the survey thoroughly, and answer each question included on the comment form. Additional adaptations were made from this process, most notably, the elimination of confusing terms (i.e. “frazzled” and “fandom”).

A second pilot study was conducted to assess internal consistency reliability following scale adjustments. Undergraduate students enrolled in an organizational behavior course and a separate section of sport marketing at a large Midwestern university were asked to complete the survey examining inter-role conflict between sport fan and family roles. Participants were provided with a paper survey, preamble, and pencil. A total of 47 usable surveys were returned. Cronbach’s alphas ranged from α

=.541 (economic-based FFC) to $\alpha = .942$ (fan identification). The reliability estimate for economic-based FFC was the only Cronbach's alpha value to fall below Nunnally's (1978) suggested cutoff of .70. Thus, the instrument was deemed a reliable measure of fan-family conflict.

The final pre-test consisted of a read-through of the survey items from an external group of individuals to review the instrument for any errors or typographical errors. The survey was distributed to several doctoral students and faculty members at a large Midwestern university for this purpose. No additional adaptations to the survey were necessary. The complete survey used for this study is shown in Appendix B.

Descriptive Statistics

Data were collected from spectators in attendance at an NCAA Division I intercollegiate football game played in a large, Midwestern city in October 2010. Of the 571 surveys distributed, a total of 473 were returned, thirteen of which were discarded due to incomplete or unusable data. The final sample consisted of 466 participants, for a response rate of 81.6%. This response rate is consistent with other studies which have utilized a similar form of mall-intercept sampling among sport fans at a game/event (Fink et al., 2002; Funk et al., 2002; James & Ross, 2004; Kim et al., 2009; Kim et al., 2008). This sample size also exceeds the minimum threshold of 382 respondents suggested by Dillman (2007) to attain a 95% confidence level with less than 5% sampling error for a population of 50,000.

The sample consisted of 296 males (63.5%) and 160 females (34.3%). Ten participants (2.1%) did not indicate their gender. With respect to age, 82.4% of respondents ($n = 379$) were 25 years of age or older. As noted in Chapter III, efforts were

made to target individuals appearing to be at least 25 years of age or older to increase the likelihood that respondents had families of their own. The data reflect these efforts. The frequency distribution of marital status indicated 297 participants (63.7%) were either married or with a partner, 127 (27.3%) were single, 19 (4.1%) were divorced, 9 (1.9%) were widowed, and 5 (1.1%) indicated other. Nine participants failed to respond to this question. Forty-seven percent of respondents ($n = 212$) indicated having at least one child living at home.

Other demographic data included annual household income, number of hours spent watching/reading about the home football team, and the money spent on the home football team on an annual basis. Participants reporting an annual household income of more than \$100,000 comprised 26.2% ($n = 122$) of the total sample. Those reporting annual household income in the \$60,000 - \$79,999 range comprised the second largest group ($n = 81$, 17.4%), followed by \$80,000 - \$99,999 ($n = 72$, 15.5%). Thirty-five percent of respondents reported an annual household income less than \$60,000 per year. On average, respondents indicated spending 6.41 hours per week watching/reading about the home football team. More than a third of respondents ($n = 179$, 39.8%) reported spending less than \$250 per year on the home football team. Only 9 participants (2%) indicated spending more than \$5,000 per year on the home football team. Complete frequency distributions are presented in Table 1.

Table 1
Frequency Distributions for Demographic Variables

Variable	Percent	Total
Gender		
Male	63.5	296
Female	34.3	160
No Response	2.1	10
Age		
18-24	17.4	81
25-29	8.8	41
30-34	8.6	40
35-39	7.7	36
40-44	7.5	35
45-49	9.7	45
50-54	11.6	54
55-59	10.9	51
60-65	9	42
65+	7.5	35
No Response	1.3	6
Marital Status		
Single	27.3	127
Married/Partner	63.7	297
Divorced	4.1	19
Widowed	1.9	9
Other	1.1	5
No Response	1.9	9
No. of Children in Household		
0	49.8	232
1	13.3	62
2	20.4	95
3	7.1	33
4	2.8	13
5+	1.9	9
No Response	4.7	22
Annual Household Income		
Less than \$19,999	12	56
\$20,000-\$39,999	10.1	47
\$40,000-\$59,999	12.9	60
\$60,000-\$79,999	17.4	81
\$80,000-\$99,999	15.5	72
\$100,000+	26.2	122
No Response	6	28

This study questionnaire consisted of three independent variables (fan identification, family support, family involvement) and four dependent variables (time-based FFC, strain-based FFC, behavior-based FFC, and economic-based FFC). Each construct was measured on a 7-point Likert-type scale, where 1 = strongly disagree and 7 = strongly agree. For the entire sample, fan identification had a mean of 5.53 ($SD = 1.58$). For purposes of understanding how fan identification impacted perceptions of fan-family conflict, respondents were categorized into one of three groups based on their level of fan identification: high, moderate, and low. As noted in Chapter III, a tripartite split was utilized to create three relatively equal group sizes. The high identification group had a mean of 6.95 ($SD = .12$, $N = 184$), the moderate identification group had a mean of 5.76 ($SD = .48$, $N = 140$), and the low identification group had mean of 3.48 ($SD = 1.00$, $N = 142$). ANOVA was conducted to ensure each group was significantly different from each other with respect to fan identification. Results from this analysis confirmed each group represented a significantly different level of identification with the home team from a statistical perspective $F(2, 463) = 1281.21$, $p < .01$. Respondents were also categorized into one of three groups based on their perceived level of family support for their sport fan role: high, moderate, and low. Once again, a tripartite split was utilized in an effort to obtain relatively equal group sizes. The high family support group had a mean of 6.86 ($SD = .18$, $N = 183$), the moderate family support group had a mean of 5.70 ($SD = .37$, $N = 139$), and the low family support group had a mean of 3.78 ($SD = 1.08$, $N = 144$). As was the case with identification, ANOVA results indicated statistically significant differences between the three levels of family support $F(2, 463) = 385.38$, $p < .01$.

Family involvement was originally intended to serve as the third independent variable in this study, as research question three sought to understand the effect of family involvement on the fan identification/fan-family conflict relationship. As such, respondents were supposed to be categorized based on family involvement in a similar manner to fan identification and family support. The mean family involvement score for the sample was 6.10 ($SD = 1.27$), indicating, for the most part, the sample was highly involved with their family roles. However, given the skewed nature of the family involvement data (skewness = -1.906; kurtosis = 3.730), categorizing the sample on the basis of family involvement did not make sense from an empirical or practical perspective. According to Field (2009), negative skewness, as is the case in the current study, reflects an imbalance of scores, weighted heavily to the right side of the distribution. Artificially creating three similar family involvement groups (i.e. high, higher, highest) would have allowed for a fan identification x family involvement interaction effect; however practically, such an analysis would provide little insight into the true effect of family involvement. Instead, a multivariate analysis of covariance (MANCOVA) was used in an effort to examine the interaction between fan identification and family support, while controlling for level of family involvement. A more thorough discussion on MANCOVA is presented below.

As noted above, all four types of FFC served as dependent variables in the analysis. Unlike fan identification and family support, the dependent variables in MANOVA are included as continuous variables. The mean for time-based FFC was 2.20 ($SD = 1.35$). The strain-based FFC mean was 2.10 ($SD = 1.30$). The behavior-based FFC mean was 2.15 ($SD = 1.35$). The mean for economic-based FFC was 1.93 ($SD = 1.16$).

A tripartite split was conducted with the fan-family conflict data as well to determine the percentage of respondents falling in the low (Likert score ranging from 0-2.5), moderate (Likert score ranging from 2.51-5.5), and high (Likert score ranging from 5.51-7) time-based, strain-based, behavior-based, and economic-based FFC groups. In terms of time-based FFC, 74.5% of respondents ($N = 347$) indicated low levels of conflict, 21.9% ($N = 102$) experienced moderate conflict, while only 3.6% ($N = 17$) perceived high degrees of conflict. Similar patterns emerged for strain-based, behavior-based, and economic-based conflict. Nearly three-quarters of participants (74%) indicated low levels of strain-based conflict, 24% ($N = 112$) indicated moderate conflict, and 1.9% ($N = 9$) indicated high strain-based FFC. Regarding behavior-based conflict, 73% ($N = 340$) were placed in the low conflict group, 24.5% ($N = 114$) were in the moderate group, while 2.6% ($N = 12$) experienced high levels of conflict. In terms of economic-based conflict, 80% of respondents ($N = 373$) reported low conflict, 18.7% ($N = 87$) reported moderate conflict, and 1.3% ($N = 6$) reported high conflict.

Reliability Analysis

Items from four existing scales were adapted for inclusion in the current study: fan identification, family support, family involvement, and inter-role conflict. Although these scales have been shown to be reliable in previous studies and in the pilot study, an additional internal consistency reliability analysis was conducted with the data, prior to conducting further analyses, to ensure scale reliability.

As noted above, internal consistency reliability refers to the extent to which scale items representing a unique construct are homogenous (DeVellis, 2003). Reliability analyses were conducted on all seven subscales within this study's instrument. The

internal consistency reliability estimate for the fan identification scale was .896. This exceeded the .70 threshold for acceptable reliability established by Nunnally (1978). For family support, the internal consistency reliability coefficient was .927. Cronbach's alpha for family involvement was .908.

Internal consistency reliability estimates were also conducted for all four types of fan-family conflict. For time-based FFC, the internal consistency reliability coefficient was .800. Strain-based FFC yielded a .829 internal consistency reliability coefficient. Cronbach's alpha for behavior-based FFC and economic-based FFC also exceeded the .70 threshold (Nunnally, 1978), with internal consistency reliability estimates of .809 and .783, respectively. Thus, the instrument used in the current study was a reliable measure of all seven constructs.

MANOVA Assumptions

As noted by Stevens (2002), three assumptions must be met prior to interpreting MANOVA results: independent observations, normal distribution of dependent variables, and equality of covariance matrices. Respondents were instructed to complete the survey independent of other family members also attending the game; however, it was not possible to ensure respondent compliance. Further, each respondent only completed one survey. Thus, the independence of observations assumption was met. To test the normality assumption, data for each dependent variable were presented in a histogram and compared against a normal distribution curve. All four dependent variables were positively skewed (skewness for time-based FFC = 1.50, strain-based FFC = 1.40, behavior-based FFC = 1.32, economic-based FFC = 1.65); thus, the normality assumption was not met. Despite this violation, Stevens (2002) noted the *F* statistic in MANOVA is

robust against non-normal data. Said differently, the effect of non-normal data on significance testing in MANOVA is minimal. The third assumption, equality of covariance matrices, was also violated. Box's test of equality of covariance matrices was significant ($F(80, 26858.808) = 2.813, p < .01$), indicating differences in variability between groups. Box's test is sensitive to non-normal data (Field, 2009; Stevens, 2002). Therefore, the violation of this assumption may be a product of positively skewed data. Additionally, Field (2009) and Stevens (2002) contended the F statistic in MANOVA is robust to violation of the equality of covariance matrices assumption, so long as group sizes are relatively equal. Stevens (2002) suggests the largest group size should be no more than 1.5 times larger than the smallest group size. Within the current study, all group sizes for both identification and family support were within this range. Despite violating these assumptions, MANOVA was utilized to examine the main effects of fan identification on fan-family conflict, as well as the interaction effect between fan identification and family support on fan-family conflict.

Moderating Effect of Family Support

A single 3x3 factorial MANOVA was utilized to address research question one and research question two. The primary reason for using a factorial design is to examine the interaction effect between two or more variables. Field (2009) contended main effects can be misleading without first observing the interaction effect. Therefore, results for research question two will be reported first. Research question two considered the moderating effect of family support on the fan identification/fan-family conflict relationship. As such, fan identification and family support were the independent

variables, and the four types of fan-family conflict were the dependent variables. Both independent variables consisted of three levels (high, moderate, low).

According to the MANOVA results, there was not a statistically significant multivariate interaction effect between level of fan identification and perceived level of family support, on fan-family conflict, Wilks's $\Lambda = .987$, $F(16, 1387.63) = .380$, $p = .987$. The lack of a significant interaction effect suggests family support does not moderate the fan identification/fan-family conflict relationship. Results indicate the effect of fan identification on the dependent variables is similar for each level of family support. Perceptions of time-based, strain-based, and behavior-based conflict were consistently lower for fans in both the high identification group and the low identification group across all three levels of family support (Table 2). A similar pattern was found for economic-based conflict, with the exception that at low levels of family support, fans high in identification and fans low in identification reported nearly identical scores on the dependent variable (Table 2). This pattern was not consistent for moderately identified fans (Table 2). On the dependent variable time-based conflict, for example, the mean score for moderately identified fans with low family support was 2.72 ($SD = 1.55$). As family support increased to moderate levels, perceptions of time-based conflict decreased ($M = 2.13$, $SD = 1.18$). However, the mean score for time-based conflict at the high family support level increased ($M = 2.31$, $SD = 1.48$), suggesting moderately identified fans in the high support group experience slightly greater amounts of time-based conflict than fans in the moderate family support group. A similar pattern was depicted for strain-based conflict.

Table 2

Means and Standard Deviations for Fan Identification and Family Support

Fan ID	Family Support	<u>Time</u>		<u>Strain</u>		<u>Behavior</u>		<u>Economic</u>	
		Mean	SD	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	Mean	SD
Low	Low	1.91	1.18	1.83	1.22	2.02	1.28	2.10	1.30
	Moderate	1.88	1.18	1.60	1.04	1.90	1.13	1.76	1.03
	High	1.58	0.71	1.42	0.94	1.56	1.20	1.44	0.75
	Total	1.87	1.15	1.73	1.16	1.95	1.24	1.96	1.21
Moderate	Low	2.72	1.55	2.65	1.41	2.72	1.45	2.39	1.33
	Moderate	2.13	1.18	2.08	1.24	2.32	1.39	2.06	1.25
	High	2.31	1.48	2.16	1.19	2.15	1.35	1.79	0.91
	Total	2.33	1.38	2.24	1.28	2.36	1.40	2.06	1.19
High	Low	2.65	1.60	2.56	1.56	2.46	1.64	2.09	1.10
	Moderate	2.52	1.64	2.40	1.34	2.37	1.39	2.06	1.23
	High	2.26	1.36	2.19	1.32	2.02	1.30	1.67	1.04
	Total	2.35	1.44	2.27	1.34	2.13	1.36	1.79	1.09
Total	Low	2.18	1.37	2.11	1.36	2.24	1.39	2.17	1.28
	Moderate	2.17	1.33	2.04	1.25	2.22	1.33	1.98	1.19
	High	2.22	1.36	2.13	1.28	2.02	1.31	1.68	0.99
	Total	2.20	1.35	2.10	1.29	2.15	1.34	1.92	1.16

Multivariate Effect of Fan Identification

Following the non-significant fan identification x family support interaction effect, the main effect of identification on fan-family conflict was analyzed to address research question one. The MANOVA revealed a statistically significant multivariate main effect of fan identification on fan-family conflict Wilks's $\Lambda = .944$, $F(8, 908) = 3.34$, $p < .01$. Follow-up analyses revealed significant univariate main effects of identification on time-based conflict ($F(2, 457) = 6.44$, $p < .01$), strain-based conflict ($F(2, 457) = 9.16$, $p < .001$), and behavior-based conflict ($F(2, 457) = 4.49$, $p < .05$). The main effect of identification on economic-based conflict was not significant, $F(2, 457) = 1.76$, $p = .173$ (Table 3). The η^2 for time-based conflict was .027, indicating about

2.7% of the variance in time-based conflict was explained by fan identification.

According to Stevens (2002), this is a small effect. The effect size for strain-based conflict was $\eta^2 = .039$, indicating about 3.9% of the variance in strain-based conflict was explained by fan identification. This too was a small effect according to Stevens (2002). For behavior-based conflict, $\eta^2 = .019$, indicating about 1.9% of the variance in behavior-based conflict was explained by fan identification. Again, this value represents a small effect (Stevens, 2002).

Results of the univariate analysis indicated fans perceived time-based, strain-based, and behavior-based fan-family conflict differently based on their level of identification with the team. Given that the identification variables consisted of three levels (high, moderate, low), a Tukey post hoc analysis was conducted to identify the between-group differences (Table 3). Results from the post hoc analysis revealed highly identified fans experienced significantly higher levels of time-based conflict ($M = 2.35$, $SD = 1.44$) than fans low in identification ($M = 1.87$, $SD = 1.15$) at the .05 alpha level. A significant difference was also detected between moderately identified fans ($M = 2.33$, $SD = 1.38$) and fans in the low identification group. Highly identified and moderately identified fans were not significantly different with respect to perceptions of time-based fan-family conflict. A similar pattern was revealed on the dependent variable strain-based FFC. Highly identified fans ($M = 2.27$, $SD = 1.34$) and moderately identified fans ($M = 2.24$, $SD = 1.28$) reported significantly higher levels of strain-based conflict than fans low in identification ($M = 1.73$, $SD = 1.16$). Significant differences were not detected between highly identified and moderately identified fans. In terms of behavior-based conflict, a significant difference was detected between moderately identified fans ($M = 2.36$, $SD =$

1.40) and fans low in identification ($M = 1.95$, $SD = 1.24$). However, highly identified fans reported slightly lower levels of behavior-based FFC ($M = 2.13$, $SD = 1.40$) than moderately identified fans. Highly identified fans did not significantly differ for either group with respect to behavior-based fan-family conflict (Table 4).

Table 3

Factorial MANOVA: Fan Identification and Family Support on FFC

Source	DV	SS	df	MS	F	p	η
Fan ID	Time_FFC	23.063	2	11.532	6.440	.002	.027
	Strain_FFC	29.445	2	14.723	9.158	.000	.039
	Behavior_FFC	15.922	2	7.961	4.493	.012	.019
	Economic_FFC	4.637	2	2.318	1.763	.173	.008
Family Support	Time_FFC	6.276	2	3.138	1.752	.175	.008
	Strain_FFC	8.703	2	4.351	2.707	.068	.012
	Behavior_FFC	10.108	2	5.054	2.852	.059	.012
	Economic_FFC	13.285	2	6.642	5.051	.007	.022
Fan ID x Family Support	Time_FFC	5.325	4	1.331	.743	.563	.006
	Strain_FFC	2.270	4	.568	.353	.842	.003
	Behavior_FFC	1.311	4	.328	.185	.946	.002
	Economic_FFC	.950	4	.237	.181	.948	.002
Error	Time_FFC	818.300	457	1.791			
	Strain_FFC	734.691	457	1.608			
	Behavior_FFC	809.693	457	1.772			
	Economic_FFC	600.997	457	1.315			
Total	Time_FFC	3100.799	466				
	Strain_FFC	2827.764	466				
	Behavior_FFC	2981.160	466				
	Economic_FFC	2346.840	466				

Table 4

Means and Standard Deviations for Fan Identification

Fan ID	<u>Time</u>		<u>Strain</u>		<u>Behavior</u>		<u>Economic</u>	
	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	Mean	SD
Low	1.87	1.15	1.73	1.16	1.95	1.24	1.96	1.20
Moderate	2.33	1.38	2.24	1.28	2.36	1.40	2.06	1.19
High	2.35	1.44	2.27	1.34	2.13	1.36	1.79	1.09
Total	2.20	1.35	2.10	1.29	2.15	1.34	1.92	1.16

Family Involvement as a Covariate

Research question three concerned the moderating effect of family involvement on the fan identification/fan-family conflict relationship. As noted in Chapter III, a MANOVA examining the interaction effect between family involvement and fan identification was to be conducted to address this research question. However, given the skewed nature of the family involvement data ($M = 6.10$, $SD = 1.27$, skewness = -1.906, kurtosis = 3.730), categorizing the variable into three groups (low, moderate, high), would have little practical significance. Therefore, a 3x3 factorial MANCOVA was conducted to examine the interaction effect between fan identification and family support on fan-family conflict while controlling for the effect of family involvement.

According to Stevens (2002), the purpose of covariance is to “adjust the posttest means for initial differences among the groups” (p. 341). In this case, fan identification had three groups (high, moderate, low) and family support had three groups (high, moderate, low). The analysis described in the previous section considered the interaction effect of fan identification and family support on fan-family conflict, as well as the main effect of fan identification on fan-family conflict. However, prior research suggests highly identified fans may only perceive fan-family conflict if they are highly involved with their family role as well (Carlson & Kacmar, 2000; Frone & Rice, 1987; Greenhaus

& Beutell, 1985). Therefore, it is important to control for level of family involvement within the analysis. As evidenced by the family involvement mean score (6.10), respondents were generally highly involved with their family roles. This was not the case however across the entire sample, as 13.3% of respondents reported a family involvement mean of 4.75 or less. The inclusion of family involvement as a covariate then reduces within-group error variance (as a product of group differences on the family involvement variable) and provides a more accurate illustration of the effect of fan identification on the four types of fan-family conflict (Field, 2009).

Prior to conducting MANCOVA, several assumptions must be met. As noted above, independence of observations was assured as respondents completed only one survey, independent of other respondents. Each of the dependent variables was positively skewed, violating the assumption of normality. Stevens (2002) and Garson (2009a) noted, however, multivariate analyses of variance are robust to non-normal data. Similarly, Box's M Test was significant ($F(80, 26858.808) = 238.337, p < .01$), meaning the equality of covariance matrices assumption was not met. As was the case with violations of normality, MANOVA, and by association MANCOVA, is robust to violations of this assumption (Field, 2009; Stevens, 2002). This violation may also be a result of non-normal data (Field, 2009; Stevens, 2002).

In addition to the assumptions described above, two additional assumptions must be met prior to interpreting MANCOVA results: linearity between the dependent variables and the covariate, and homogenous regression hyperplanes (Stevens, 2002). Each of these assumptions was tested using SPSS MANOVA. A significant multivariate relationship between the family involvement covariate and the dependent variables was

detected (Wilks's $\Lambda = .918$, $F(4, 453) = 10.16$, $p < .01$). The regression hyperplanes assumption was not met however (Wilks's $\Lambda = .941$, $F(16, 1384.58) = 1.74$, $p < .05$), indicating a significant covariate-by-treatment interaction between groups (Stevens, 2002). Violation of this assumption has important consequences regarding interpretation of the MANCOVA results (Field, 2009; Stevens, 2002). According to Garson (2010), violation of the regression hyperplanes assumption increases the likelihood of making a Type II error (detecting a false negative). As such, the MANCOVA results should be interpreted with caution.

MANCOVA results indicated the fan identification x family support multivariate interaction effect was not significant (Wilks's $\Lambda = .987$, $F(16, 1384.58) = .363$, $p = .990$). The lack of a significant multivariate interaction effect suggests the effect of identification on the dependent variables does not change across levels of family support. However, profile plots of time-based FFC, strain-based FFC, and behavior-based FFC indicated respondents receiving high levels of family support perceived less conflict than those reporting low family support across all three levels of identification. In other words, despite the lack of a significant interaction effect, higher levels of family support did reduce perceptions of fan family conflict for fans with varying levels of identification for the team.

Similar to the prior analysis, the multivariate main effect for identification was significant (Wilks's $\Lambda = .947$, $F(8, 906) = 3.125$, $p < .01$), indicating differences in perceptions of fan-family conflict based on one's level of identification when controlling for family involvement. Univariate analyses revealed a significant main effect of identification on time-based FFC ($F(2, 456) = 5.63$, $p < .05$), strain-based FFC ($F(2,$

456) = 8.24, $p < .05$), and behavior-based FFC ($F(2, 456) = 3.86$, $p < .05$). The main effect of identification on economic-based FFC was not significant ($F(2, 456) = 1.37$, $p = .255$). The effect size measure for time-based FFC was $\eta^2 = .024$, indicating about 2.4% of the variance in time-based FFC was explained by fan identification. According to Stevens (2002), this is a small effect. For strain-based conflict, $\eta^2 = .035$, indicating about 3.5% of the variance in strain-based conflict was explained by identification. An effect size of $\eta^2 = .035$ is a small effect according to Stevens (2002). The η^2 for behavior-based conflict was $\eta^2 = .017$, indicating about 1.7% of the variance in behavior-based conflict was explained by identification. This too is a small effect according to Stevens (2002).

Pairwise comparisons were conducted on Bonferroni corrected adjusted means ($p < .05$) to examine differences between levels of identification on time-based, strain-based, and behavior-based fan-family conflict. In terms of time-based FFC, significant differences were detected between fans low in identification ($M = 2.35$) and moderately identified fans ($M = 2.36$). A significant difference was also detected between highly identified fans ($M = 2.445$) and fans low in identification. Significant differences were not detected between fans with high and moderate levels of identification for the home team. Pairwise comparisons also indicated a significant difference between fans low in identification ($M = 1.65$) and moderately identified fans ($M = 2.27$) with respect to strain-based conflict. Similarly, highly identified fans reported significantly higher levels of strain-based conflict ($M = 2.35$) than fans low in identification. Highly identified fans did not experience significantly higher levels of strain-based conflict than moderately identified fans. In terms of behavior-based conflict, the only significant difference was

detected between fans low in identification ($M = 1.85$) and those indicating moderate levels of identification ($M = 2.37$). Highly identified fans experienced slightly lower levels of behavior-based conflict ($M = 2.25$) than moderately identified fans, thus a between group difference was not detected.

Summary of Results

This study used MANOVA to examine the interaction effect of fan identification and family support, as well as the main effect of fan identification, on four types of fan-family conflict: time-based, strain-based, behavior-based, and economic-based. Results indicated statistically significant differences in time-based, strain-based, and behavior-based fan-family conflict based on one's level of identification. Highly and moderately identified fans experienced more intense perceptions of time-based and strain-based conflict than fans low in identification. Moderately identified fans also reported significantly higher levels of behavioral incompatibility between fan and family roles than fans low in identification. The interaction effect between identification and support was not statistically significant; however, perceptions of time-based, strain-based, and behavior-based fan-family conflict decreased with higher levels of family support across all three identification groups.

MANCOVA was also used to examine these effects while controlling for degree of family involvement. Once again, the interaction between fan identification and family support was not significant; however, there was a significant multivariate main effect of identification on fan-family conflict. Despite the violation of the homogeneity of regression hyperplanes assumption, results from the MANCOVA analysis mirrored those of the MANOVA with respect to between-group differences on time-based, strain-based,

and behavior-based FFC. These results indicate involvement did not have a significant impact on the identification/fan-family conflict relationship. That said, the entire sample reported an overall family involvement mean score of 6.10, indicating high levels of family involvement. Thus, higher fan-family conflict scores were expected from respondents also indicating higher levels of identification with the team (Frone & Rice, 1987). From this perspective then, it appears family involvement is an important variable within the fan-family conflict interface.

CHAPTER V

DISCUSSION

The primary purpose of the current study was to examine the nature of inter-role conflict between sport fan and family roles among fans with varying degrees of identification with a sports team. This study also sought to understand the moderating effect of family involvement and family support on the fan identification/fan-family conflict relationship. Three research questions were developed to guide this study's purpose:

RQ1: What is the effect of fan identification on fan-family conflict (time-based, strain-based, behavior-based, and economic-based)?

RQ2: How does family support impact the relationship between fan identification and fan-family conflict (time-based, strain-based, behavior-based, and economic-based)?

RQ3: How does family involvement impact the relationship between fan identification and fan-family conflict (time-based, strain-based, behavior-based, and economic-based)?

This chapter will discuss the results presented in Chapter IV pertaining to each research question. Next, major implications, both theoretical and practical, will be discussed, followed by directions for future research and a summary of the entire study.

Summary of Results

Analysis of the data revealed five main findings regarding perceptions of fan-family conflict. First, fan-family conflict mean scores indicated respondents experienced relatively little conflict between fan and family roles. This was true across all four types of fan-family conflict for the entire sample. As noted in Chapter IV, mean scores for fan-family conflict (FFC) ranged from 1.93 (economic-based FFC) to 2.20 (time-based FFC) on a 7-point Likert-type scale.

Second, despite low levels of fan-family conflict for the sample as a whole, the level of fan identification did influence perceptions of fan-family conflict. Respondents identifying more strongly with the team experienced more time-based and strain-based FFC than those whose fan role was less central to their self-concept. Identification had a similar effect on behavior-based conflict in that lesser identified respondents indicated the lowest levels of inter-role conflict; however, highly identified fans experienced a slight dip in behavior-based FFC compared to those with moderate identification with the team.

Third, fan identification did not affect how fans perceived economic-based FFC. In fact, the lowest economic-based FFC mean scores belonged to highly identified fans. Moderately identified fans reported the most economic-based FFC; however, the effect of identification on economic-based FFC was not significant.

Fourth, family support did not impact the fan identification/fan-family conflict relationship. Similar levels of fan-family conflict were reported for respondents in all three identification groups regardless of the support they received for their sport fan role from other family members. For the most part, however, as family support increased,

perceptions of fan-family conflict decreased. This was particularly true for fans in the high identification and low identification groups. In other words, fans high in identification and fans low in identification experienced less time-based, strain-based, behavior-based, and economic-based fan-family conflict as they received more support from their families. As evidenced by the mean scores reported in Chapter IV, however, perceptions of fan-family conflict decreased at a similar rate as family support increased for both fans in the high identification and low identification groups, thus the interaction between fan identification and family support was not significant.

Finally, the effect of identification on fan-family conflict was also significant when controlling for family involvement. Specifically, when controlling for the effect of family involvement, moderately and highly identified fans reported significantly greater levels of time-based and strain-based FFC than fans low in identification. Moderately identified fans also experienced more behavior-based conflict than lesser-identified individuals did when controlling for family involvement. At first glance, these results seem to suggest family involvement does not influence the fan identification/fan-family conflict relationship, as the multivariate and univariate effects of identification on fan-family conflict are similar, regardless of whether family involvement is included in the analysis. However, the mean family involvement score for the entire sample was 6.10 on a 7-point Likert-type scale. This indicates respondents in the sample were highly involved with their family roles. According to Frone and Rice (1987) highly identified fans will only perceive inter-role conflict with their family roles if they are also highly involved with their family role, as was the case in the current study. As such, family

involvement may have a greater influence on the fan identification/FFC relationship than the initial MANCOVA results suggest.

Major Implications of the Study

The construct of fan identification has been researched extensively within the sport management literature. Researchers often focus on fan identification from a marketer's perspective to aid in understanding sport fan consumptive behavior (Fisher & Wakefield, 1998; James & Trail, 2008; Laverie & Arnett, 2000; Matsuoka et al., 2003; Wann & Branscombe, 1993; Wakefield, 1995). Wann and colleagues have also studied fan identification through a social scientist's lens; seeking to better understand the indirect social and psychological outcomes related to high levels of identification with an athlete, team, or sport, such as effects on mood state, self esteem, and other affective responses (Branscombe & Wann, 1991; 1992; Wann & Branscombe, 1992; Wann, Inman, et al., 1999; Wann et al., 2005). Few academics have investigated the effect of one's fandom on family life activities (Gantz et al., 1995a; 1995b; Smith et al., 1981). This study fills that gap by examining inter-role conflict within the context of fan and family roles.

Inter-role conflict refers to incompatible role pressures stemming from participation in two or more roles (Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985; Kahn et al., 1964). The roles receiving the lion's share of attention among inter-role conflict researcher are typically associated with work and family (e.g. Boyar et al., 2000; Bruening & Dixon, 2007; Carlson & Kacmar, 2000; Dixon & Bruening, 2005; 2007; Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985; Halbesleben et al., 2009; Mazerolle et al., 2008; Parasuraman & Simmers, 2001). That is not to say work and family roles are the only two roles which may produce inter-

role conflict. Fick et al. (1996), Goff et al. (1997), Goff and Fick (1997), and Gillespie et al. (2002) studied inter-role conflict arising between family and participation in leisure roles such as running or dog sports. This study builds upon the inter-role conflict literature by extending to fan and family roles. Additionally, prior research suggests inter-role conflict may take three forms: time-based, strain-based, and behavior-based (Carlson et al., 2000; Carlson et al., 2009; Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985; Halbesleben et al., 2009; Lapierre et al., 2008). As such, study participants were assessed on all three forms of inter-role conflict. Beyond time, strain, and behavior-based conflict, however, engagement in the sport fan role also requires a financial commitment on the part of the fan. Activities such as game attendance or merchandise consumption may come at a cost to a family's financial resources; therefore, this study introduced and examined a fourth type of inter-role conflict, economic-based fan-family conflict.

Fan Identification and Fan-Family Conflict

The first research question addressed the relationship between fan identification and fan-family conflict. Specifically, did perceptions of time-based, strain-based, behavior-based, and economic-based conflict vary based on one's level of identification with the home team? Although mean scores suggested respondents experienced relatively low levels of all four types of fan-family conflict, results indicated moderately and highly identified fans experienced more time-based, strain-based, and behavior-based FFC than fans low in identification. This finding was expected given what is known about the affective, behavioral, and cognitive responses of highly identified fans.

Previous research investigating fan identification suggests highly identified fans consume greater quantities of sport (i.e., game attendance, merchandise consumption,

media consumption) than their lesser identified counterparts (Fisher & Wakefield, 1998; Laverie & Arnett, 2000; Matsuoka et al., 2003; Wakefield, 1995; Wann & Branscombe, 1993; Wann et al., 2004). Not only does this suggest highly identified fans spend more money on sport consumptive activities, but such behavior requires devotion of one's time, time which may otherwise be spent attending to family role responsibilities. Highly identified fans in the current study did report significantly greater levels of time-based FFC than fans low in identification. This finding is consistent with prior literature suggesting a positive relationship between role time commitment and inter-role conflict (Boyar et al., 2008; Carlson & Kacmar, 2000; Carlson & Perrewe, 1999; Fick et al., 1996; Greenhaus et al., 1987; Mazerolle et al., 2008; Parasuraman & Simmers, 2001). Although the current study did not test this relationship directly, it can be extrapolated from the studies cited above regarding sport fan behavior that highly identified fans spend more time engaged in fan role behaviors. As noted by Goode (1960), resources such as time are disposable. Therefore, time spent on the sport fan role cannot also be spent on family role demands.

Sport fans also experience strain/stress associated with the sport fan role, which may affect performance in other roles. As noted in Chapter II, highly identified fans employ identity maintenance processes such as in-group biases and success/failure attributions to a greater degree than fans low in identification (Dimmock et al., 2005; Wann & Branscombe, 1995; Wann & Dolan, 1994a, 1994b; Wann & Schrader, 2000; Wann et al., 2006). Additionally, highly identified fans experience changes in mood, physiological responses, and level of arousal in response to game outcomes or exposure to team-related content (Branscombe & Wann, 1992; Hillman et al., 2000; Hirt et al.,

1992; Smith et al., 1981). Given these strain/stress related outcomes associated with higher levels of identification, it is not surprising that highly identified fans in the current study reported experiencing significantly greater levels of strain-based conflict between their fan and family roles. Previous studies offer support for this finding. For example, strain/stress variables such as role overload (i.e. inability to fulfill role demands within given time constraints), role conflict (i.e. conflict within a single role), and role ambiguity (i.e. uncertainty regarding role responsibilities) have been found to lead to more intense perceptions of inter-role conflict between work and family roles (Carlson & Kacmar, 2000; Chiu, 1998; Kopelman et al., 1983; Reinardy, 2007). Highly identified fans are more likely than lesser identified individuals to experience stress stemming from membership within the sport fan role. As was the case with the work-family studies, such stress may contribute to increased strain-based fan-family conflict.

According to Greenhaus and Beutell (1985), behavior-based conflict is most likely to present when “specific patterns of in-role behavior... [are] incompatible with expectations regarding behavior in another role” (p.81). Typical fan role behaviors include game attendance, merchandise consumption, and media consumption. However, researchers have found a positive correlation between one’s level of identification and engagement in dysfunctional fan behavioral responses such as spectator aggression, blasting out-group members, and in-game alcohol consumption (Dimmock & Grove, 2005; Wann, 1993; 1994; Wann, Carlson, et al., 1999; Wakefield & Wann, 2006). Dimmock and Grove (2005) reported highly identified fans admit to having significantly less control over their behaviors during a sporting event than lesser identified individuals. Sport fans have also been linked to a variety of social norm deviations including fan

violence (Case & Boucher, 1981; Case et al., 1987; Edwards & Van Rackages, 1977; Roberts & Benjamin, 2000; Ward, 2002), hooliganism (Spaaij, 2008), and racism (BBC Sport, 2004; Eitzen, 1988; Ferber, 2007; Jones & Fleming, 2007; Newman, 2007; Wann et al., 2001). Such behaviors undoubtedly contrast the behavioral expectations required for fulfillment of typical family role demands such as taking one's children to school, completing chores around the house, or eating dinner as a family.

Although such behaviors are not characteristic of all sport fans, the relationship between fan identification and several of the dysfunctional behaviors described above would seem to suggest highly identified fans would experience greater behavior-based FFC than non-highly identified fans. Results from the current study, however, suggest moderately identified fans experienced the highest level of behavior-based FFC ($M = 2.36$). In fact, highly identified fans reported similar levels of behavior-based FFC ($M = 2.13$) than fans low in identification ($M = 1.95$). This finding may be explained by the notion that dysfunctional behaviors such as blasting, out-group derogation, and fan aggression represent efforts on the part of the highly identified fan to maintain a positive social identity (Wann, 1993). As highly identified fans are unlikely to CORF following a loss (Trail, Anderson, et al., 2000; Wann & Branscombe, 1990), they must rely on alternative processes to protect their identity. Acting out aggressively against other fans/officials or putting down fans of the other team may serve this purpose. Highly identified fans may justify such behaviors as being normative fan role responses (Hunt et al., 1999), therefore failing to perceive behavioral incompatibility with family role demands. Moderately identified fans on the other hand are not as inclined to protect their fan role identity, as the fan role is not as central to their core self-concept. As such,

engagement in dysfunctional behaviors may be perceived as inappropriate or unsuited for the family role for this group.

The fourth type of inter-role conflict, economic-based FFC, was included in this study to determine the extent to which financial expenses of being a fan precluded one from fulfilling family role financial obligations (i.e., mortgage, car payments, student loans, etc). Overall, study participants did not appear to perceive much economic-based conflict between their sport fan and family roles ($M = 1.92$). Further, respondents in all three identification groups expressed similar levels of economic-based fan-family conflict, suggesting highly identified fans do not feel the financial requirements of being a fan interfere with their ability to satisfy the financial needs of their family. This result is somewhat unexpected in that engagement in the sport fan role requires the devotion of one's financial resources. Like time, money is also a perishable resource, which must be allocated among multiple roles (Goode, 1960). Given that highly identified fans consume sport to a greater degree than lesser identified fans, it should hold that highly identified fans spend more money on sport consumptive activities than fans low in identification. Indeed, Wann and Branscombe (1993) found highly identified fans spent more money following their team than fans with moderate or low identification with the team.

Several factors may have contributed to the lack of a significant finding as it relates to economic-based FFC. First, the financial expense of being a sport fan may not necessarily come at the expense of one's family. Sport fans and their families may budget for fan-related expenses to avoid conflict. Further, nearly 60% of respondents in this study reported an annual household income in excess of \$60,000. More than a quarter of all respondents reported household earnings greater than \$100,000. For these participants,

being a fan may be an affordable leisure role. Additionally, one of the delimitations of this study identified in Chapter I referenced the fact that only fans in attendance had an opportunity to participate in this study. Many fans may not attend games because of cost. This population may be more likely to experience economic-based conflict than those who are able to afford tickets and additional expenses associated with game attendance.

Another factor which may have contributed to low levels of economic-based fan-family conflict may have been family support for the sport fan role. As a whole, participants indicated moderately high levels of family support ($M = 5.56$). This is unlikely to be the case with addictive behaviors such as problem gambling which have been shown to have adverse financial implications for families (Abbott et al., 1995; Downs & Woolrych, 2010; Gaudia, 1987; Wenzel et al., 2008). When family support is high, as it was in the case of this study, it is likely family members are aware of the amount of money individuals are spending on team-related consumption. In the case where such spending interferes with the financial needs of the family, economic-based conflict may become more prevalent.

From a practical perspective, findings from the current study suggest engagement in the sport fan role may have consequences at home, even if they are unintentional. Although results from this study revealed perceptions of fan-family conflict were relatively low overall, significant differences were detected in time-based, strain-based, and behavior-based FFC based on one's level of identification. Sport fans, particularly those whose fan role is highly salient to their self-concept, should be cognizant of the effects of their fan role on alternative life roles. If sport fans indicate the demands of the fan role interfere with their ability to function fully within the family role, it is likely

other family members recognize the conflict as well. Inter-role conflict has been found to have a negative impact on various family outcomes measures including family satisfaction (Bedeian et al., 1988; Carlson & Kacmar, 2000; Chiu, 1998; Judge et al., 2006), life stress (Parasuraman & Simmers, 2001), life satisfaction (Carlson & Kacmar, 2000; Chiu, 1998; Dixon & Sagas, 2007), spousal well-being (Bedeian et al., 1988; Burke et al., 1980), and overall health (Cooke & Rosseau, 1984; Winter, Roos, Rahkonen, Martikainen, & Lakelma, 2006). This study offers insight into the nature of fan-family conflict (time-based, strain-based, behavior-based, economic-based), which should aid sport fans, and their families, in making affective, behavioral, and cognitive adjustment to minimize the effects of fan role engagement on performance with the family domain.

The sport fan role undoubtedly requires devotion of one's time. Watching and attending games, following the team through the media, and even talking about the game with peers can be time consuming activities. As noted above, time reserved for the sport fan role is time that may not be spent attending to family role demands. In terms of actually watching games, some degree of time-based conflict may be inevitable as games are typically scheduled during the evenings and on weekends, time that is also typically reserved for non-work related responsibilities including attending to family role requirements. One approach to lessening time-based conflict may be as simple as looking at team and family schedules for the upcoming weeks, or even months, and identifying times where conflicts may exist. While this strategy may not eliminate time-based conflict, it will allow other family members to revise expectations regarding time availability.

Of course, the time demands of the fan role extend beyond game days. Sport fans have countless options readily available to follow their favorite team(s) even on non-game days or during the off-season. Consider a Washington Redskins fan who not only watches the team play on Sunday, but also plays fantasy football, chats with other fans on team message boards, watches daily televised sports programming such as “NFL Total Access” on the NFL Network or “NFL Live” on ESPN, and peruses the internet in 15-minute intervals for the latest news about the team. Not only do these behaviors require time, immersion to this degree may make it difficult to psychologically disengage from the sport fan role when actively participating in family role responsibilities (Carlson & Frone, 2003). Sport fans should be aware of the potential indirect effects of role engagement to this magnitude and take steps to monitor the amount of time they spend following their favorite team/sport.

Regarding strain-based conflict, prior research suggests sport fans experience strain as a product of their need to maintain a positive social identity (Dimmock et al., 2005; Wann & Branscombe, 1995; Wann & Dolan, 1994a; 1994b; Wann & Schrader, 2000). Other forms of strain manifest themselves as fluctuations in mood as a result of team wins and losses (Branscombe & Wann, 1992; Hirt et al., 1992; Smith et al., 1981). A highly identified fan who experiences strain-based fan-family conflict must keep in mind his/her role as a fan is but one role within his/her role set. Group membership within a family also constitutes a social identification according to Turner (1982). Social groups, as defined by Turner, may be characterized as “two or more individuals who share a common social identification of themselves or...perceive themselves to be members of the same social category” (p. 15). Like one’s identification as a fan,

individuals may come to define themselves to others on the basis of their cognitive group categorizations as a spouse or parent. As such, highly identified fans who are also highly involved with their family role should make efforts to enhance or maintain their social identity through their family membership as well. Favorable comparisons against other families such as date night with the spouse, child-rearing practices, or quality of family interactions may serve this purpose, while at the same time relieving highly identified fans from the pressures of maintaining their social identity solely through their fan role membership. Simply being more conscientious of family role demands, and what is required to fulfill such demands, may also aid in minimizing strain-based fan-family conflict (Halbesleben et al., 2009).

Again, although participants did not readily admit to experiencing much behavior-based conflict, the fact that moderately identified fans indicated the highest levels of behavior-based FFC is somewhat troubling. As noted above, this may be an indicator that highly identified fans often accept dysfunctional fan behaviors as normal behaviors associated with the fan role. If this were the case, highly identified fans may be unlikely to perceive behavior-based conflict based on the fact that they may not view their behavior as unacceptable. It may also be the case that this group of highly identified fans generally behaves well while engaged in the fan role. However, that does not explain why moderately identified fans reported the highest levels of behavior-based FFC. A third possibility may be that fans are not readily willing to admit they behave in a manner that is unsuited for their family role; as such an admission would portray those individuals in a negative light. While the true nature of behavior-based conflict remains unclear, prior research has provided a link between certain dysfunctional fan behaviors and higher

levels of fan identification. Regardless of whether a highly identified fan perceives behavior-based FFC, he/she must be able to recognize the behavioral expectation of the role of the moment and act accordingly. For some, this may require a conscious effort to psychologically disengage from the sport fan role while participating in family activities.

Despite prior research suggesting highly identified fans consume sport to a greater degree than lesser identified individuals (Fisher & Wakefield, 1998; James & Trail, 2008; Wann & Branscombe, 1993; Wann et al., 2004), there were no differences detected within the current study in terms of economic-based FFC between identification groups. Economic-based FFC was included as an exploratory variable in this study, in an effort to gauge the extent to which money spent on the sport fan role impedes one's ability to fulfill family financial commitments. The lack of a significant finding is surprising considering sport consumption, like gambling described by Downs and Woolrych (2010), is an economic activity requiring a financial commitment to participate. Given that highly identified fans consume to a greater degree, and spend more money on their team than lowly identified fans (Wann & Branscombe, 1993), it was expected that highly identified fans would experience more economic-based FFC than respondents with moderate or low degrees of fan identification. Although the relationship between identification and economic-based FFC was not as expected, it is premature to dismiss this phenomenon completely. Like behavior-based FFC, sport fans may not be willing to admit to sacrificing family funds for the sake of the team. Further, as this phenomenon is exploratory in nature, future research is needed to better understand how families budget for fan role expenses. Although sport fan consumption is different from problem gambling, research suggests family financial concerns, as a result of participating in

economic activities, have detrimental consequences within the family role (Abbott et al., 1995; Downs & Woolrych, 2010; Wenzel et al., 2008). To avoid such outcomes, sport fans and their families should be open about the finances regarding sport consumption. Families should set boundaries as to what is acceptable spending and prioritize which consumptive activities are of most importance (e.g., purchasing season-tickets, buying a new jersey, ordering premium television packages such as NFL Sunday Ticket, etc).

Whereas the majority of implications discussed above pertain to the family, a question remains as to what responsibility a sports team has to curtail of fan-family conflict. Judge et al. (2006) spoke to this point, referring to the responsibility organizations and managers have in addressing work-family conflict. The authors noted, “beyond the profit/effectiveness motive, one might argue that as centers of human activity and interaction in society, organizations have a responsibility...to ameliorate work-family conflicts, particularly when such conflicts have implications for individuals’ emotional functioning” (Judge et al., 2006, p. 807). The same argument could be said of sport organizations. Sport is a constant source of interaction among fans and non-fans alike. The 24/7 nature of sport media ensures there will always be something to discuss “around the water-cooler” the next day. Further, stadiums and arenas around the world serve as centers of human activity, bringing together tens of thousands, and in some cases, hundreds of thousands of fans on a regular basis.

Given this role in society, sport organizations must be aware of the indirect consequences of their marketing efforts. Advertising and promotions designed to increase identification with the team undoubtedly result in higher revenue; however, the costs of such marketing efforts from a societal perspective must also be considered. Results from

this study suggest highly identified fans experience more difficulty balancing their fan and family roles than those individuals who do not identify as strongly with the team. To address this issue, sport organizations could make efforts to promote a family-friendly environment and promote the benefits of consuming sport as a family (i.e., more time to spend with one's family or father/mother-son/daughter bonding). Organizations such as beer companies and casinos have recognized the societal dangers associated with consuming their products (drinking while driving and compulsive gambling), and they actively engage in marketing efforts to thwart such behaviors. Alcohol companies routinely run advertisements for responsible drinking. Likewise, casinos often post information regarding Gamblers Anonymous meeting near the ATM machines located on the casino floor.

While it is unrealistic to expect sport organizations to market down to highly identified fans, efforts could be made to indirectly address the fan-family conflict issue. For instance, the Tennessee Titans have signage posted throughout their facility advising fans on appropriate game behaviors and providing a resource for reporting disruptive fan behavior. While this strategy is ultimately designed to improve the game day experience of all fans, it also serves to reinforce acceptable behaviors which may minimize behavior-based FFC. Another option may be to phase post-game sports talk shows into local and regional news over the course of the program to help bridge the gap from the game back to "reality." Such efforts will not only reduce the amount of time individuals engage in the sport fan role, but it may also assist fans in disengaging from the fan role following a game.

Family Involvement

The third research question was concerned with the extent to which one's level of involvement with his/her family role influenced how fan-family conflict was perceived based on an individual's identification with the team. Family involvement was defined as the extent to which one's family role is important and central to his/her self-concept (Carlson & Perrewé, 1999; Parasuraman & Simmers, 2001). For purposes of MANOVA, the original intent was to categorize participants into three groups (high, moderate, and low) on the basis of their family involvement scores. Given the skewed nature of the data ($\mu = 6.10$, skewness = -1.906), such categorizations would have minimal practical significance. Therefore, family involvement was considered as a continuous variable, and a MANCOVA was conducted as an alternative test to assess the relationship between fan identification and fan-family conflict while controlling for degree of family involvement. Results presented in Chapter IV suggested family involvement did not have a significant influence on the fan identification/fan-family conflict relationship. Differences in perceived time-based, strain-based, behavior-based, and economic-based fan-family conflict based on fan identification were nearly identical whether family involvement was included as a covariate or not. As discussed in Chapter IV however, the regression hyperplanes assumption for MANCOVA was violated, potentially resulting in a more conservative analysis (Garson, 2010). Therefore, MANCOVA results should be interpreted with caution.

Results from this study appear to indicate family involvement does not affect perceptions of inter-role conflict, a finding that stands in contrast to prior research. As noted in Chapter II, Frone and Rice (1987) found a positive relationship between

involvement in the work domain and work-family conflict, only in instances where the family role, or spouse role, was also highly valued. Extrapolating from Frone and Rice's work, it might be expected in the current study for individuals experiencing high levels of identification for the home team to report greater degrees of fan-family conflict when the family role is one in which they are highly involved as well. Others reported work-related factors such as time commitment, intra-role conflict, work role ambiguity, and involvement with one's job have the greatest effect on work-family conflict when respondents were highly involved with their role as a family member (Boyar et al., 2008; Carlson & Kacmar, 2000). These findings support Greenhaus and Beutell's (1985) proposition that simultaneous pressures from two or more roles are necessary for inter-role conflict:

If there is no strong pressure to participate in family activities, the person is not likely to experience conflict...As pressures to engage in family activities...grow stronger, the opposing pressures may become equally strong and conflict may be experienced. (Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985, p. 82)

Further analysis of the family involvement data, however, suggests the MANCOVA results may not tell the whole story. As noted above, the mean score for family involvement for the entire sample was 6.1 (on a 7-point Likert-type scale). In other words, respondents in the current study were, for the most part, highly involved with their family role. Following Frone and Rice (1987) and Greenhaus and Beutell (1985), it would stand to reason individuals experiencing high levels of identification with the home team would report higher degrees of fan-family conflict (relative to their lesser identified counterparts), given the nature of family involvement within the sample.

As reported in Chapter IV, highly and moderately identified fans indicated significantly higher levels of time-based, strain-based, and behavior-based fan-family conflict than fans low in identification. Such individuals are more likely to feel pressures to engage in both the fan and family roles, thus more likely to experience conflict. For example, a highly identified fan is likely to watch his/her team play, either through the media or in person, follow news about his/her team, buy merchandise and paraphernalia embossed with his/her team's logo, and experience mood variations as a result of team successes and failures. At the same time, this individual will also feel pressure to participate in his/her family role engaging in activities such as household chores, taking their children to soccer practice, taking one's spouse out on a date, or paying the bills. Thus, although it was not feasible to assess the moderating effect of family involvement on the fan identification/fan-family conflict relationship, it appears family involvement may contribute to higher levels of fan-family conflict for highly identified fans. At the very least, this finding should warrant further explorations into the moderating effect of family involvement within the fan-family conflict interface.

Family Support

Family support was included in the analysis as a moderating variable between fan identification and fan-family conflict. Although family support was considered as a single construct, two types of family support were assessed: emotional and behavioral. Within the context of this study, family support was defined as favorable attitudes towards or joint participation in fan role activities by other family members (Goff et al., 1997). Contrary to previous research indicating support within the family role may lessen perceptions of inter-role conflict (Boyar et al., 2008; Fick et al., 1996; Goff et al., 1997;

Holahan & Gilbert, 1979), results from the current study failed to reveal a significant interaction effect between family support and fan identification across all four types of fan-family conflict.

The relatively low levels of fan-family conflict across the entire sample (mean scores ranged from 1.92 for economic-based FFC to 2.20 for time-based FFC) may have contributed to the lack of a significant interaction effect between identification and family support. Although the interaction effects were not significant, the pattern of mean scores for high and low family support behaved similarly across all three levels of identification, indicative of a non-significant interaction (Shavelson, 1996). That is to say, perceptions of time-based, strain-based, behavior-based, and economic-based FFC were consistently lower for fans reporting high levels of family support for their sport fan role compared to those receiving little support for fans in all three identification groups. Further, like family involvement, the sample as a whole reported moderately high degrees of support from their family ($M = 5.56$). Consistent with research presented by Goff et al. (1997), Boyar et al. (2008), and Carlson and Perrewé (1999), it might be expected that this sample would experience relatively low levels of inter-role conflict.

Given what is known about the relationship between family support and inter-role conflict from prior literature, an ordinal interaction between family support and fan identification was expected. According to Shavelson (1996), ordinal interactions are characterized by a mean score pattern suggesting “a greater difference between groups at one level of a factor than at the other level of the same factor” (p. 420). In this study, it was expected that highly identified fans would experience significantly higher levels of fan-family conflict than lesser identified fans. Results from the first research question

confirmed this expectation. However, this difference was expected to become less pronounced as individuals received more family support for their sport fan role. Despite the relationship between fan identification and family support suggesting perceptions of FFC are lower for individuals receiving higher levels of support, the lack of a significant ordinal interaction is somewhat surprising.

Although the moderating effect of family support was not significant, results from the current study do have practical implications for families. As noted above, perceptions of fan-family conflict were slightly less intense when individuals received higher levels of family support for their sport fan role. This finding suggests family members should be a source of emotional and/or behavioral support where possible. Of course, sport fans should expect to reciprocate such support for the roles of other family members.

Research suggests emotional support may take several forms. Goff et al. (1997) examined the role of emotional family support in reducing leisure-family conflict among highly committed runners and their families. In their discussion, the researchers pondered the effect of coping strategies, borrowed from work-family conflict literature, in reducing inter-role conflict. Similar strategies may prove effective in curbing fan-family conflict. Hall (1972) proposed two coping strategies, structural role redefinition and personal role redefinition, which may be applicable to conflict between fan and family roles. Structural role redefinition refers to “communicating with one’s role senders and negotiating a new set of expectations which will be mutually agreed upon” (Hall, 1972, p. 476). An example of this coping strategy might include prioritizing fan role demands and reducing less important requirements. In this example, a fan may identify with both a football team and a hockey team, yet his/her identification with the football team is more central to

his/her self-concept. Under structural role redefinition, the fan may choose to discontinue his/her support for the hockey team, and focus his/her resources on following the football team, thus allowing more time for family role requirements (Hall, 1972). Another example of structural role redefinition would be to integrate fan and family roles so that a fan may engage in the requirements of both simultaneously. This may include attending/watching games with his/her family or doing household chores, such as folding the laundry, while the game is on. Within the context of work-family conflict, structural role redefinition has been found to increase family role satisfaction (Beutell & Greenhaus, 1983; Hall, 1972). Conceivably, these strategies may also aid in lessening perceptions of fan-family conflict as well.

The second coping strategy, personal role redefinition, refers to “changing the person’s perceptions of his or her role demands rather than attempting to change the environment” (Hall, 1972, p. 477). An example of personal role redefinition would be to establish priorities among roles and role responsibilities, and allocate resources accordingly. A fan may prioritize attending a game over mowing the lawn, so he/she may allocate their time to the game (Hall, 1972). However, if attending to household chores is established as a priority over watching one’s favorite NFL team play, time should be dedicated to one’s household responsibilities first, even if it means missing the football game. Another form of personal role redefinition would be to compartmentalize role demands (Hall, 1972). In other words, during a game, an individual would not be expected to participate in any family role responsibilities. However, once the game has concluded, and the individual is no longer engaged in the sport fan role, family responsibilities take priority. Like structural role redefinition, personal role redefinition

has also been shown to reduce inter-role conflict (Beutell & Greenhaus, 1983). As noted by Hall (1972), however, the success of such coping strategies is contingent on a mutual agreement for role redefinition. Both the fan and other family members must communicate role expectations to each other and come to a mutual understanding.

Future Research

The current study represents a first step in understanding inter-role conflict between fan and family roles. Results indicate highly identified fans experience more time-based and strain-based conflict than fans low in identification. A future study could investigate the effect of such conflict on one's family. Prior research has detected an inverse relationship between inter-role conflict and family outcome measures such as spousal well being (Burke et al., 1980) and satisfaction with one's family life (Bedeian et al., 1988; Carlson & Kacmar, 2000; Chiu, 1998; Judge et al., 2006); however, these studies looked at work-family conflict. A similar study could be conducted, building on the findings from the current investigation, to determine whether a similar relationship exists between fan-family conflict and family satisfaction/well-being.

Future studies should also examine fan-family conflict as experienced by other family members. That is, rather than assessing FFC from the perspective of the fan, as was the case in the current study, collecting data from spouses and children may shed more light onto the effects of fan role engagement on one's family. Such methods have been previously employed in both work-family conflict (Burke et al., 1980) and leisure-family conflict (Goff et al., 1997) research. As reported in Chapter IV, perceptions of fan-family conflict were on the low end of the spectrum for the sample surveyed in the current study. This may not accurately reflect perceptions of fan-family conflict for other

family members. Participants in this study may have been hesitant to respond honestly to survey questions portraying themselves in a negative light. Therefore, it becomes important to gauge fan-family conflict from multiple perspectives in order to more fully understand the construct.

A qualitative inquiry may also yield interesting findings unique to fan-family conflict. The current study is primarily grounded in work-family conflict literature. While work and fan roles share some similarities, they are undoubtedly different. Interviews and focus groups with highly identified fans and their family members may reveal new dimensions of conflict not previously explored. Such efforts may also lead to the creation of an instrument to more adequately measure fan-family conflict, as the scales used in the current study were adapted from work-family conflict measures.

A third suggestion for future research would be to consider the effect of several demographic variables on the fan-family conflict interface. Boyar et al. (2008) reported individuals who were married and had children living at home experienced greater degrees of inter-role conflict than those who were single or without children in the household. Similar findings were also reported by Parasuraman and Simmers (2001), Dixon and Sagas (2007), and Reinardy (2007). Understandably, individuals with increased family demands would have fewer resources available for competing roles. Thus, highly identified fans with larger families may experience more fan-family conflict than those who are single or those in a relationship without children.

Socio-economic status would be another demographic variable of interest, particularly in terms of economic-based FFC. More affluent fans may consider sport consumption to be an affordable economic activity. Highly identified individuals from

less affluent families, however, may struggle to budget funds for fan role activities, leading to higher levels of conflict. Likewise, gender may also influence perceptions of fan-family conflict. Dixon and Bruening (2005) contended gender ideologies, and more specifically, stereotypical gender roles defining how male and females are supposed to act, will affect one's perceptions of inter-role conflict. Garey (as cited in Dixon & Bruening, 2005) suggested stereotypical female roles include childcare and tasks around the house. Under this stereotype, highly identified female fans may be more likely to experience time-based conflict, as they would feel more pressure to devote time to family role demands than a highly identified male fan.

As described in Chapter II, fan and family roles are just two roles comprising an individual's role set. A person may identify with a variety of additional roles including employee, volunteer, activity participant, church member, or student. Just as engagement in the fan role has the potential to drain resources needed to fulfill family role requirements, so too may fan role responsibilities interfere with one's ability to function fully in an alternate role. Imagine a highly identified fan who participates in message board discussions and fantasy football while at work. Such behaviors may stand in the way of completing work-related tasks. Similarly, the behavioral requirements of the fan role may contrast those necessary for competing roles (i.e. job). Future research should investigate inter-role conflict between the fan role and other roles besides the family to determine whether the impact of fan role engagement extends beyond fan and family roles.

Finally, it would be interesting to see whether the fan role has any positive outcomes at the family level. Within the work and family literature, researchers have

explored the possibility of inter-role enrichment (Greenhaus & Powell, 2006; Powell & Greenhaus, 2006). That is, “the extent to which the experiences in one role improve the quality of life in the other role” (Greenhaus & Powell, 2006, p. 73). The authors identified several resources acquired in either the work or family roles which may improve performance and satisfaction in the other, a number of which are applicable to the fan and family environment. For example, self esteem enhancement and optimism stemming from participation in the fan role may improve family role functioning. Similarly, the development and/or enhancement of inter-personal skills as a product of attending/watching games with other family members may also enhance family outcome measures (Greenhaus & Powell, 2006; Powell & Greenhaus, 2006). Others may see sport consumption as an escape from the rigors of everyday life (Trail et al., 2000). In such cases, engagement in fan role activities may be a source of stress relief, and in turn enhance family quality of life.

Summary of Study

The current study examined the extent to which identification as a sports fan interfered with one’s ability to perform fully within the family domain. Specifically, four types of fan-family conflict were observed: time-based, strain-based, behavior-based, and economic-based. Data were collected from spectators in attendance at an NCAA D-I intercollegiate football game. Results revealed perceptions of fan-family conflict did deviate as a product of one’s identification with the home team. Highly and moderately identified fans experienced time-based and strain-based conflict to a significantly greater degree than fans low in identification. Moderately identified fans reported the highest levels of behavior-based conflict of the three identification groups. However, analysis of

the data did not reveal significant differences in terms of economic-based fan-family conflict based on one's level of identification with the team.

This study also considered the effect of family involvement and family support on the fan identification/fan-family conflict relationship. The population from which data were collected was very highly involved with their family role, which may have contributed to the significant relationships described in the preceding paragraph (Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985). Family support was also relatively high among participants in the current study. Those receiving more support from their family experienced consistently less conflict between fan and family roles across all levels of identification; however, the relationship was not significant.

Overall, results from this study demonstrate that fan identification does influence perceptions of inter-role conflict between fan and family roles. Highly identified fans should be cognizant of the effects of fan role engagement on family role demands. Time-based and strain-based fan-family conflict were found to be more of a problem for highly identified fans than their lesser identified counterparts. Findings from this study should assist fans and their families in making affective, behavioral, and cognitive adjustments to minimize the effects of fan role identification on one's family.

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APPENDIX A

Original Work-Family Conflict items (Carlson, Kacmar, & Williams, 2000)

Time-based WIF

My work keeps me from my family activities more than I would like.

The time I must devote to my job keeps me from participating equally in household responsibilities and activities.

I have to miss family activities due to the amount of time I must spend on work responsibilities.

Strain-based WIF

When I get home from work I am often too frazzled to participate in family activities/responsibilities.

I am often so emotionally drained when I get home from work that it prevents me from contributing to my family.

Due to all the pressures at work, sometimes when I come home I am too stressed to do the things I enjoy.

Behavior-based WIF

Behavior that is effective and necessary for me at work would be counter-productive at home.

I am not able to act the same way at home as I do at work.*

In order for me to succeed at work, I must be a different person than I can be at home.*

*Items adapted from Stephens and Sommer (as cited in Carlson et al., 2000).

APPENDIX B

Complete Survey Instrument

Fan-Family Conflict

Time-based FFC

Following Louisville football keeps me from my family activities more than I would like.
The time I must devote to following Louisville football keeps me from participating equally in household responsibilities and activities.

I have to miss family activities due to the amount of time I must spend on activities involving Louisville football.

The time I invest in Louisville football interferes with my ability to participate in family activities.*

Strain-based FFC

When I get home from a Louisville football game I am often too preoccupied with thoughts of the game to participate in family activities/responsibilities.

I am often so emotionally drained when I get home from a Louisville football game that it prevents me from contributing to my family.

Due to all the tension/pressures of following Louisville football, sometimes I am too stressed to do the things I enjoy.

Sometimes I am irritable at home due to the stress I experience following Louisville football.*

Behavior-based FFC

The behavior I exhibit at a Louisville football game is inappropriate at home.

I am not able to act the same way at home as I do at a Louisville football game

In order for me to enjoy Louisville football, I must be a different person at the game than I can be at home.

I behave differently at a Louisville football game than I do at home.*

Economic-based

I spend so much on Louisville football that I cannot spend money on other family activities.

My family struggles to fulfill financial commitments due to the amount of money I spend on Louisville football.

My family complains about the amount of money I spend on Louisville football.

The money I spend on Louisville football would be better spent on my family.

*Items added following pre-test

Fan Identification

I consider myself to be a “real” fan of Louisville football.

I would experience a loss if I had to stop being a fan of Louisville football.

Being a fan of Louisville football team is very important to me.

Family Involvement

The most important things that happen to me involve my family

Most of my interests are centered around my family.

I am very much involved in my role as a family member.

To me, my family role is a large part of who I am.

Family Support

My family has a favorable attitude towards me following Louisville football.

My family feels positive about my level of commitment to Louisville football.

I can discuss issues concerning Louisville football with my family.

My family is a source of emotional support where Louisville football is concerned.

Members of my family are fans of Louisville football.

Members of my family watch Louisville football games with me.

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SCHOLARLY & ACADEMIC ACTIVITIES

Publications

1. Refereed Journals

Greenhalgh, G., **Simmons, J.**, Hambrick, M., & Greenwell, T.C. (2011). Spectator support: Examining the attributes used to differentiate niche from mainstream sport. *Sport Marketing Quarterly*, 20(1).

Hambrick, M. E., **Simmons, J. M.**, Greenhalgh, G. P., & Greenwell, T. C. (2010). Understanding professional athletes' use of Twitter: A content analysis of athlete tweets. *International Journal of Sport Communication*, 3(4), 454-471.

2. Book Chapters

Simmons, J. M. (2010). Sport facility management. In M. Nagel & R.S. Southall (Eds.). *Sport management: Theory and practice*. Dubuque, IA: Kendall Hunt Publishing Company.

Simmons, J. M. (in press). Washington Redskins. In L.E. Swayne (Ed.). *Encyclopedia of sport management and marketing*. Newbury Park, CA: Sage Publications.

3. Conference Proceedings

Simmons, J. M. (2009). Privacy expectations of student-athletes. *Proceedings of the 2009 Spring Research Conference*. Louisville, KY.

4. Technical Reports

Simmons, J. M., Greenwell, T. C., Thorn, D. F., Greenhalgh, G. P., & Hambrick, M. E. (2010). *Louisville Bats Consumer Demographics*. Louisville: KY. Louisville Bats.

Tokuyama, T., Greenwell, C., & **Simmons, J.** (2009). *MV Soccer Club Consumer Motivation Survey*. Louisville: KY. Mockingbird Valley Soccer Club.

Presentations

1. Academic Presentations

Hambrick, M. E., **Simmons, J. M.**, Greenhalgh, G. P., & Greenwell, T. C. (2010, June). Understanding athletes' use of Twitter: A content analysis of athlete tweets. Presented at the annual conference of the North American Society for Sport Management, Tampa, FL.

Lawrence, H., Cuneen, J., Baker, R., Gillentine, A., & **Simmons, J.** (2010, May). Space invaders "invade" higher education. Presented at the annual conference of the North American Society for Sport Management, Tampa, FL.

Simmons, J. M. (2010, March). Urine trouble: An analysis of student-athlete privacy expectations and drug testing in sport. Presented at the annual conference of the Sport and Recreation Law Association, Albuquerque, NM.

Moorman, A. M., Greenhalgh, G. P., Hambrick, M. E., & **Simmons, J. M.** (2010, March). "Run 'til somebody quits": An examination of procedural and governance repercussions following the death of a Kentucky high school football player. Presented at the annual conference of the Sport and Recreation Law Association, Albuquerque, NM.

Greenhalgh, G., **Simmons, J.**, Hambrick, M., Greenwell, T. C., Tubbs, T., & Short, K. (2009, October). Finding their niche: Predicting spectator support for non-mainstream sports. Presented at the annual conference of the Sport Marketing Association, Cleveland, OH.

Simmons, J. M. (2009, April). Privacy expectations of student-athletes. Presented at the annual Spring Research Conference, Louisville, KY.

Hambrick, M. E., **Simmons, J. M.**, Greenhalgh, G. P., & Brownlee, E. (2009, March). Grading the alcohol policies of professional sports leagues: A practical application of Dram Shop statutes. Presented at the annual conference of the Sport and Recreation Law Association, San Antonio, TX.

2. Guest Lectures

SPAD 390 Sport Governance. (2010, October 21). *Intercollegiate Athletics*. University of Louisville. Louisville, KY.

SPAD 703 Sport Consumer Research. (2010, September 6). *Fan Identification*. University of Louisville. Louisville, KY.

SPAD 381 Principles in Sport Administration. (2010, March 8). *Introduction to Sport Facility Management*. University of Louisville. Louisville, KY.

SPAD 381 Principles in Sport Administration. (2009, November 16 & 17 ; 2010, November 17). *Sport Communication*. University of Louisville. Louisville, KY.

SPAD 389/689 Legal Aspects of Sport. (2009, November 2; 2010, March 29). *High School Sports and the Fourth Amendment*. University of Louisville. Louisville, KY.

SPAD 389/689 Legal Aspects of Sport. (2009, January 21). *State Action and the Authority of Amateur Athletic Associations*. University of Louisville. Louisville, KY.

SPAD 384 Current Trends in Sport. (2008, November 10-13). *Nike*. University of Louisville. Louisville, KY.

SOC 420 Sociology of Sport. (2008, October 22 & 23). *Sport and Politics*. University of Louisville. Louisville, KY.

GRANT AND FUNDING ACTIVITY

Hambrick, M. E. & **Simmons, J. M.** (2010). Examining the effects of sport-family conflict and sport commitment on professional athletes in non-mainstream sports. Research grant funded by the University of Louisville College of Education in the amount of \$1200.00.

Simmons, J. M. (2010). Travel to Albuquerque, NM for the 2010 *Sport and Recreation Law Association Conference*. Funded by the University of Louisville College of Education and Human Development in the amount of \$300.00.

Simmons, J. M. (2009). Travel to San Antonio, TX for the 2009 *Sport and Recreation Law Association Conference*. Funded by the University of Louisville Graduate Student Council in the amount of \$300.00.

Simmons, J. M. (2008). Travel to Toronto, Ontario for the 2008 *North American Society for Sport Management Conference*. Funded by the University of Louisville Graduate Student Council in the amount of \$250.00.

SERVICE ACTIVITIES

Academic

COSMA Accreditation Preparation	University of Louisville SPAD program, 2010
Sport and Recreation Law Association	Student Representative, 2010-present
North American Society for Sport Management	Conference Committee, 2009-2010
Sport Management Digest Contributor	Journal of Sport Management, 2009-2010

Sport Industry

Statistician, Bellarmine University Sports Information, Owsley B. Frazier Stadium, Louisville, KY, March 2009-April 2010.

Statistician, University of Louisville Sports Information, UofL Lacrosse Stadium, Louisville, KY, April 2009.

Scorekeeper, AVP Crocs Tour Louisville, Waterfront Park, Louisville, KY, May 2008.

Hospitality, NCAA Division I Volleyball First and Second Round regional, Kentucky International Convention Center, Louisville, KY, November 2007.

Volunteer Coordinator, NCAA Division I Southeast Region Cross Country Championship, E.P. Tom Sawyer Park, Louisville, KY, October 2007.

Sports Information, BIG EAST Cross Country Championship, E.P. Tom Sawyer Park, Louisville, KY, October 2007.

Cable Runner, ESPN Television Field Crew, Papa John's Cardinal Stadium, Louisville, KY, November 2006.

Event Staff, Sommer Sports TriAmerica Triathlon, Louisville, KY, June 2006.

Camp Instructor, University of Louisville Summer High School Girls Basketball Camp, Louisville, KY, 2006-2007.

Assistant Head Coach Varsity Basketball, Sparks High School, Sparks, NV, 2005-2006.

Corporate Challenge Coordinator, VA Medical Center, Reno, NV, 2004-2005.

CONFERENCES ATTENDED

2010 North American Society for Sport Management Conference
2010 Sport and Recreation Law Association
2009 Sport Marketing Association Conference
2009 North American Society for Sport Management Conference
2009 Sport and Recreation Law Association Conference
2008 North American Society for Sport Management Conference
2008 NCAA Convention: Scholarly Colloquium on College Sports

PROFESSIONAL MEMBERSHIPS

North American Society for Sport Management (NASSM)
Sport Marketing Association (SMA)
Sport and Recreation Law Association (SRLA)