FACULTY OF MANAGEMENT

Department of Market Research and Services

**Gai Guerstein**

**The impact of football fans’ attitudes**

**on their sport market-related behaviours**

Doctoral dissertation

Dissertation Supervisor:

Dr hab. Sylwester Białowąs

Auxiliary Supervisor:

Dr Anna Rogala

**Poznań 2018**

**ACKNOWLEDGMENTS**

**TABLE OF CONTENTS**

List of Tables

Chapter

INTRODUCTION

1. THE BEHAVIOUR OF FOOTBALL FANS

The Consumer Purchase Process

The Measurability of Fans’ Attitude Constructs

Measuring Football Fans’ Attitudes

The Football Supporter Loyalty Factor

Economic Aspects of Violent Behaviour in Football

1. THE IMPORTANCE OF FANS’ CONSUMPTION FOR THE ECONOMICS OF FOOTBALL CLUBS

Background on the Israeli League and the Selected Clubs

The Basics of Football Economics

Influencers on the Audience Levels factor

The Sport Fan’s Money and Time-Spending factor

1. FANS’ ATTITUDE DETERMINANTS AND THEIR IMPACT ON CONSUMPTION

3.1. Research Design

3.2. Factors Shaping Attitude Formation

3.3. Aspects of Football Fans’ Time and Money Spending

3.4. The Impact of Attitude on Match Attendance

3.5. The Impact of Loyalty on Money Spending

3.6. Additional Factors Influencing Fans’ Attitudes

3.7. The Impact of Attitudes on Behaviour

1. SUMMARY

APPENDICES

REFERENCES

**List of Tables**

1.1. Comparison of the methodologies used in attitude research.

1.2. Comparison of the methodologies used in research on the affective construct.

1.3. Comparison of the methodologies used in research on the cognitive construct.

1.4. Comparison of the methodologies used in research on the behaviour construct.

1.5. Comparison of the methodologies used in research on the violence factor.

3.1. Comparison of fan division by teams in previous studies and in this study.

3.2. Comparison of the demographic profile of the fans in the previous and current study.

3.2.1. Pearson’s correlation between the three attitude constructs and age.

3.2.2. T-test for ways of becoming a fan (‘my dad / my brother was a team fan’) and the three attitude constructs.

3.2.3. T-test for ways of becoming a fan (‘through friends at school’) and the three attitude constructs.

3.2.4. T-test for ways of becoming a fan (‘I played for the team in my youth’) and the three attitude constructs.

3.3.1. Pearson’s correlation between the attitude constructs and money-spending habits.

3.3.2. Pearson’s correlation between the attitude constructs and time-spending habits.

3.3.3. Spearman's rank correlation coefficient between the attitude constructs and the different types of money-spending habits.

3.3.4. T-test for the attitude constructs and the motives that will cause the fan to stop attending the stadium.

3.4.1. Pearson’s correlation between the attitude constructs and attendance.

3.4.2. Spearman's rank correlation coefficient between the attitude constructs and ticket-buying habits.

3.4.3. T-test of the violence and attendance factors.

3.5.1. One-way analysis of the means of loyalty and money-spending habits.

3.5.2. Spearman's rank correlation coefficient between loyalty and ticket-buying habits.

3.5.3. Pearson’s correlation between the meaning of the team for the fan and the level of tickets bought.

3.5.4. Pearson’s correlation between the meaning of the team for the fan and the number of tickets bought.

3.5.5. Spearman's rank correlation coefficient between the loyalty of the fan and various types of spending.

3.5.6. Pearson’s correlation between the meaning of the team for the fan and the amount of money spent on tickets.

3.5.7. Pearson’s correlation between the meaning of the team for the fan and the amount of money spent on food and drinks at the stadium.

3.5.8. Pearson’s correlation between the meaning of the team for the fan and the amount of money spent on merchandise.

3.5.9. Pearson’s correlation between the meaning of the team for the fan and the amount of money spent on paid TV channels.

3.5.10. Pearson’s correlation between the meaning of the team for the fan and the amount of money spent on traveling to matches.

3.5.11. T-test for the years of fanhood and motives to stop attending matches.

3.5.12. Pearson’s correlation between the level of fanhood and motives to stop attending matches.

3.5.13. Connection between changes in levels of fanhood and motives to stop attending matches.

3.5.14. Connection between the definition of fanhood and motives to stop attending matches.

3.6.1. Correlation between ‘curses from the stands towards the coach or players of the opposing team’ as a definition of violence and the emotional connection to the club, the level of fanhood and the definition of fanhood by the fan.

3.6.2. Correlation between ‘participation in a fight between fan groups inside the stadium’ as a definition of violence and the emotional connection to the club, the level of fanhood and the definition of fanhood by the fan.

3.6.3. Correlation between ‘participation in a fight between fan groups outside the stadium’ as a definition of violence and the emotional connection to the club, the level of fanhood and the definition of fanhood by the fan.

3.6.4. Correlation between ‘throwing an object of a weight that might hurt somebody into the pitch’ as a definition of violence and the emotional connection to the club, the level of fanhood and the definition of fanhood by the fan.

3.6.5. Correlation between ‘lighting flares in the stands’ as a definition of violence and the emotional connection to the club, the level of fanhood and the definition of fanhood by the fan.

3.6.6. Correlation between ‘raising posters with content offending specific players or the opposing team’ as a definition of violence and the emotional connection to the club, the level of fanhood and the definition of fanhood by the fan.

3.6.7. Correlation between ‘vandalism at the stadium’ as a definition of violence and the emotional connection to the club, the level of fanhood and the definition of fanhood by the fan.

3.6.8. T-test for the connection between the affective construct and the types of violence experienced by the fan.

3.6.9. Connection between the level of fanhood and the types of violence experienced by the fan.

3.6.10. Connection between the definition of fanhood by the fan and the types of violence experienced by the fan.

Table 3.7.1. Loyalty level frequencies.

Table 3.7.2. Time spending level frequencies.

Table 3.7.3. Money spending level frequencies.

Table 3.7.4. Model summary of the regression model for loyalty.

Table 3.7.5. ANOVA of the regression model for loyalty.

Table 3.7.6. Coefficients of the regression model for loyalty.

Table 3.7.7. Model summary of the regression model for time spending.

Table 3.7.8. ANOVA of the regression model for time spending.

Table 3.7.9. Coefficients of the regression model for time spending.

Table 3.7.10. Model summary of the regression model for money spending.

Table 3.7.11. ANOVA of the regression model for money spending.

Table 3.7.12. Coefficients of the regression model for money spending.

**INTRODUCTION**

**Statement of the Research Problem**

Unlike in the conventional business world, the definition of football clubs' success is a relative term and the boundaries between a successful club and an unsuccessful one are unclear in many cases. Most clubs are driven mainly by athletic achievements and not by profit maximization to the shareholder and stakeholder's interests. It is assumed that usually these athletic achievements will themselves drive economic endurance and long-term success, which can be further harnessed for the improvement of athletic abilities and future successes (Fløtnes, 2011).

In football, similarly to other markets, one can refer to the fans of the clubs as customers. It is crucial for marketers in football to understand their customers, the fans. Part of that understanding is to know how the fans behave. To achieve that it is essential to study the fans’ attitude. But, because of the uniqueness of the market, these customers also have special characteristics. However, attitude constructs are built just like in consumer behaviour models, divided into behavioural, affective (emotional) and cognitive (knowledge) categories, and for each of them there are factors that influence the attitude (Znaniecki and Thomas, 1958).

Based on this, three research questions arise:

* What are the factors that have an impact on football fans’ attitudes?
* How do attitudes affect the forms and perception of economic dimensions on the following three levels:
  + loyalty in the emotional dimension as the lowest level,
  + time spending as engagement for the intermediate level, and
  + money spending on the highest, financial level?
* Which type of relation exists between the emotional connection to the club, the level of fanhood and the definition of fanhood by the fan and the attitude towards violence?

Significance of the Study

Because of the unique characteristics of the football market and its customers, it is necessary to completely understand the construct of the fans’ attitudes and the factors influencing it to be able to identify the clubs’ main clients ­– the fans (Neale, 1964). The customers, i.e., the fans, are driven by different motives than are the regular customers in other markets, as will be explained later on in this thesis.

To reach this understanding, this thesis will focus on Israeli football fans’ attitudes. Some key factors that affect the clubs’ economics will be examined through the understanding of the fans’ attitude construct. The three factors: audience levels, fan money and time spending, and supporters’ loyalty, will be a part of the study, along with demographic information. Another factor that influences the fans’ attitude and the clubs’ economics is violence in Israeli football, and as an important factor it will be measured as well. Violence is present in many parts of society and so is present in the life of the fans in some form and at some level. Just such as other societal factors, such as for example ethnic or religious views, violence probably also has an effect on the economic aspect of the fans’ attitude – hence the importance of studying this factor.

Most studies about attitude focus on cognitive and affective constructs (Gregory R. Maio and Haddock, 2010). Moreover, those two constructs are good predictors of attitudes, as shown by previous research (e.g. Chowdhury and Salam, 2017; Perugini, 2005; van Giesen *et al.*, 2015; Trendel and Werle, 2016; Breckler 1984; Breckler & Berman 1991; Breckler & Wiggins 1989, 1991). In addition ‘*there is abundant evidence that evaluative implications of cognitive, affective, and/or behavioural information are positively correlated,*’ (Maio & Haddock 2014, 37) so we can assume that the influence of behaviour on attitudes will be similar to that of cognitive and affective constructs. For the purposes of this study, more emphasis was placed on understanding cognitive and affective constructs (less attention is to be devoted to the behavioural one).

**Contribution to Science**

The contribution of this thesis will be in the consumer behaviour area in the context of marketing. This thesis will focus on consumer attitudes and the constructs that shape these attitudes.

There are papers claiming that the influence of attitudes on behaviour is weak to non-existent; moreover, some state that attitude cannot predict behaviour (Bainbridge Frymier and Nadler, 2017). That being said, there are researches that prove the existence of such an influence: Such is the case of Weinstein (1972) or Simonson & Maushak (1995). Studies such as Glasman & Albarracín (2006) also prove the existence of attitude’s influence on behaviour. They conducted quantitative research that showed that the more direct the experience with the attitude object, the stronger the prediction of behaviour was. But in this study the author investigated the intention of behaviour as part of one of the three constructs that are part of the attitude; for this reason, the relationship between attitude and behaviour was tested in the opposite direction, as the influence of the intention to behave on the attitude of the fan.

More specifically, the author plans to establish the influence of factors on football fans’ attitudes and the impact of fans’ attitudes on economic factors that affect the clubs’ economy directly. Special focus will be given to four factors: audience levels, fan money and time spending, supporters’ loyalty and violence. The audience levels factor affect the income of the club on every match day in two ways: the revenue from ticket sales and TV rights for the match sold to TV network. For the purposes of this study this factor will be measured as self-reported attendance using an online survey. The fan money and time spending factor will help understand the fans’ tendencies, priorities and spending habits. Such as the measurement of audiences, also the measurement of the fans’ spendings will be based on self-reported data and not on economic data from the clubs. Supporters’ loyalty is similar to the previous two factors but checks the effects of the attitude over a longer period of time; in addition it can check consistency when an attitude changes. And the violence factor refers to how different types and levels of violence affect fans’ attitudes. With the help of these factors the author proposes to set up a three-level hierarchy of the behaviour: first, loyalty in the emotional dimension as the lowest level; second, time-spending habits as engagement as the intermediate level; and third, money-spending habits as the highest, financial level. This part of the study represents the innovative aspect of the research; it uses an especially designed regression model and three hypotheses formulated to help compare the impact of attitudes on every level – H2, H2a and H3.

Understanding the studied connections that inform customers' attitudes is essential for marketers, even more so in a very complex market such as that of Israeli football clubs and fans. The results of this research will help shed some light on a field less covered, and hopefully help get a better understanding of the chain of reactions that can create a strong positive fan attitude, and consequently will lead to the results desired by the clubs.

**Specification of the Research Scope**

The subjective scope of the research is fans’ attitudes towards their favourite club and team. Two main types of attitudes were addressed: affective (feelings and emotions) and cognitive (beliefs and knowledge). The third type, i.e. behavioural attitudes (how a person behaves), was less covered; when examining fans’ habits and spending, these was approached more as an intention rather than the act itself. This approach taken by the author is based on the idea that attitude in most cases cannot predict behaviour; that being said, there are studies showing that a strong and favourable attitude should predict behaviour better than a weak or negative one (Park, Macinnis and Priester, 2006). The idea of this research was to get a better understanding of Israeli football fans’ attitudes, not necessarily their behaviour. The behaviour was approached only as one of the three constructs of the attitude. The sources used for writing this dissertation were literature from the field, including articles, books and studies with relevant data. From these sources the author gathered background information about consumer behaviour, the study of attitudes in general and attitude constructs in particular, as well as previous literature on the other factors used in this research such as attendance to sport events, sports fans’ habits, customer and fan loyalty and violence in sport. All this was done in addition to reviewing previous research in the field for the purpose of designing and executing this study itself.

The objective scope consists of Israeli football fans of one of the top five Israeli teams that participate in the top league (Ligat Ha-Al): Maccabi Tel-Aviv FC, Maccabi Haifa FC, Beitar Jerusalem FC, Hapoel Tel-Aviv FC and Ironi Kiryat Shmona FC. These 5 teams were chosen as they are the winners of at least one league championship on the last ten years. 1264 participants filled in questionnaires and their answers formed the basis for the research that informs this dissertation. The time frame in which the research was conducted was the season of 2015/16. The data were collected using questionnaires that were filled in by fans via the internet.

The research was conducted in Israel. One of the most important reasons for conducting the research in Israel was that little research on the subject has been carried out in the country. Because of the expansion of globalization and the transition of football club ownership to rich businessmen and entities, lots of teams have changed from representing their communities to acting as global economic forces (Coakley 1998; Giulianotti & Robertson 2004). This transition makes it more interesting to perform the research in Israel, where all clubs were originally one of the ways of uniting and representing the different communities in the country and now the majority of clubs are privately owned.

**Limitations of the research**

The survey was conducted during the last part of the 2015/16 season of the Israeli football league. For that reason developments that occurred at the end of the season and during the next season (2016/17) could not be included in this thesis. In the 2015/16 season there was another new champion (Hapoel Beer Sheva) that is not part of this study; in the 2016/17 season the same team led the league and is a favourite to become champion again. Also in the 2016/17 season, due to economic struggles Hapoel Tel Aviv almost had to go into a liquidation process, but at the end a group of investors bought the club.

The research and its conclusions are relevant only to the country of Israel due to the fact that the study was limited to the researcher’s home country. For that reason and the specific characteristics of the country and population, it is problematic to reach conclusions on other countries based on the results obtained. So the ideas, results and conclusions are limited to Israel’s territory.

The selection of the five teams that formed part of the research was carried out based on two criteria: first, that the team be an Israeli team; second, that the team won at least one domestic league championship in the last ten years. This limits the conclusions to the fans of more successful teams and ignores the less successful ones and those from lower leagues.

The sample was a non-random quota sample. In this type of sampling the population was first segmented into mutually exclusive subgroups, i.e., for this study, fans of a specific team. Then judgment was applied to select the subjects or units from each segment based on a specified proportion, in this case the number of fans per team. The technique used was to circulate the questionnaires as widely as possible, via the internet, and then choose the acceptable questionnaires until the quota for each team was met. For that reason not all fans were reached in the same way or at the same time.

The area of fans’ behaviour is complicated to examine as the best way to research behaviour is with observations of the behaviour itself. But due to the type of research conducted and other data needed for the study this was not possible and the behaviour was researched based on self-report answers by the fans.

**Presentation of the Research Hypotheses**

The first hypothesis tested the origins of the fanhood of a person or the attachment process as described by Funk & James (2006). In their article they research the connection of this process to the emotional reaction of the fan. This new research expands on this idea and tests the attachment process rather than just the affective construct. In other words, this study researched not only the emotional factors forming the attitude, but also the attitude of the fan as a whole, including not just the affective construct but also the cognitive and behavioural constructs. In addition, the author's aim was to understand what has more influence on fan attitude – the origin of fanhood or the demographic and socioeconomic factors. The hypothesis formulated for this purpose was:

H1 – The triggers to become a football fan affect the attitude of the fan more than demographic and socioeconomic factors do.

The results and conclusions from previous research studying a problem similar to the one presented in this hypothesis have shown that the development of fanhood of a sport team have several, essential features (Trail & James 2001; Wann 1995). Funk's & James' (2006) findings suggest that the features related to enhancing self-esteem, experiencing fond past memories, and following a favourite object, are necessary and sufficient for the development of allegiance. All of these studies claim that there are factors that must be present in the development of an attraction to a sport team. In this thesis, the author expands on the idea of the importance of several factors that create fanhood and compares the importance of the way of becoming a fan itself to that of demographic and socioeconomic factors, trying to verify which factor has more effect on the attitude of a fan.

The fact that in adulthood, connection to a team is influenced by its creation during infancy is presented in several studies, e.g., Bartholomew & Horowitz (1991) and Hazan et al. (1987). Others reach conclusions about the motives to be a fan, such as Gibson (2002), who presented results showing that such a connection to a team permits the fan to gain a feeling of identity and a sense of belongingness. These conclusions on the importance of motives to become a fan were the basis for the author to go forward and test the importance of the way of becoming a fan. Other results presented in another study showed more foundations for this, and show that a fan connects to a team because of the opportunity to escape from everyday life and the success of the team (Belk & Costa 1998; Wann & Branscombe 1995).

The other part of the hypothesis tests the importance of demographic and socioeconomic factors on the attitude of the fan. This importance is also shown in the results of Funk & James (2006), which lead to the conclusion that the formation of a connection based on social-structural differences related to gender, culture or other demographic characteristics is definitely justified. In addition, the process of attachment to a team and the fact that it has a strong influence on attitude is one of the conclusions of Funk & Pastore (2000); in this thesis the first hypothesis aims to confirm that conclusion.

The analysis and understanding of spending habits of is probably one of the most interesting issues for the marketing departments of a football club. For this reason researchers study the difference between the terms ‘consumer’ and ‘fan’ such as in Dixon's (2013) book. With the modernization of markets in general and the football market in particular, social media have become an important tool for marketers. This new communication channel permits not only to advertise and increase sales, but also to improve and strengthen the fans’ connection to the club. There is research such as that by Weaver (2011) or Hird (2010) that studies the influence of social media on fan time spending. Another study researched a more specific aspect of time spending and deals with the increase in time spent by the fan on online gaming (Kelly, Lewis and Mortimer, 2012). The present research aims to study the time and money-spending habits from a different perspective; it tests the connection of these time and money-spending factors to the attitude of the fan. For this purpose the following hypothesis was designed:

H2 – There is a connection between the attitude of the fan and his habits of spending time and money on team-related things.

When speaking of consumption in the football market, the aim of this study was to extend the ideas and analysis of the factors of time and money-spending habits of the fan. This extension will focus on the connection of these factors to the constructs forming the fan attitude. In addition some results aim to confirm the results and conclusions of Dixon (2013). In his article, Dixon claims that spectator football has always involved forms of spending, as this is one of the main issues in this study. Next some of his results and conclusions will be presented. First, the main motivation for becoming a fan relies on parents and peers that drive the individual to become the fan of a team. Moreover, he states that values, dispositions and practices of others are a strong influence on the modelling of the individual and lead to the reproduction of the habits of previous generations.

On this basis, the study by Dixon shows that ‘*perceived ‘authentic’ experiences of football fandom are becoming more dependent on the consumption of wider consumer experiences, which infiltrate, invade and eventually embody perceptions of match-day authenticity’* (Dixon 2013, 131).This means that football stadiums have become a place for fans to expect a consumer experience of additional products beyond the game itself. Thus, these habits of consumption that have become part of the fan experience deal with the feelings of anxiety caused by breaking the routine.

In other research conducted by Greenwell (2001) it is shown that ‘*customer satisfaction was an important predictor of profitability. Although spending and repeat intentions did not vary according to levels of customer satisfaction, the overall economic impact of the customer did*’ (Greenwell 2001, 124). In addition to the consumption of products that a fan spends money on, there are results that show that time-spending habits significantly depend on internet use. In Dixon’s study participants address the important role of the internet as a source of information or even as a primary source of social interactions between fans (Dixon, 2013).

When looking at the existing research concerning the attendance factor, or audience factor, as it is referred to in many articles, one can mainly find that the main issues addressed are types of involvement by the audience (Morley, 1980), levels of demand and how it connects to customer satisfaction and profitability (Borland & MacDonald 2003; Dietschy 2013a; Greenwell 2001), and the effect of the globalization of football from the attendance point of view (Giulianotti and Robertson, 2004). In this research the author tested attendance from a different angle; this research tests the connection of such attendance to the attitude factor. This is because of the purposes of this research that centres on the attitude of the fans, and the idea that attendance can have an influence on or connection to the attitude. This connection was tested with the following hypothesis:

H2a – A more positive attitude towards the team leads to higher match attendance.

Previous studies approach the research of attendance from a different angle. This was done with various factors. Borland & MacDonald (2003) used the following factors to test their influence on attendance: uncertainty of outcome, contest quality, quality of viewing, ticket price, transport costs and TV broadcasts. The conclusions reached based on the results of this study show that attendance is influenced by the uncertainty of outcome of a match (only between successive seasons or within a season). Second, a high contest quality is connected to higher attendance. The data proved that attendance is lower for a match between two teams in a lower division. Third, quality of viewing influences attendance; things such as stadiums facilities, weather and the time of the match affect the attendance level. Finally, it is stated that ticket prices influence attendance even though their influence differs across teams; transport costs have a relatively strong effect on attendance, and mixed evidence was found on the effect of TV broadcasts on attendance (Borland and MacDonald, 2003).

Other articles deal with attendance to sport events, such as the study by Greenwell (2001), which analysed spectators of a minor-league hockey team. The results present three factors that affect customer satisfaction at the stadium. First, they show that service experience including the core product, the physical facility, and service personnel are good predictors of customer satisfaction. Second, team identification, in other words, loyalty, influences the way customers perceive the physical facility and the core product; the results show that with a higher level of loyalty the opinion on the facilities and product is also higher. Another factor tested in this research was demographics. The conclusions from this were that ‘*older customers were likely to be less critical of the facility and the service personnel, and women were likely to be less critical of the core product*‘ (Greenwell 2001, 124). Even though the study focuses on customer satisfaction and not on attendance directly, if one assumes that customer satisfaction affects attendance, then these factors affect attitude indirectly.

There are many factors influencing attendance, such as the ones just presented, but there are more, such as violence that was proven to influence attendance. This factor was examined by Giulianotti & Robertson (2004) who proved that a rise in violence causes attendance to decrease. The aim of this study is to expand the research on factors that affect attendance with focus on the attitude of the fan and its influence on attendance.

In the previous hypothesis the connection of spending habits and attitude was tested. After that a more specific connection was researched. In this case the spending habit factor was tested against the loyalty factor. Loyalty has been approached by researchers from different angels in the past. Forms of loyalty were researched as a basis for understanding the term, such as in the articles by Neal (2000) or Biscaia et al. (2013). Some articles researched the connection between fan loyalty and attitudes (Funk & James 2001; Richardson & Dwyer 2003), and some articles had an approach more connected to marketing, such as the article by Brandes et al. (2013) that dealt with market potential using loyalty as one of the factors. Another example is an article that tested the connection between loyalty and satisfaction regarding a product (Tapp, 2004a). It is clear that there is an important place for the loyalty factor in marketing-oriented research; for this reason in this thesis the connection between fan loyalty and spending habits was tested with the next hypothesis:

H3 – The higher the level of fan loyalty to the club, more the fan will spend on team-related things.

After presenting a review of the conclusions from research on fans’ spending habits in the previous part, in this hypothesis this factor, fans’ spending habits, was compared to the loyalty factor. In the next part some conclusions from studies dealing with loyalty will be presented, and an explanation of the difference between loyalty and attitude will be made.

Customer loyalty is a main concern for marketers. The importance of creating client loyalty to a product is at most times critical for the success of a specific product or brand. Neal (2000) presents four types of loyalty in his article. Attitudinal loyalty refers to the instance when the customer is absolutely dedicated to the brand. Performance loyalty is created when the product provides an additional performance value that no other brand provides. Convenience loyalty is created in the situation in which it is convenient for the customer to buy the same brand as before. Last, lack-of-choice loyalty is simply, as the name says, when the client does not have a choice (Neal, 2000).

Probably the most relevant type of loyalty in the football market is attitudinal loyalty, in which regardless of the results or performance of the team the fan will remain loyal. In research of Richardson & Dwyer (2003), 70 per cent of the study participants always supported the same team and showed a very strong loyalty to their favourite team. Another conclusion was that the minority that do switch teams usually do that as children, and the duration of supporting the same team is 14 years in average. The reasons for this loyalty are explained as a social cost that will result from switching teams as this is socially disapproved (Richardson and Dwyer, 2003).

According to Neal's (2000) research, ‘*the behavioural definition of loyalty disregards motivation; it simply observes and measures the degree of a customer's repeat purchase of the same brands in a category*’ (Neal 2000, 7). This is a common way of measuring loyalty, but in the case of loyalty of a fan it may lack some reference to other factors that may influence fan loyalty as suggested by Tapp (2004b). That such loyalty is complex is one of the conclusions drawn in his article. According to the results, when measuring the loyalty factor it is important to include elements such as age, occupation, self-concept, attitude to the club/team and behaviour; those elements will help get a better understanding of supporter loyalty that is ‘*closer to concepts like self-image, community belonging, backing the underdog and bragging, than it is to product satisfaction, service delivery*’ (Tapp 2004b, 212).

When dealing with attitude and loyalty it is necessary to understand that even though they are similar factors and at times loyalty is considered a part of the attitude, when it is brought to the football market it changes in some ways. In any other part of the sports market, the customer will seek the product that provides him with the best value according to his preference structure, and most times the rationale is what drives the decision on what to buy (Neal, 2000). In contrast to that, football fans are, as described before, customers with a very strong sense of loyalty to their favourite team, which leads to the consumption of products related to the team regardless of the levels of success of the team. That being said, fans’ spending levels are connected to and affected by the level of success of the team; in successful times the consumption of team products rises and in low times in which the team is not performing as the fan expects the consumption decreases; but that is no indication that his loyalty decreases (Richardson and Dwyer, 2003). Probably that is the main difference between loyalty and attitude in the football market. In any other market when a customer is disappointed with the product, the attitude and loyalty to it will decrease and he will look for alternatives. When a football fan is disappointed with his favourite team, his attitude may change and this will affect his spending habits, but his levels of loyalty will remain steady. That is why in the football market it will be easier for marketers to influence the attitude of the fan than his loyalty. In practice it will be easier to affect and raise the attitude of the fan in favour of his spending more money. This is the main assumption to be proved in this hypothesis.

When talking about Israeli football and Israeli football fans, one of the issues that arise is the existence of violence. That is why the author decided to include violence as a factor in this research. In the literature there are articles that study the basis for violence in sports, whether it is the origins of the violence (Sorek, 2007) or the history of violence in sports (Elias 1971; 1976). Other articles took one step forward and their authors studied the forms of violence in sports (Bourdieu, 1980) or Fields et al. 2007). Another paper (Guilbert, 2004) tests not only forms of violence but also levels of violence in different sports. As can be seen, this factor has been researched from different angles and more than that, as shown by (Spaaij, 2014), there is not a single factor that influences violence. In fact, many factors were used and tested. In this research the author chose to study the influence on violence using three factors that are present in all of this thesis and can share a different and additional point of view on the subject. For this purpose the hypothesis used was:

H4 – Violence experienced or witnessed is influenced by the emotional connection to the club, the level of fanhood and the definition of fanhood by the fan.

The previous four hypotheses used factors that were more commonly used in the research of attitudes in general and sports fan attitudes in particular. The author used those factors to get a better understanding of which factors have a connection to football fans’ attitudes, and the economic influence they have on the fan. For the fifth hypothesis the author chose a less common factor used in the study of attitudes – the violence factor. This factor has previously been researched mainly in sociological studies.

Before dealing with violence specifically in sport, there were articles dealing with the influence of violence in general. Two articles analyse the impact of violence on community and individual health. The first by Morris (2007) reviews the consequences of violence; in the article eight types of consequences are divided into 4 groups. In the first group there is on the one hand mortality that includes homicide, suicide and war-related violence, and on the other hand morbidity that is non-fatal violence that includes the influence of such violence: 1. stress and psychological impacts, 2. loss of work, potential and quality of life, 3. physical injury not requiring medical care, 4. culturally ‘acceptable’ violent acts. The second group comprises psychological trauma and family disruption, the third loss of potential and diminished quality of life, and the fourth social disruption and economic loss.

Another article by Rosenberg and Mercy (1991) addresses the issue and focuses on assaultive violence that has an impact on the victims themselves, their families and all of society. This type of violence can cause anything from minor physical injury to devastating consequences for the victim’s life; it can lead to fear, anxiety, and a reduction in activities and movements. The implications of violence can lead the victims to become quite isolated, affect their job, home life, and changes in daily routine that affect their freedom and decreased quality of life. Moreover ‘*Interpersonal violence lowers the quality of life in society as a whole by contributing to days lost from work and by exacting financial expenditures for police and criminal justice intervention, social service intervention, and emergency room and trauma centre services’* (Rosenberg and Mercy, 1991, 39)*.*

There were papers reflecting in their results how violence in sports is seen and perceived. In most cases a specific type of violence that occurs in sport-related contexts (for example a brawl between fans) is seen as a legit and accepted behaviour, while the same type of violence in a non-sport atmosphere is unacceptable and even criminal (Fields, Collins and Comstock, 2007). Another study examines the difference between different sports regarding violence; the results of this research support the idea that if there is a presence of hard violence, other forms of less hard violence (such as verbal violence) are not noted even though they exist in football. In the same article by Guilbert (2004), the author suggests that ‘*instead of pretending that sports violence is restricted to a well-defined and organized area, competitive sport, another possible approach would consist in analysing the relation with other cultural areas such as education or the army*’ (Guilbert 2004, 53). In this thesis the author aims to expand this approach to check the relation that attitudes and other factors influencing the attitude have with violence (Guilbert, 2004).

An approach more similar to this hypothesis regarding the study of factors that influence violence is found in some articles that state as part of their conclusions that individual and social environmental factors have an impact on violence. Fields et al. (2007) found the existence of 5 types of factors: individual factors, interpersonal factors, institutional factors, community factors and social structure/policy factors. Spaaij (2014) supports Fields et al. (2007) in the idea that these 5 types of factors influence violence, and he expands on this in the results and conclusions claiming that these factors should be analysed together as no factor on its own can explain fan violence. Another conclusion was that the weight that each of these factors has on violence depends on the type of the violence itself (Spaaij, 2014). If these factors are the ones that need addressing, that means those factors have a direct connection to violence. In this hypothesis the idea is to confirm that assumption for three specific factors, namely the emotional connection to the club, the level of fanhood and the definition of fanhood by the fan.

Following this introduction in which the research was presented through the statement of the research problem, significance of the study, contribution to science, scope specification of the research, limitations of the research and presentation of the research hypotheses, the dissertation comprises four chapters in addition to appendices and references at the end. The four chapters containing the main parts of this thesis will present the literature review on football fans’ behaviour in the first chapter, including an introduction to consumer behaviour science, the stages of the consumer purchase process, a review of the attitudes concept in science, a description of football fans’ attitudes, the football supporter loyalty factor, the violence factor in football and the measurability of the fans’ attitude constructs. The second chapter presents the football market through the basics of football economics, the factors used in the research including the influencers on the audience levels factor and the sport fans’ money and time-spending factor, and background on the Israeli league and the selected clubs. The results and conclusions of the research will be presented in chapter three, in the first part of which a description of the population and sample, a presentation of the measurement method and a review of the procedures used will be explained. In the second part of the chapter the results and conclusions for each of the five hypothesis will be presented. The discussion will be carried out in the fourth chapter including summarising points and suggestions for future studies.

**Chapter 1**

**THE BEHAVIOUR OF FOOTBALL FANS**

The present study explores the constructs that inform football fan attitudes, and the relationships between those attitudes and audience levels, sport fan money and time-spending habits, supporter loyalty and violence. The purpose of this chapter is to present a review of the literature on the background of football fan attitudes. This chapter begins with a review of previous studies that analyse and explain consumer behaviour. It starts by presenting different approaches in consumer behaviour research, explaining the process that the consumer goes through when buying a product or service. Next, a literature review is presented concerning attitudes in general and football fan attitudes constructs in particular.

**The Consumer Purchase Process**

**Introduction to Consumer Behaviour Science**

Consumer behaviour is a sub-area of marketing. It is crucial for marketers to understand their clients and their behaviour in order to know how they can advertise, promote and sell a product efficiently. To understand the football fan attitude construct it is necessary to first see the fan as a consumer. Therefore in this subchapter approaches to consumer behaviour are reviewed, including approaches in consumer behaviour and consumer motivation research. Then the process that the consumer goes through during a purchase is presented, including consumer information search, the formation of attitudes and evaluation of alternatives, consumer persuasion, the buying decision, post-purchase reactions and consumer culture. But first a review of how the literature defines consumer behaviour is presented.

In the literature there is often a distinction between the definitions of the term ‘consumers’ and ‘customers’. ‘*The term ‘customer’ it typically used to refer to someone who regularly purchases from a particular store or company. The term ‘consumer’ more generally refers to anyone engaging in any of the activities used in our definition of consumer behaviour. Therefore, a customer is defined in terms of a specific firm while a consumer is not*’ (Bello 2008, 2). In other words, ‘*consumers use products while customers buy them. A consumer may also be a customer and a customer can also be a consumer, but situations occur where this is not the case*‘ (Joseph 2015, 1). For the purpose of this paper, no clear distinction will be made and both terms will be used interchangeably, both referring to the clients – more specifically, to the fans of a football club.

Consumer behaviour includes mental activity, emotional and physical factors, and the motives that drive people during the selection, purchase, usage, and disposal of products and services that satisfy their needs and desires (Burridge and Connell, 1983). With this understanding of consumer behaviour, the marketer can begin designing a product strategy. Three main steps should be taken: market segmentation, product positioning, and marketing mix. To carry out these steps successfully, it is necessary to completely understand the various elements of consumer behaviour.

In scientific literature one can distinguish different approaches to consumer behaviour, out of which the most important ones are the economic approach, the black box theory or stimulus-response approach, the psychoanalytic theory of personality, the sociological approach and the humanistic approach. Economists were the first to develop comprehensive models to describe consumer behaviour. The study of behaviour from an economic point of view is aimed at two main objectives. The micro perspective is the analysis and description of the considerations and decisions by which the various units operate in satisfying private and social needs. The macro perspective is an investigation of trends and economic activity as a whole (Bray, 2008). In the black box theory or stimulus-response approach, consumer behaviour is conceptualised as a set of responses to physical stimuli. This model makes a direct link between firm-controlled stimuli and responses requested from the consumer. The goal is to find empirical relationships between different types of marketing and environmental stimuli and consumer reactions. The model posits that different marketing stimuli are processed in the customer black box (the customer’s mind) and at the end a response is generated (Jeddi *et al.*, 2013). On the other hand, the psychoanalytic theory of personality by Freud claims that human behaviour is governed in part by impulses and desires that the individual is not aware of. The difficulty with this method is that the findings are ambiguous and can be interpreted in various ways by the investigator (Kassarjian, 1971). Scientists using the sociological approach examine the social context of human behaviour, the impact of factors such as socialization, social communication, social stratification, norms and values on behaviour and patterns of the individual consumer (Zielinski and Robertson, 1982). The humanistic approach deals with the idea that never mind how much the individual expands his knowledge in various fields, he will never have a full understanding of the human as a subject, as a single whole that gives meaning to his world (Bray, 2008).

There is a range of approaches in consumer behaviour research. The research method used for studying consumer behaviour will depend on the knowledge and understandings the researcher is looking for. Basically there are two approaches: the positivist approach and the interpretive approach. The positivist approach is based on positive research that deals with an observable phenomenon. Its purpose is to gather data and formulate general rules that will allow to explain the connection between phenomena and to predict their occurrence. Two key features characterizing this approach are: objectivity, which is present when there is no dependence of the investigation process and its conclusions on accidental circumstances; and empiricism, which in this case means the study should be based on data obtained via experiments or observations (Marsden and Littler, 1999). On the other hand, the interpretive approach seeks to understand human behaviour from the perspective of inherent meaning. The clearest characterization of a person is striving to give meaning to his life and his relationship with the environment. The purpose of this study is to understand the relationship between phenomena from the inside by exposing their common meaning (Holbrook and O’Shaughnessy, 1988).

Beside the approaches in consumer behaviour research there are approaches in the research of consumer motivation. In the literature it is possible to detect two main approaches to the research of consumer motivation: the psychoanalytic approach and the humanistic approach. The psychoanalytic approach by Freud claims that man is not a rational creature, and is driven by impulses. Human personality consists of three main systems: universal innate needs (id), sexual urges (libido) and the death urge. When tension escalates, probably due to stimulation, the human seeks to unload the tension to return to a calm and cosy state ­– this is the pleasure principle. The ego is characterized by a conscious and rational thought processes. Its efficiency is tested using the reality principle. Its main task is to mediate between the id to the super ego. The super ego is the human conscience; it represents the social and moral norms embedded in the psyche during the education process. In situations of conflict the self operates four defence mechanisms: (1) denial, i.e., removal to the unconscious; (2) displacement, i.e., redirecting its aggression and sex drive from an object with which they cannot be fulfilled to an alternative one; (3) projection, i.e., denial of undesirable characteristics of the person and attribution of those characteristics to others; (4) refinement, i.e., redirecting anti-social urges into a helpful channel (Kassarjian, 1971). In contrast to the first approach, the humanistic approach by Maslow (1963) claims that man is by nature endowed not only with basic vital needs, but also with higher needs, which is what sets him apart from animals. Maslow adopts a holistic approach that sees the individual as a whole of needs emerging from other needs. Maslow's hierarchy of needs organizes the needs along a developmental scale. In order to fulfil a certain need one must first fulfil all the steps before it on the scale (physiological needs, the need for security, the need to belong, the need for appreciation and the need for self-fulfilment). In the field of consumer behaviour the main application of the model is market segmentation and product positioning. The model instructs the marketer to approach customers with most common level of needs.

After understanding the different approaches to consumer behaviour research, in order to better understand what influences the consumer, the process that a consumer goes through in a purchase will be reviewed next.

**The Stages of the Consumer Purchase Process**

When a consumer is conducting a purchase he goes through a process comprising 5 stages: information search about the product, formation of attitudes and evaluation of alternatives, consumer persuasion, buying decision and post-purchase reactions. Depending on the importance and signification of the purchase to the consumer the duration of each stage can be shorter or longer. Finally, consumer culture is addressed as it is an important factor that affects the purchase process.

The first step a consumer goes through at the beginning of a purchase is information search. The process begins with internal search, meaning scanning the internal memory with the purpose of extracting information that may help solve the problem of the consumer. It is customary to distinguish between knowledge regarding ‘what’ and knowledge regarding ‘how’. Knowledge is represented in memory through familiarity, emotions, feelings and skills. Then external search is implemented. During all the time the consumer is searching for information, there is the influence of different types of risk perception.

There are ways to create information; creative memory and schemes are two of them. In creative memory the main assumption is that our memory not only absorbs information but generates it, which happens through inferences, logical or pragmatic. Logical inference is necessarily derived from the content of the message or included in the basic message as an explicit propositions. On the other hand, pragmatic inference is all inference that is not logical. These are subjective association relations such as emotional biases and prejudices; they may be true but they are not necessarily derived from the contents of the message. Another way to create information are schemes. The existence of schemes in memory allows to filter and process information efficiently. Sometimes the schemes are not suitable for a product and then the mind will associate it with features that do not belong to the product. External search comes into play in addition to internal search and is an effort aimed at collecting environmental information for the purpose of a pending buying decision. The search is characterised by the search quantity (number of sources of information), the direction of the search (search content ­– stores, brands) and search order (from brand to store or from store to brand).

Another element influencing information search is risk perception. Buying risk as perceived by consumers is not necessarily real risk. There are seven different types of risk: economic, safety, time, social, psychological, loss of opportunities and system risks. Economic risk refers to the possibility that the product price will be higher than its actual value. Safety risk refers to the possibility that the product will cause physical damage. Time risk refers to the possibility that the product will take up valuable time. Social risk refers to the possibility that the product will cause embarrassment. Psychological risk refers to the possibility that the results of the decision will harm the consumer’s self-image. Loss of opportunities refers to the possibility that the purchase of one product will lead to missing the chance to buy another product. And system risk refers to the possibility that one purchase decision will complicate further purchases for the consumer (Murray, 1991).

After this first step the consumer goes through a process of formation of attitudes and evaluation of alternatives. In this process of buying the consumer passes through two stages as part of his behaviour. The formation of attitudes that consist of the behaviourist approach to learning including classical conditioning or the stimulus-response model, operant conditioning, social learning and cognitive learning, and the stage of the evaluation of alternatives.

The behaviourist approach to learning has some different forms. Classical conditioning or the stimulus-response model shows that behaviour can be explained using reflexes operated by external stimuli (Gorn, 1982). Operant conditioning is a learning theory that analyses behaviour in terms of cause and effect. The organism’s adaptation to its environment is done through repetition of behaviour that leads to positive results and avoiding behaviour which leads to negative results. Attitude formation is a process of trial and error and can be affected by different types of reinforcements: positive, negative, strengthening the product and constant reinforcement (Skinner, 1938). Positive reinforcement is when a reaction is triggered by a stimulus, and the likelihood of recurrence of this reaction increases under similar conditions. Negative reinforcement occurs when following the cancellation of stimulation caused by the operator, a reaction increases the probability of a relapse reaction. Strengthening the product means strengthening regarding the characteristics of the product itself, strengthening the promotion, which is a reinforcement external to the product. Last, constant reinforcement is part of every transaction, strengthening alternately according to a fixed or random plan.

Different from the behaviourist approach, the social learning theory is a form of mediated learning in which the human being is considered a social creature that absorbs his rich heritage, cultural surroundings and different behaviour patterns. The individual acquires them primarily in the process of socialization and the main means to that are watching and imitating. Mediated learning in marketing is used to develop new behaviours that are not included in the existing consumer repertoire (Bandura, 1971). On the other hand, cognitive learning emphasizes the mental processes that explain the link between stimulation and reaction (Tennyson and Rasch, 1988).

At the stage at which the consumer evaluates alternatives five main approaches can be found: the expectation value model, the shared estimate, the comparison of alternatives that are not comparable, the competition model and selected evaluation criteria. According to the expectation value model, the overall attitude towards a given object is based on the assessment of its properties; more specifically, it focuses on the relationship between the overall attitude towards the product and the beliefs about its properties and the assessments of these attributes. The belief indicates the extent to which the consumer is convinced that a product has a given feature, and the assessment is measured on a one-dimensional scale ranging from ‘good’ to ‘bad’ (Atkinson, 1957). The shared estimate is a method that comes out of an overall assessment of the alternatives, so that it breaks down each alternative into its constituents and sets the benefits of each element (Kardes, Cronley and Cline, 2010). When the alternatives are not comparable, the consumer uses this method of comparison of alternatives. Alternatives are not comparable when the alternatives are judged according to different criteria. To solve this it is necessary to go up a level of features from a concrete level to a more general and abstract level. A concrete attribute is used for comparison between different brands of the same product, and a general attribute is an abstract feature based on common denominators (Bettman and Sujan, 1987). The competition model by Kotler et al. (1989) warns firms about the on-going competition with brands in the same category and the lack of utilization of the entirety of market expansion opportunities. The real challenge for the firm is to expand the initial demand for the product itself by changing the consumer’s order of preference. When the consumer wants to evaluate a product, he selects the criteria according to which to perform the evaluation. In this process two standards are checked – the internal one and the external one (Lantos, 2015). Internal standards refer to the characteristics that define the product and changing them means changing the nature of the product. This is why internal standards are unique to the product. External standards are not part of the definition of the product; they are general and can be included in any product, and play a central role in all selection processes as well. The price, the brand, the country of production and the name of the store are all examples of external standards.

There are some factors that affect the attitude-behaviour relationship and influence the transition from an attitude to consumers’ behaviour, their level of involvement, situational constraints and coherent attitude (Montazeri *et al.*, 2013). High level of involvement refers to a situation when the level of engagement is high and the customer seeks a more well-founded attitude that will guide his actions. Situational constraints refer to the fact that sometimes purchase circumstances require behaviour that is contradictory to the attitude (for example social pressure). And coherent attitude refers to the situation when the more solid the attitude is, the better it will predict behaviour.

Another model dealing with behaviour prediction is the prudent action model. In this model the prediction of behaviour is carried out using several factors: behavioural beliefs, subjective norms and the intention to behave. Behavioural beliefs are the assessment of the expected results of a behaviour. Subjective norms represent the individual’s feeling about the social pressure on him to perform or not perform the behaviour. And intention to behave is an intention containing an element of motivation; the intention reflects the willingness to put the behaviour into practice and is determined by the attitude of the consumer and the subjective norm. This model offers us a variety of ways to change the behaviour in situations where the consumer attributes importance to the purchase and its consequences; this can be achieved through manufacturer actions, actions directed at the competitors or actions directed at the consumer (Ajzen and Fishbein, 1980).

In the next phase, after the consumer has done his search, formed his attitudes and evaluated the alternatives, he enters the stage of consumer persuasion carried out by the seller. Persuasion processes are the processes the customer goes through from the moment he is exposed to a commercial message. Pleasing, identification and internalization are three processes that are essentially different from each other, but many times it is difficult to distinguish between them because they may work together. These are the three processes as presented by Perloff (2003). Pleasing is a process in which the individual agrees to accept the recommendations or demands of the influence agent hoping to achieve a desired response. The agent's power stems from his ability to give positive rewards or punishments for a desired action. Identification, on the other hand, is a process in which the individual adopts the attitudes and behaviours of an influence agent based on a desire to be like him. In this case the agent's power stems from the attraction he provokes. This identification helps a person to define his identity and to achieve a sense of belonging to a social group that he desires. Finally there is the internalization process that is different from the two previous ones; it does not include the involvement of an influence agent and is based on the human desire to be right. The individual adopts the position because it fits his perception of reality or looks right according to his values system.

After understanding the persuasion process, the next thing to be aware of is the message source. This source can be a personality (a celebrity), a firm, a store, and even a fictional spokesman. The identity of the marketing source is not always clear; sometimes it is the advertiser, a publicist, or a subject. Also, the source is not revealed to us in person but in the form of the persona vested in him by virtue of his position. Some types of sources are the expert, the celebrities, the typical consumer, and the one with charm (Wilson and Sherrell, 1993). The expert is known to have a broad education, extensive experience or special talent; this is why he provokes a feeling of trust mainly in subjects related to his areas of expertise. Celebrities’ reputation is generated by the position they occupy in public life and society. The power of the celebrities is to attract attention and the consumer would like to identify with them. The typical consumer is ‘one of us’, his power of persuasion lies precisely in the recognition of his similarity and the sense of closeness that he provokes in the customer. And last, the ones with charm, such as beautiful people, have influencing power. Our belief is that the beautiful are right. For example on the subject of sexual temptation, physical charm that is directly related to the product can play an important role in convincing, but when it is not connected with its usage, a small or even negative effect can be generated.

The selection and use of one source or another to transmit the message depends on the marketing purposes. These can be (Wilson and Sherrell, 1993): arousal, attention to content, understanding the message, feelings of sympathy, remembering or purchase intent. Arousal as a purpose for the marketer means to expose the public to the message; usually this is done by using a celebrity figure. Attention to content can be achieved using a high-reliability source, since people tend to pay increased attention to a recognized authority. Understanding the message can be achieved by using a specialist, since the goal is to teach the public about the product and what it is. Feelings of sympathy can be generated by a typical consumer or a celebrity capable of inspiring solidarity. Remembering is achieved by an attractive source that generates interest in the advertisement but does not distract like a personal charmer. And purchase intent means speeding up the process of buying and creating immediate intentions; this can be achieved using a source with power in terms of the ability to reward or punish.

The selection of the message source and purpose influences the way the marketer delivers the message to the consumer to convince him of what the marketer is trying to persuade him of. The three ways are appealing to the mind, appealing to the emotions or depending on the receiver’s characteristics. Appealing to the mind is used when the message itself is not convincing by its own power, but from the arguments and thoughts it raises in the receiver of the message. Methods of appealing to the mind are the one-sided message, the two-sided message and the comparative message (Yoon *et al.*, 2005). A one-sided message shows only the benefits of the product; this is used when there is a positive attitude towards the product. A two-sided message presents the advantages and the disadvantages of the product; in doing so, the marketer enhances the credibility of the source that is perceived as objective and honest. And a comparative message draws a comparison between the advertiser's brand and competing brands in terms of several selected characteristics, usually highlighting the advantage of the former. The comparative message is more interesting than the regular message, but it is less reliable and raises more counterarguments.

In a different way appealing to the emotions has the advantages of a presentation of experiential aesthetic benefit and creating an emotional response to the advertisement that leads to an emotional attitude transferred from the advertising to the brand, and the consumer perceives these emotions as one of the brand features. Usually the positive emotions the advertiser is seeking to generate are: love, excitement, humour, sex and hope. Some negative emotions are also used in social marketing, guilt being the main appeal alongside fear (Lukic, 2009). Last, we can see that the receiver’s characteristics have an important impact on the design and planning of the advertisement and message; two of these characteristics are ability and character tendency. Ability is the result of a combination of experience, knowledge and so on. Ability affects the type of preferred information. For example the expert will prefer an informative message and the layman will prefer general estimates. They also differ in their degree of reliance on the source. Character tendency refers to people governed by self-direction vs. people who redirect their behaviour according to external circumstances. In order to keep up the appearances, they change their behaviour depending on social circumstances. In contrast, low self-direction persons are guided by internal factors such as values, attitudes and emotions (Larson, 2009).

At this step the buying decision is taken; this takes place through the consumer having a system of alternatives to reach a buying decision. The purchase itself is a task of choosing and not of rating; that is why at the moment of buying one must choose only one alternative. From this one can understand that buying involves waiving other options and is also determined by sudden situational factors. Three main methods that marketers use to influence the consumer are incentives, price perception and prospect. Incentives to the consumer are a series of means whose role it is to speed up and/or increase purchases of a product, service or store visit. Those incentives can take the form of sales, discount coupons, refunds, gifts, prizes, samples, trial periods, loyalty rewards or old-for-new trades (Tanner and Raymond, 2012). The price perception assumption is a situation when the consumer consolidates his perception system of the price, while the reference price or level of matching are used for assessing market prices. For example when the price offered is higher than the reference the consumer will avoid the acquisition and vice versa (Lichtenstein, Ridgway and Netemeyer, 1993). And the prospect method claims that selection behaviour is influenced by the selection frame, the evaluation of the viability of the transaction and a person’s willingness to carry it out, which vary according to the method of presentation of the result as a profit or a loss (Buisson, 2013).

After the purchase the consumer goes through a stage in which he reacts to the purchase; this is referred to as post-purchase reactions. Some of the reactions that can be expected from the customer after he consolidates the purchase can be purchase dissonance, product usage, expectation proved false, fairness, complaints and loyalty. Purchase dissonance is a situation experienced by the consumer immediately after purchase, particularly when the decision involves investments and risks. In this situation the consumer is tormented by doubt generated by cognitive dissonance. This theory belongs to the consistency theory which assumes that man seeks correlation between his conscious system components. When the balance is disturbed, the person feels a psychological discomfort and tries to reduce the dissonance and avoid information and situations that can increase it. This can be done through rationalisation in ways that convince the person that the decision reached was justified (Mohammed, 2007). Another reaction is related to product usage after the purchase; it refers to usage frequency, amount of consumption and consumption opportunities. With respect to frequency of consumption the manufacturer’s aim is to ensure continuous and trouble-free activity, and increase the frequency of consumption. On the other hand, the amount of consumption can be controlled and manipulated by the reseller through incentives, implanting new habits and preventing overuse of the product. And the producer can assist in finding new opportunities for using the product that will lead to an increase in consumption (Oliver and Bearden, 1985). The consumer has some expectations regarding the product and sometimes these expectations are not met. This situation describes satisfaction as a result of a comparison conducted by the consumer between what he expected from the purchase and what he actually derived from it. The expectation can involve norms, aspirations and assumptions; the consumer arrives at the purchase with certain expectations about the level of performance of the product and these serve as a comparison level, or as an internal benchmark for evaluating product performance (Westbrook and Reilly, 1983). The reaction of fairness refers to the purchase as a trade in which at least two sides participate – the buyer and the seller. In this model consumer satisfaction is affected not only by the internal refutation process, but also by the interaction between trade partners. The theory is that people compare the ratio of output and input on their side to the output and input of the transaction partner; if their perception of the ratio tends to their disadvantage, they feel exploited and their satisfaction declines (Daskalopoulou, 2008). Consumer complaints are another reaction that can manifest as two kinds of actions: as a private action through abandonment of the product or brand, confiscating the seller, or in a more drastic way even in the form of accusation or defamation of the product in the firm surroundings or testimonies against the company and warnings about the seller. The other way is at an institutional level; this can be done by contacting the company in an attempt to return the product, replace it or get compensation, filing a complaint with the manufacturer or the store, filing a complaint with different consumer groups and even filing a lawsuit (Gilly and Gelb, 1982). And last, consumer loyalty is another type of reaction. For loyalty to be formed, two conditions must be fulfilled together – high involvement and buyback (Olsen, 2007).

Until now the author has analysed the internal process a consumer passes through when performing a purchase and what affects him. But to complete the image it is necessary to address consumer culture, which can be considered an external factor affecting the consumer. Consumer culture draws its values and symbols from the general culture. In the process of the emergence of consumer culture, the role of advertising is to bring values and symbols together with the products and to create a connection between benefits and symbolic meanings and the product. The product is the focus of consumer implications. When speaking of culture two main aspects are taken in consideration, the culture itself and its values. Culture is a human creation, a system of symbols shared by all members of a society, and it determines the values and norms of proper behaviour. Each society has its own culture and it solves the fundamental questions of human existence. Culture does not come to man by birth, it is learnt in the process of socialisation. Acculturation is the acquisition of the culture of the society in which the individual was born and raised, and re-acculturation is the acquisition of a new culture (Yakup, Mucahit and Reyhan, 2011). On the other hand, values are defined as a general belief that directs behaviour in different situations and towards different objects. Values are used as a benchmark for judging, preference and selection; understanding the consumer’s values is important for understanding the product market, since the values are what directs the consumer to which goals to aspire and the methods of action ought to be taken accordingly (Richins and Dawson, 1992).

The review of the literature concerning the consumer purchase process sets the theoretical basis for understanding customer behaviour. The author proposes in his research an alternative way of behaviour analysis, in which the hierarchy of behaviour will be divided into three levels: the lowest is the emotional dimension level represented by the loyalty factor; the intermediate level is engagement reflected by time-spending habits; and the highest is the financial level shown through the money-spending habit factor.

**Measurability of Fans’ Attitude Constructs**

In this subchapter, a review of methods used in previous studies for measuring the three constructs of attitude is presented. In addition after the review of attitude as a general concept, and the emotional, cognitive and behavioural constructs, a review of the methodology used for measuring the violence factor is presented. Before reviewing the constructs that form the attitude, it is necessary to understand that some researchers study sports fans attitude and measure that attitude as a whole, and do not separate it into constructs. This approach is seen in the literature from different angles. Next, three studies are presented.

When LaPiere (1934) performed one of the first studies concerning attitudes, he measured the attitude towards Chinese immigrants with a one-question survey that was the second part of the research; after that, in the first part, he performed an observation study. As this is one of the first studies dealing with attitudes, this is primary research that used a basic method that was, on the one hand, probably easy to implement, but on the other hand had limitations (e.g. the fact that it studies a very specific form of attitude concerning the acceptance of specific immigrants in a specific society). The research deals with a specific population, Chinese immigrants. This is similar to the choice made for this thesis, in which a specific population was chosen in the form of Israeli football fans.

Sumida et al. (2014) present a study of sports fans’ attitudes for which the basis of measurement was the team loyalty factor. The data consisted of 2,068 questionnaires filled out by fans of five teams from a Japanese professional soccer league. The survey was conducted before the start of a match, with a fan intercept technique. The questionnaire asked about loyalty, attitudes, and intention to re-attend. Team loyalty was checked with 3 items on a 7-point Likert scale: ‘I am a loyal fan of this team’, ‘I want to tell others that I am a fan of this team’, ‘I always support this team, regardless of wins and losses’. Attitudes towards spectating behaviour were measured on a 4 dimensional semantic differential scale (boring-exciting, dull-thrilling, uninteresting-interesting, and pleasant-unpleasant), on a 7-point Likert scale with only one item: ‘To me, coming to this stadium and watching a game is […]’. And finally, intention to re-attend was checked on a 7-point Likert scale with one item: ‘Do you want to watch another game of this team at this stadium?’. In total the instrument consisted of 8 items. The downside of this research is that the attitude of the fan was measured by a single factor, in this case loyalty. From a wider perspective one can claim that using just one factor is not enough to fully represent the attitude, as there are other factors that influence it. On the positive side, it is clear that the loyalty factor was thoroughly covered from different angles, and the sample is large. These two positive points were taken into consideration while designing the research for this thesis, as well as the idea of measuring fan attitude using several factors. In this article one can see a more specific approach than that in the research by LaPiere. The research on attitudes was carried out with the help of a specific factor, in this case loyalty, instead of a more general approach referring to the attitude as the factor. In addition, the number of items was larger than in the previous study but still smaller than in the next study presented. From this article the author has taken the idea of using loyalty as one of the factors that were part of the attitude measurement for this thesis.

Following the previous two articles that researched attitudes in a wide form, a more extensive measurement was carried out by Greenwell (2001) for a paper dealing with levels of demand for sport. The attitude in this case was based on attendance and audience factors. The researchers randomly collected 218 usable questionnaires in two different professional minor league hockey games, with a self-report method. They checked for five factors: perceptions of the core product, service personnel, customer satisfaction, team identification, and physical facility. Perceptions of the core product were measured using 7 items: the team’s overall quality, win/loss record, place in the standings, team history, number of star players on the team, quality of the opposing team and number of star players on the opposing team. Service personnel was measured using 4 items in a scale measuring staff quality (adapted to ticket sellers, concessionaires, merchandisers, ushers and customer representatives). Customer satisfaction used 3 items. Team identification was measured with 4 items regarding cognitive elements of team identification. And physical facility was measured with 26 items such as stadium access, facility aesthetics, scoreboard quality, seating comfort and layout accessibility. All was measured on a 7-point Likert scale, and in total 44 items were used. Two important aspects of Greenwell’s research methods were implemented in the current study even though Greenwell’s study covered a relatively small sample. The first one is the self-report method and the second is the randomness of the participants, as these aspects are widely used in attitude research. In addition this article studies attitudes as do the previous two articles presented, but with a different measurement base. This one uses a wider variety of factors and a larger number of items. The number of items used in this author’s research represents a balanced selection from among them, so the participants filled in all the questionnaire and the data collected were reliable.

**Table 1.1. Comparison of the methodologies used in attitude research.**

|  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
| **Author (year)** | **Topic** | **Construct** | **Method** | **Questionnaire type** | **Factors** | **Number of items** |
| (LaPiere, 1934) | Attitudes toward Chinese immigrants | Attitude | Qualitative | Observation  Questionnaire | Acceptance | 1 |
| Sumida et al. (2014) | Team loyalty and attitude towards spectating behaviour | Attitude | Quantitative | Questionnaire | Loyalty  Attitudes towards spectating behaviour  Intention to re-attend | 8 |
| (T. Greenwell, 2001) | The influence of spectator sports facilities on customer satisfaction and profitability | Attitude | Quantitative | Questionnaire | Perceptions of the core product  Physical facility  Service personnel  Customer satisfaction  Team identification | 44 |

Source: own compilation

As explained above, usually when researchers study attitudes many of them separate them into three constructs: affective, cognitive and behavioural. It is possible to see that every construct can be measured by different factors, and sometimes those factors are able to measure more than one construct and overlap. But also when attitude is measured as a whole, and is not separated into the three constructs, it is possible to find different approaches. As can be seen in table 1.1, the amount of items they use varies significantly, as well as the number of factors used. Although the attitude is the used as a basis, it is clear that it can be used to research different topics, such as loyalty, customers’ satisfaction or attitude towards a specific group such as Chinese immigrants.

Next, some previous studies that use different factors as a basis for the measurement for each construct will be reviewed. The first construct, the affective construct sometimes referred to as emotional, can be measured in a qualitative manner such as in Eisler's (1997) research, where in-depth interviews were used to study levels of emotional pain endured by fans when their favourite team loses (see table 1.2).

He focused on three factors: mood swings, the origins of pain and reactions to outcomes. Despite the fact that in-depth interviews as part of a qualitative method probably provide more insights and permit the researcher to reach a deeper, more focussed and precise understanding around a specific topic, in this case fans’ emotional pain, it is not suitable for all studies. As this dissertation deals with more than one or two factors, the author chose to conduct quantitative research permitting him to get more data from a larger population; this was done in other studies that research the affective aspect of sports fans. As shown in the next two articles, which research a very similar connection to the one in Eisler’s (1997) article, that between fans’ emotional reactions and match outcomes, rather than using a qualitative method a quantitative method was implemented.

In the next study it is possible to see research with a similar issue to the previous one, but with a quantitative method of research that was conducted by Dietz-Uhler & Murrell (1999). They examined the relationship between game outcomes and fan reactions in the course of one season. Data was collected from 74 participants (students from an introductory social psychology class) during a university football season spanning of 14 weeks. Based on social identity theory perceptions of the team after each match, three aspects were tested: expectations, outcome and media attention. The questionnaire consisted of 16 items on the Collective Self-Esteem Scale (goodness, successfulness, intelligence, and skilfulness) on a 7-point scale, which was filled in before the match. After the match, a questionnaire about respondents’ reactions to the match including an evaluation of levels of identification with the outcome (win or loss), the expected outcome (favourite or underdog to win) and media attention (positive or negative) was filled in; a total of 19 items were used. If one analyses this research, probably conducting a two-phase questionnaire is a very good way to measure this factor to provide a good basis for comparison. But even so, the small number of participants in addition to the fact that the research was conducted in one specific class only can limit the possibility to assume that the results are applicable to a larger and more heterogeneous population. One thing that was done in the current research in a similar way to that in the study just described was that the time frame in which the data collection was performed was in the course of one season.

With a relatively small number of items Kerr et al. (2005) also investigated fans’ reactions to the outcome of a match of their favourite team, such as in the previous two articles. The questionnaire was filled in by 333 participants before the start of the match (183 fans), during the half-time (55 fans) and after a match (95 fans); the entire survey was conducted during two professional soccer games corresponding to the J-League (Japanese league). In total it consisted of 17 items: pleasant emotions (8 items), unpleasant emotions (8 items), and tension stress/effort stress (1 item) all on a 7-point scale. As the author identified in a previous article, the method of collecting data in several stages of the match is very common in research regarding match outcomes and fans’ behaviour. In this particular case the lack of balance in the number of respondents might cause a problem.

In the last three articles that study the same issue, match outcome and fan reactions, one can see two with a quantitative method and one with a qualitative one with small differences in the quantity of items that grow from one article to the next. These three studies research the affective construct from a narrow and specific point of view; the next articles presented study the same construct with the help of the loyalty factor, with a wider approach, since loyalty is a factor that can be formed and addressed from different perspectives as is evident in the article.

Funk & James (2006) studied loyalty via supporters' emotions with a questionnaire collected in three samples. The first was a convenience sample of graduate and undergraduate students and 194 usable questionnaires were collected. The second sample was collected from a list of consumer addresses from a marketing service and 404 usable questionnaires were returned. The last sample was from a subscription list to a nationally recognized sport magazine and 808 usable questionnaires were received. The questionnaires varied from sample to sample but the core remained the same: testing attitude properties with 4 items (functional meaning, symbolic meaning, emotional meaning, and psychological commitment), self-reported behaviour related 4 items, in addition to the Team Association Scale, which utilizes 48 items (benefits, attributes and attitude properties); so in total, 56 items were used. Like in this article, also in the next one a method of several samples is used, but the difference is that while in the next one the difference between the samples was the time of collection, in this case the difference comes from the source of the participants. This probably allows for greater variety in the profile type of the respondents. This issue was taken into consideration and partly applied in this author’s thesis, so an effort was made to reach participants over the internet but from different sources, for example Facebook pages and forums of different types and topics, as well as publication of the questionnaire on different pages.

In the previously presented article by Funk & James (2006), the affective construct was measured with the help of a wide factor – loyalty. The article by Abosag et al. (2012b), also studying the affective construct, used a more specific method: the factor for measuring the affective construct in this case were club brand changes that are a specific part of the loyalty. Using 31 in-depth interviews, Abosag et al. (2012b) designed a questionnaire especially prepared for the paper studying the relationship between supporters’ emotions and club brand changes. The questionnaire was filled in by 842 participants (number of cleaned data points) online and with a direct e-mail approach. The questionnaire consisted of 19 items exploring fans’ attitudes and perceptions towards the two clubs as commercial brands (emotional attachment – 4 items, brand extension – 4 items, and brand strength) on a 5-point Likert scale. In this article, the method of approaching participants was not random – the sample consisted of a previously existing list of e-mail addresses and participants were approached deliberately; probably the large number of participants compensates for this issue. This was also taken into consideration when designing the research for this thesis, and the aim was to collect questionnaires from a large number of fans. The method of creating a specific questionnaire was implemented in this author’s thesis as the idea and data needed were unique, such as in Abosag’s article. In addition, from the study by Funk & James, which used a self-report method of participants filling in the questionnaire, came the decision to also use this method for convenience reasons, but also from understanding that it was successful in previous researches studying similar factors.

**Table 1.2. Comparison of the methodologies used in research on the affective construct.**

|  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
| **Author (year)** | **Topic** | **Construct** | **Method** | **Questionnaire type** | **Factors** | **Number of items** |
| Eisler (1997) | Levels of emotional pain endured by fans when their favorite team loses | Affective | Qualitative | Depth interviews | Mood swings  Pain origin  Reactions to outcome | - |
| (Dietz-Uhler and Murrell, 1999) | Relationship between game outcomes and fan reactions | Affective | Quantitative | Two-face questionnaire | Goodness  Successfulness  Intelligence  Skillfulness  Outcome  Expected outcome  Media attention | 19 |
| (Kerr *et al.*, 2005) | Emotional dynamics of soccer fans at winning and losing games | Affective | Quantitative | Three-face questionnaire | Pleasant emotions  Unpleasant emotions  Tension stress/effort stress | 17 |
| Funk & James (2006) | Supporters emotions and a club brand | Affective | Quantitative | Three-sample questionnaire | Attitude properties  Psychological commitment  Self-reported behaviour  Benefits and attributes | 56 |
| Abosag et al. (2012b) | Examining the relationship between brand emotion and brand extension among supporters of professional football clubs | Affective | Qualitative  Quantitative | In-depth interviews  Questionnaire | Emotional attachment  Brand extension  Brand strength | 19 |

Source: own compilation

In reviewing the methods for measuring the affective construct, it is possible to detect that many articles cannot completely separate the affective construct from the cognitive one (see table 1.3). It is clear that many factors and items can be used to research the affective as well as the cognitive construct, such as in the article by Dietz-Uhler & Murrell (1999), which used the loyalty factor to research the affective construct. Also the article by Biscaia et al. (presented in the next part) used the loyalty factor, but in this case the purpose was to study the cognitive construct. But before that, also other articles dealing with the cognitive construct were published, and they also used other factors that can be used to measure the cognitive or affective construct. This is the case for the next article, which used the involvement factor.

Shank & Beasley (1998) suggested a scale to measure sports fan involvement constructs to better understand sports fans. Through a survey in a sample of 136 consumers, they found two aspects of involvement: the cognitive and the affective aspect. These aspects relate to viewing sports on television, reading about sports in magazines and newspapers, attending sporting events and participating in sports. The questionnaire included eight items regarding sports involvement and five items for media habits, attendance and participation in sports. In addition, six in-depth interviews were conducted in order to help better understand the involvement construct and to develop the survey instrument. Different angles were used in this case to measure fan involvement. Out of the four main angles of viewing sports on television, reading about sports in magazines and newspapers, attending sports events and participating in sports, three were adapted to the current study: first, viewing sports on television, in other words, audience; second, reading about sports in magazines and newspapers – this was taken to a wider view dealing with involvement in the social media and news regarding the favourite team; and third, attending sporting events was extended to attendance and taking part in club events. The use of the same factor to measure different constructs was used also in this author’s thesis as it was used in previous articles such as the last one presented.

Involvement can be interpreted in different ways; in the article by Shank & Beasley (1998) it was addressed as a factor in itself, but it is possible to find articles, such as the one by Mahony & Moorman (1999) presented next, that used a specific factor of involvement. In this case attendance and audience levels were used as factors to measure the cognitive construct. Mahony & Moorman (1999) study fans’ preferences for watching their most disliked team and their favourite team, and the conditions impacting those fans. In the survey with 157 participants that filled in the questionnaire, they first asked about the favourite and most disliked teams, and the attitude to those teams on a 7-point Likert scale; then they asked for 2 neutral teams and answering the Psychological Commitment to Team scale. Second, one to three weeks after the first stage the participants were asked about their favourite, disliked and neutral team, how likely they would be to watch each team on a 7-point Likert scale, and how likely they would be to watch their most disliked team on 2 different scenarios also measured on a 7-point Likert scale; in total they use approximately 7 items. This article uses a very simple way of comparing fans’ cognitive construct using attendance and audience levels with a relatively small sample. The simplistic way that compares the reactions towards a favourite team and a disliked one permits one to see clearly the effect of such a like or dislike for a team on attitude in general and attendance or audience in particular; this simplicity was used as guideline in the design of the tool used for this study. In addition, attendance and audience levels were also used for measuring the cognitive construct, like in this article.

In previous articles presented some researchers used the loyalty factor to measure the affective construct, but it is possible to find papers such as the one by Biscaia et al. (2013), which used the same loyalty factor to measure the cognitive construct. In the study about the relationship between loyalty and sponsorship they conduct a quantitative survey. 4000 questionnaires were send randomly to supporters; out of these, 1834 were usable. The questionnaire consisted of 13 items measuring team loyalty, attitude (5 items), commitment to the team (2 items), behavioural intentions (3 items) and behavioural constructs (3 items); sponsorship awareness was measured via the attitude toward the sponsors (3 items) and purchase intentions (4 items), all with a 7-point Likert scale; 20 items were used in total. This is a large-scale study with many participants that focuses on one specific relationship, the one between loyalty and sponsorship. In the process of measuring the loyalty factor, different aspects of it were addressed. From this came the basic idea of how to conduct the measurement for this thesis; specifically regarding the choice of how to measure the loyalty factor, items such as commitment, behavioural intentions and purchase intentions were applied based on the last article presented.

Similar to the affective construct, also regarding research approaches to the cognitive construct it is possible to find studies with a qualitative method. This is the case for the paper by Dixon (2013), in which time spending was studied as a factor to understand football consumption in modern times. After reviewing articles measuring the cognitive construct with a more general factor such as involvement or loyalty, this article used a more specific factor – time spending. A series of in-depth, semi-structured interviews with open-ended questions helped explore the genesis of football fandom. From the reference point from which fandom behaviour has developed for participants, the study explores and explains the everyday lived experiences of football fandom through ‘routine’ elements of fandom practice. Sixty English football fans participated in the interviews. They were selected if they had met the following three criteria: they were season ticket holders, fans of diverse teams and not only top clubs. Both males (36) and females (24) were interviewed. As the purpose of this article was to understand the origins of football fandom through time spending as the main factor, it was logical to use interviews in the mentioned form. In the author’s research the factor of time spending was also used but in a different way, as the idea was to connect it and test its relationship to several other factors, mainly dealing with economics; that is why the author chose to approach this factor in the same way as all others and collect the data through questionnaires. The method in this thesis was based on multiple-choice questions, in contrast to the open-ended questions used here, but the time-spending factor was inspired by this article and also used to measure the cognitive construct.

**Table 1.3. Comparison of the methodologies used in research on the cognitive construct.**

|  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
| **Author (year)** | **Topic** | **Construct** | **Method** | **Questionnaire type** | **Factors** | **Number of items** |
| Shank & Beasley (1998) | Understanding the involvement construct | Cognitive | Qualitative | In-depth interviews | Involvement  Media habits  Attendance  Participation in sports | 8 |
| (Mahony and Moorman, 1999) | Conditions impacting fans’ preference for watching their most disliked team and their favorite team | Cognitive | Quantitative | Questionnaire | Attitude to favorite team  Attitude to most disliked team  Audience | 7 |
| Biscaia et al. (2013) | Relationship between loyalty and sponsorship | Cognitive | Quantitative | Questionnaire | Attitudinal  Commitment to the team  Behavioural intentions  Behavioural constructs  Attitude toward the sponsors  Purchase intentions | 20 |
| (Dixon, 2013) | Football consumption in modern times, knowledge and time spending | Cognitive | Qualitative | In depth semi-structured interviews | Genesis of football fandom  Everyday lived experiences | - |

Source: own compilation

From table 1.3, which summarizes the literature review of four articles that used the cognitive construct, it is clear that measuring the cognitive construct is used for different topics. This measurement is possible with a qualitative or quantitative method; usually the qualitative research is done with the help of interviews while the quantitative is carried out with a questionnaire. Another fact that arises from the comparison is that the number of items used in questionnaires varies quite a lot; it can be as few as 7 up to a lot more, e.g., 20. The factors used in the different studies where varied and adapted to the topic in question.

After the review of the affective and cognitive constructs, let us proceed to the behavioural construct. It is possible to see in the literature two main ways of measuring sports fan behaviour: either through involvement as the main factor, or through attendance as the main factor. The first is through the involvement factor and its different definitions. For example, Shank & Beasley (1998) defined the term as *‘the perceived interest in and personal importance of sports to an individual’* and Bahk (2000) as *‘the significance of sport spectating for the fan in everyday life’* (Johnston 2009, 32). Laverie & Arnett (2000) defined involvement as *‘a state of motivation, arousal, or interest toward an activity or product, in addition to the constructs of social identity theory, attachment and satisfaction’* (Capella 2002, 2). The second method used by researchers relies heavily on attendance data to measure supporter loyalty to reach a better understanding of their behaviour (Mahony, Madrigal and Howard, 2000). As both ways are valid and help reach different conclusions, logic dictates that a combination of the two will bring a clearer image of the measure of fan behaviour. For that reason in the present research behaviour was measured by a combination of different factors, including involvement and attendance. Next, different approaches for measuring fan behaviour will be presented. They are the basis for measuring behaviour through involvement and attendance in this research.

Another article tested identification with a sports team by conducting two studies measuring team identification through several reactions. With the construction of a new scale and the measuring of 546 undergraduates, the authors checked for identification levels (strong, moderate or low) and this was done with several behavioural, affective and cognitive reactions of the sports spectators. The first study consisted of a sample of 188 participants who completed a 7-item questionnaire with a Likert scale format designed to measure identification levels with their university basketball team. An additional random sample of 49 participants were asked to fill in the same questionnaire one year later to test the instrument's reliability. The second study measured identification with the same questionnaire as the first study in addition to a questionnaire designed to assess participants' reactions and behaviour toward the university team. A total of 358 students took part in this study, and the items checked four factors including involvement (3 items), attribution (3 items), investment (6 items) and fan uniqueness (4 items) (Wann and Branscombe, 1993). In previous studies researchers used the method of performing the sampling and questionnaires collection in two or three phases. In this article one can see a deeper implementation of this by conducting the identification levels with a larger gap in time. This permits the researcher to test the new suggested scale with the influence of time. In author’s research, due to time limitations, this was not possible so the data were collected once and the comparison of identification levels was carried out with a self-report method in the questionnaire.

Fisher & Wakefield (1998) studied the involvement of sports fans by understanding the factors that lead to identification and group-supportive behaviour, even of unsuccessful teams. They conducted a two-group field study with 250 respondents to a one-page survey. A scale with a range of 1–7, where 1 meant ‘strongly disagree’ and 7 ‘strongly agree’, measured several presets. Group identification (defining the fan's relation to the sports team) and domain involvement (relation to the sport itself) were measured with five items each. Perceived group performance (the fan’s belief in his team being ranked highly) and group member attractiveness (the perception of a team’s players’ desired qualities) were measured with 4 items each. And group-supportive behaviour was tested as well: *‘Three types of behaviour were used to measure team support: game attendance, game behaviours and the purchase of licensed products’* (Fisher & Wakefield 1998, 31). In this behavioural study that tests a similar aspect of loyalty, the use of a field study permits the researcher to directly target the population he was interested in studying. On the other hand, this causes a lack of the randomisation used in other studies. For that reason, in this author’s study a random sample was chosen. In addition, a short questionnaire is probably a good tool when the subjects are in the field, but this limits the possibilities of analysis and conclusions due to a small set of data. Inspired by this article, the method of measuring behaviour in this author’s research also involved the help of the three factors game attendance, game behaviour and purchase of products (in this case any product related to the team and not only licensed products).

A different way of measuring sports fan behaviour was employed by Wann et al. (1999), with a questionnaire that tested the motivation of a fan and the motives for becoming one, and analysing the data using the sport fan motivational scale (SFMS). Three studies were conducted to expand on previous research carried out by the same author a few years earlier. The first study was designed to test the factor structure of the sports fan motivational scale and its integrity, which was done via a phone survey in 96 randomly chosen participants who first answered a series of demographic questions. Then, in order to test the SFMS, a 23-item questionnaire with a Likert scale format was used, checking the following factors: escape (3 items), economics (3 items), eustress (3 items), aesthetics (3 items), self-esteem (3 items), group affiliation (3 items), entertainment (3 items) and family (2 items). The second one checked the relationship between preferences for a specific type of sport on the one side and the scores reported on the SFMS subscales on the other. This study was conducted in 86 psychology students, and such as the first study, this one also had two parts. In the first part the participants completed a demographic questionnaire and in addition were asked to list the sports that they most enjoyed watching. In the second part they completed the SFMS questionnaire. Finally, the third study investigated *‘the hypothesis that individuals with intrinsic athletic motivation tend to be intrinsically motivated as fans, while persons with extrinsic athletic motivation tend to be extrinsically motivated as fans’* (Wann et al. 1999, 1). The last study was similar to the previous two: 115 psychology students participated by filling in demographic questions and completing the SFMS. Then they were asked to fill in the Sport Motivational Scale, which is a 28-item scale designed to measure intrinsic and extrinsic athlete motivation. This study that tests the motivation for becoming a fan expands on previous research and was the basis for this author’s research, mainly for the part testing fanhood origins that was conducted with an extended self-report questionnaire. As in other studies, also here the sample was confined to a specific population, but the difference is that in the first study there was a random mode for the demographic part. In this author’s research the approach is random but the population targeted is the relevant one for the research in place.

Laverie & Arnett (2000) opted for a combination of two main factors measuring the behavioural construct used in the previous studies: attendance and fan identity, which in other research was referred to as loyalty in broader terms. The authors developed a model of fan behaviour based on two factors: attendance at a sporting event and fan identity salience. They tested the model with a sample of 190 college students – fans of the women’s basketball team of a large university. The researchers used multiple self-reporting items to collect their data, and they used existing inventories of items from previous studies. Situational involvement was measured with 16 semantic differential items on a 7-point scale, enduring involvement with 9 semantic differential items on a 7-point scale, attachment with a 9-item scale, identity salience with 8 items on a 7-point Likert scale, satisfaction with 3 items also on a 7-point Likert scale and attendance on a 7-point scale asking how often the participant had attended games during the past season. The use of multiple items enabled the authors to test the suggested model, but because the sample consisted of a narrow set of participants who were fans of women’s basketball at a large university, there were probably other factors influencing the behaviour that originated in the characteristics of this population. This fact could be a problem when the model is applied to another population. Thus in designing the tool used in the research discussed in this paper, which encompasses greater participant diversity, more items were used to measure the factors under study. This was to compensate for the limitation of ignoring other factors that can affect fan behaviour.

**Table 1.4. Comparison of the methodologies used in research on the behaviour construct.**

|  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
| **Author (year)** | **Topic** | **Construct** | **Method** | **Questionnaire type** | **Factors** | **Number of items** |
| Wann & Branscombe (1993) | Identification with a sports team | Behavioural | Quantitative | 2 studies with short questionnaires | Identification  Involvement  Attribution  Investment  Fan uniqueness | 7  16 |
| Fisher & Wakefield (1998) | Involvement in sports by understanding factors that lead to identification and group-supportive behaviour | Behavioural | Quantitative | 1-page survey | Group identification  Domain involvement  Perceived group performance  Group member attractiveness  Group-supportive behaviours | 21 |
| Wann et al. (1999) | Motivation of a fan and the motives to become one | Behavioural | Quantitative | 3 studies, the first 2 with a 23-questions survey and the third one with 28 questions. | Escape  Economics  Eustress  Aesthetics  Self-esteem  Group affiliation  Entertainment  Family  Intrinsic athlete motivation  Extrinsic athlete motivation | 23  28 |
| Laverie & Arnett (2000) | Model of fan behaviour development | Behavioural | Quantitative | Questionnaire | Situational involvement  Enduring involvement  Attachment  Satisfaction  Attendance | 46 |

Source: own compilation

The literature review reveals, as with the other constructs, the use of a specific construct to address different topics. The research approach for each study differs in the structure of the research itself, ranging from short to long questionnaires, using different factors or a different number of items. In the studies where the behaviour is in the centre, the number of items and the variety of factors used was larger than in the studies involving the affective or cognitive constructs. This may be an indication of the complexity of studying the behavioural construct in general and for sports fans in particular.

After understanding the methodology used in attitude research as well as the constructs that form it, next is a brief review of articles and the methodology used in them to measure the violence factor, the last main factor used in this author’s thesis (see table 1.5). The violence factor is not necessarily measured as part of one of the three constructs that help measure sports fans’ attitude and can be used as an individual factor. It is possible to find studies dealing strictly with sports violence and different approaches that researchers used to study it. The evolution in sport violence research began with studies researching what factors have an influence on violence. Later researchers developed models that tried to predict violence and in more recent times articles go to a deeper understanding of types of violence and present different forms of such violence.

Semyonov & Farbstein (1989) have used quantitative secondary research to study the influence of urban ecology (community size) and sport ecology (league structure) on player and spectator violence. They performed an analysis involving 297 Israeli soccer teams. For the purposes of the study, the teams were characterized by urban ecology — in other words, type of community: large metropolitan centres, large cities, midsized towns, small urban localities, rural localities, urban (inner-city) neighbourhoods and Arab localities. The other indicator was sport ecology, which was measured by two variables: a team’s position in the hierarchy of divisions (with 1 being the top and 6 being the bottom) and its relative position within the division (teams in the top third of their division, teams in the bottom third of their division, and teams in the middle). With existing data and two main variables, this article tests how violence is influenced by urban and sport ecology. Although Semyonov and Farbstein’s method is suitable for this research, it is completely different from the one used in the current study as the data needed are different and do not exist as a database from other existing sources. In addition to that, in this author’s research more than two variables were part of the study. That is why the methodology is different despite the research having been carried out in the same country and the subjects being close to each other.

Mustonen's (1996) research has studied violence in ice hockey in Canada and Finland to find the motives of the crowd attending an ice-hockey match where there is a high level of on-ice and off-ice violence. A survey was conducted in the form of a questionnaire filled out by 178 hockey fans. At a hockey match, study participants completed a thirty-item questionnaire before, during, and after the match, with the use of factors such as reasons for their attendance at the game (6 items on a 6-point scale), group size (2 items on a 5-point scale), recent history of fighting (1 item on a 5-point scale), and two 10-item subscales; the dependent variable was measured with one item on a 7-point scale, so in total 30 items were used. The research discussed here was inspired by the idea to test the motivation to attend a sporting event despite the probability of violence, but the questions were adapted for the purposes of the research addressed in this paper. The number of items was similar and the questions were adapted to the needs of the study discussed here.

In a different approach to the study of sports violence, Guilbert (2004) examined forms and levels of violence in eight different sports to demonstrate that forms of violence differ depending on the sport. To accomplish this, the author conducted a survey related to nine sporting activities. A questionnaire was filled out by 420 male competitors between the ages of 16 and 30. The primary indicator dealt with the characterization of violence in the sports venue, and other indicators such as attitudes toward violence, the rules, and safety, which are factors associated with violence; the survey used a total of seven items. The idea of testing what is considered violence before testing levels of violence was inspired by Guilbert’s article and was implemented in the design of the questionnaire for the current research.

**Table 1.5. Comparison of the methodologies used in research on the violence factor.**

|  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
| **Author (year)** | **Topic** | **Construct** | **Method** | **Questionnaire type** | **Factors** | **Number of items** |
| Semyonov and Farbstein (1989) | Influence of urban ecology and sport ecology on players’ and spectators’ violence | Violence | Quantitative | Existing records | Community size  League structure | 3 |
| Mustonen (1996) | Violence in ice-hockey in Canada and Finland | Violence | Quantitative | Questionnaire | Reasons for their attendance at the game  Group size  Recent history of fighting | 30 |
| Guilbert (2004) | Forms and levels of violence in 8 different sports | Violence | Quantitative | Questionnaire | Characterization of violence  Attitude towards violence  Rules  Safety | 7 |

Source: own research

Above the author presents a summary and comparison of the different methodologies used in different articles dealing with different aspects of sports fans research. This study used quantitative research; the attitude was addressed separately through three constructs – the cognitive, affective and behavioural ones. Each was measured and set as an independent variable that was measured statistically with a descriptive research design. The data were gathered from a survey in the form of questionnaires. The data measured direction, meaning whether the subject has a positive or negative response to the issue, as well as intensity – strength of the feeling, for example. The approach used to measure attitudes was by using the Likert scale, which is very commonly used and can easily be applied to attitude measurement, as can be seen in previous studies (רובין and Robin, 2004). In previous studies it is possible to see different methods of conducting the data collection part. Most studies are based on primary research, but it is possible to find some that are based on secondary research; for the purposes of this thesis, primary research was conducted as the data needed did not previously exist and a very specific sample was chosen. However, some background data for the study were gathered from secondary sources (reports of match attendance). More data from official sources and past research were used as well. The rest of the data, mainly about fans’ money and time-spending habits, was collected from the questions and answers in the survey. The tool for collecting data was a questionnaire, as in most research, due to the fact that a large sample was an aim for the study. For these reasons this tool was selected from the variety of tools used in previous research such as interviews, field studies and observations. Many studies used two or three faces, meaning that authors conducted the survey several times with a time gap between surveys to achieve results that permitted them to analyse data stability over time or to perform comparisons involving the time factor. In this thesis this was not needed, so the survey was conducted once, as is the case in many other studies. Another issue that varies a lot across studies is the length of the questionnaire. There are studies with questionnaires consisting of one short page and others that are a lot more extended, depending on the needs of the study. Because of the nature of this research that covers many factors, the questionnaire’s length is closer to the longer questionnaires previously used in other surveys.

**Measuring Football Fans’ Attitudes**

**Review of the Attitudes Concept in Science**

In the previous part the literature on consumer behaviour was reviewed to understand the process that a consumer goes through in a purchase. Because in this study the football fan is considered a consumer, in the next part the attitude element is to be reviewed, including different definitions, models and usages of attitudes in the literature. Finally, a review of specific attitudes constructs of football fans is to be presented.

In the classic sociology book ‘The Polish Peasant in Europe and America’ by Znaniecki & Thomas (1958), one of the first studies involving attitudes was presented. In this study the researchers studied Polish immigrants to the United States to explore the relation between individuals and society as a key to social change. They did this by checking the transformation of Polish peasant-immigrants in America. They studied the history and structure of the Polish countryside and recent changes to the Polish countryside. They argue that the Polish community was shaped less by US government policies, and more by its own culture and social ties. Throughout the book they deal with the attitude factor as part as the study alongside the research of social values. For example they dedicate a part to religious and magical attitudes. The introduction of new and desirable attitudes and values without reference to the path revolution in the field (Znaniecki and Thomas, 1958). Later on over the years the term ‘attitude’ was defined in different articles, but all definitions are similar. Already in 1981, authors of the paper dealing with attitude persuasion and change defined attitude as ‘*a general and enduring positive or negative feeling about some person, object, or issue*’ (Petty & Cacioppo, 1981, 7). Zanna and Rampel examined attitude and defined it as ‘*the categorization of a stimulus object along an evaluative dimension*’ (Zanna & Rempel, 1988, 319). Later on it was defined as a ‘*psychological tendency that is expressed by evaluating a particular entity with some degree of favour or disfavour*’ (Eagly & Chaiken, 1993, 1) or ‘*an association in memory between a given object and a given summary evaluation of the object*’ (Fazio, 1995, 247). For the purpose of this study attitude is an evaluative psychological tendency about a person, object or issue that has a direction, positive or negative, and has levels of strength. The strength sets the stability, ability to withstand attack, capacity to influence how we process information, and ability to guide behaviour according to the attitude (Petty and Krosnick, 1995).

The attitude is formed by content, structure and function; ‘*content can include cognitive, affective, and behavioural information about an object; structure refers to how this information is organized along dimensions within attitudes; and function encompasses diverse psychological needs served by attitudes (e.g., self-esteem, utility enhancement)*’ (Maio & Haddock, 2014, 13). This is presented in Maio's & Haddock's (2014) book using the metaphor of the ‘three witches’, meaning that these three ‘*operate more effectively together than in isolation, in the same way that three witches in folklore make a better brew together than separately*’ (Maio & Haddock, 2014, 13). In this thesis the focus will be on attitudinal content – more specifically, on the cognitive, affective and behavioural factors.

The importance of understanding the attitude of customers can be seen for example in Riley's et al. (1954) research, which tries to discover methods that can be more effective in sustaining public morale through war propaganda in the United States. Another aspect of its importance stems from the effect that attitudes have on information processing and behaviour. This is presented in the theory of reasoned action that helps predict deliberative and thoughtful behaviour based on attitudes (Ajzen & Fishbein, 1977, 1980; Chapter 4). This method paves the way for hundreds of studies in the last 30 years that in general terms reach the conclusion that attitudes predict behaviour, while intending to understand the effects of attitudes on behaviour (Maio and Haddock, 2010).

Another important issue in the study of attitudes is the strength of the attitude. With the evaluation of attitude strength it is possible to know how stable across time and context attitudes are (Eagly & Chaiken 2007; Fazio, 2007; Petty et al., 2007). On the other hand, Schwarz (2007) presents a different position claiming that attitudes are built in the moment depending on the situation. So, ‘*strong attitudes should be more stable and enduring, but weak attitudes should be more malleable and likely to be constructed on the spot*’ (Maio & Haddock, 2014, 49). The strength of the attitude is manifested in four ways. Strong attitudes are more persistent and resistant to change, and more likely to influence information processing and to guide behaviour (Petty and Krosnick, 1995).

After understanding what attitudes are, a review of previous studies on attitudes from different perspectives will be presented. Prior studies have examined attitudes from different perspectives and investigated the attitudes’ effects in different fields of study. One of the first studies concerning attitudes was presented by LaPiere (1934). He conducted a two-phase study to test attitudes towards Chinese people in the United States. In the first phase (testing the behaviour) he went with a Chinese couple to 251 establishments and recorded the treatment they received; six month later he sent a questionnaire to all of the establishments they had visited (testing the attitude). Using this method he investigated the connection between attitudes and behaviour. The results suggested a weak to non-existent relationship between attitudes and behaviour.

Later on, Katz (1960) published an article presenting the functions of attitudes in which he showed four functions through which, according to his theory, ‘*attitudes help a person to mediate between their own inner needs and the outside world*’ (McLeod, 2009, 4). The four functions of attitudes that where establish by Katz (1960) are the following:

1. the knowledge function, which helps to predict what is likely to happen;
2. the self / ego-expressive function, which allows a person to communicate who he is and to assert his identity;
3. the adaptive function, which helps to fit into a social group, share and develop similar attitudes as other members of this group;
4. the ego-defensive function, which helps protect self-esteem and justify actions that lead to feelings of guilt. This function-based approach helps the person to mediate between his needs and the outside world.

In psychology, behaviour is many times connected with attitudes. As shown in the ABC model of attitude presented by McLeod (2009), there is a strong influence on behaviour depending on attitude. The model describes a three-component structure of attitudes:

1. the affective component, which involves feelings and emotions;
2. the behavioural component, which reflects the effect of attitude on how a person behaves;
3. the cognitive component, which involves the belief and knowledge about an attitude towards something.

One of the assumptions in this model is that of consistency, meaning that if acting rationally, a behaviour is consistent with the attitude, so it is possible to predict behaviour basing on an attitude. The strength of the connection between attitude and behaviour is influenced by the following factors:

1. the attitude strength, which depends on the importance and relevance to a person’s self-interest, social identification and value of the issue;
2. the level of the person’s knowledge about the attitude object;
3. the level of involvement in an experience.

After understanding in the previous part what consumer attitudes are, how they are built and how they affect consumers, in the next part a specific review of football fans’ attitude constructs is presented. First a distinction between different types of fans is drawn and then two approaches to football fans’ attitude construct research and its measurement are discussed.

**Description of Football Fans’ Attitudes**

Before dealing with football fans attitude it is essential to define the term ‘fan’. This importance stems from the understanding that there is a wide range of definitions in the literature. In many articles the authors make a distinction between spectators and fans; at times the terms are used interchangeably, as Smith (1988) does. One approach states that the difference is a matter of the degree of engrossment and passion (Pooley, 1978). Cases such as Jones (1997) describe the difference in the levels of involvement: while spectators watch a match and forget about it, fans have more intensity and will dedicate more time to the team or the sport. In the same line of thought, Spinrad *et al.* (1981) define a fan as ‘the person who thinks, talks about and is oriented towards sports even when [the fan] is not actually observing, or reading, or listening to an account of a specific sports event’ (Spinrad et al. 1981, 354). The word ‘fan’ is derived from the term ‘fanatic’; so a fan dedicates his time enthusiastically to the team or sport he follows (Anderson, 1979). Being a fan permits the person to participate in a sport without having or requiring any special skills (Branscombe and Wann, 1991). This is why at times fans are characterized negatively, especially in social science research; this is especially true of males, who are often stigmatized because of their fandom (Gantz and Wenner, 1995). Others define being a fan as ‘an affiliation in which a great deal of emotional significance and value are derived from group membership’ (Hirt *et al.*, 1992, 725). Alternatively, Madrigal (1995) suggests that fans represent an association that provides the individual with a great deal of emotional and value significance. Wann *et al.* (2001) mark the differences between a fan and a spectator and the differences between highly and lowly identified fans. Their definition of sport fans is ‘individuals who are interested in and follow a sport, team, and/or athlete. Sport spectators … are those individuals who actively witness a sporting event in person or through some form of media (radio, television, etc.)’ (Wann *et al.*, 2001, 2) (Jacobson, 2003).

In order to understand the attitude construct of a football fan it is necessary to make distinctions between types of fans. In the literature it is possible to find a distinction from a general view to a more specific differentiation between 'genuine fans' who strongly identify with a community and tradition and 'other types' of fans, such as those who follow the sport out of an interest in entertainment (Clarke, 1978). From a more specific point of view, 'traditional fans' are fans who spend less money on officially endorsed club products and are not the major financial backers in football. That was replaced by the 'modern fans' that are *‘viewed as transnational global consumers in search of experience and participation through sport that now appears, at least to them, as missing or lacking in more local sports subcultures’* (Boyle & Haynes 2000, 196). 'Core fans' are the fans that follow the team ‘blindly’ regardless of the performance and results, in contrast to the 'corporate' fans whose attendance to the team match depends on the team's performance and whether it is doing well (Nash, 2000). 'Irrational' fans follow group conventions blindly and 'rational' fans measure and think through their decisions independently of the large group of fans (Quick, 2000). *‘Although the terminology used differs between authors, the overriding message is similar’* (Dixon 2013, 26).

Football fans’ attitude construct is not that different from the attitude construct of any customer in any other market. There are two main approaches; one that is one-dimensional and claims that a fan of a team has only positive beliefs, feelings and behaviours about a specific team and no negative ones about the same team. The other approach is opposed to this perspective and suggests that the construct components (cognitive, affective and behavioural ones) are organized along separate dimensions simultaneously, one with some positive elements and one with some negative elements (Cacioppo, Gardner and Berntson, 1997). In addition to this view, on-going developments in the field of attitude construct research put emphasis on the strength of the attitude. This is important because then one can understand that strong attitudes are more (a) persistent over time, (b) resistant to change, (c) likely to influence information processing and (d) likely to predict behaviour (Petty and Krosnick, 1995).

In this chapter the different approaches to consumer behaviour research and the process a consumer goes through during a purchase were analysed. In summary, the stages that the consumer uses are: consumer information search, formation of attitudes and evaluation of alternatives, consumer persuasion, buying decision and post-purchase reactions. In addition, consumer culture is reviewed as an important part that affects the buying. In the second part of the chapter a more specific review of consumer attitudes and football fans’ attitude constructs was delivered. In the following chapter, an analysis of the football market in general and the Israeli football market in particular will be presented.

**Football Supporter Loyalty Factor**

Another important factor that was well covered in the literature widely affecting football economics is supporter loyalty. The term ‘loyalty’ is used in research on football fans, but the term appears in research dealing with customers in general; in fields others than sports, loyalty was described as the steadfast allegiance to a person or cause and at times the two terms ‘loyalty’ and ‘allegiance’ were used interchangeably (Pritchard et al., 1999). In relation to sports, ‘allegiance’ was defined by Funk and Pastore (2000) as a commitment to a specific team that is persistent, resistant to change, and influences cognitive thoughts and behaviour. Another way of defining loyalty is as ‘the correspondence between an individual’s willingness to demonstrate loyal behaviour and their attitudes that reflect high structural support from various attitude properties’ (Funk, 1998, 53).

Research on loyalty in other fields and studies found empirical evidence for the fact that loyal consumers are highly likely to show their allegiance to a particular brand. Belk and Tumbat (2005), for instance, qualitatively research the cult of Apple Macintosh and the findings showed that loyal users of Macintosh link consumption of the brand to self-image. In sports, loyalty to a team can indicate a consumption tendency that loyal fans demonstrate through their willingness to buy products or services related to the team they support (Funk, 1998; Wakefield and Sloan, 1995).

Many researchers defined and measured consumer loyalty to a particular club or team in the same way as loyalty to other goods and services. Customer loyalty is defined as a behavioural component and as an attitudinal component. In sports *‘the behavioural component of loyalty involves factors such as ticket and merchandise purchasing and television viewing numbers. The attitudinal component on the other hand examines consumer opinions and feelings towards a team’* (Johnston, 2009, 8). In contrary Sumida et al., (2014) claim that fan loyalty to a team should be grasped not only though the tendency of sports fans towards consumption behaviour, but also as their link to self-concepts related to a team as a social institution. The authors claiming this consider team loyalty as based more on the social identity that arises from the relationships gained through fan groups or communities than that arising from brand loyalty.

The study of loyalty was approached by researchers from different angles. Toledo-Pereyra (2006) reviewed the importance of loyalty and its development process in the relationships between surgeons. Some conclusions may apply and be relevant to a better understanding of what loyalty is. Quoting Marcus Aurelius Cavallini, *‘[t]hose who have loyalty will conquer the world and bring respect and protection to those who deserve it ... Loyalty means understanding, loyalty represents caring for someone, loyalty is all about respect’* (Toledo-Pereyra 2006, 275). From the 15th century onward, loyalty was interpreted as and associated with a ‘sense of fidelity’ to a cause, love, family, friends, work and other professional activities, being supportive of someone’s cause, being faithful to another’s way of pursuing life and work endeavours and total commitment to someone’s principles of justice and understanding. All of these definitions can be transferred to the loyalty that exists between a football fan toward his favourite team – the practically unconditional fidelity to a team regardless of its state of success at a particular time is an example of that loyalty.

When discussing the loyalty factor of football fans towards a team or club, first of all it has to be understood that there are many forms of loyalty. As Neal's (2000) publication shows, there are at least 4 types of loyalties: attitudinal loyalty, performance loyalty, convenience loyalty and lack-of-choice loyalty. One conclusion he reaches is that loyalty is not detached from the motivational factor. From that one can assume that an important emotional factor takes place in the influence on loyalty. Probably for football fans one can talk about an emotional loyalty that goes beyond the rational one. This loyalty is driven by a feeling of attachment to the team that originated for different reasons; in this study those reasons will be an element for understanding the different factors and their connections.

Similar to Neal's (2000) loyalty types study, another study by Biscaia et al. (2013) deals with two types of loyalty, behavioural loyalty and attitudinal loyalty. In the article the influence of these two loyalties is checked to understand how they affect football club sponsors’ success. Another study by Leck & Saunders (1992) seeks to understand if loyalty is an attitudinal state or a behavioural response in an employee dissatisfaction situation at a work place. One of the conclusions is that loyalty affects the type and form of behaviour. And out of the two types – loyalty as an attitude and loyalty as a behaviour – loyalty as an attitude is seen as the cause of behaviour, and behaviour is a result of the effect of the attitude. So if that is the case, to understand the constructs of an attitude it is necessary to explore the loyalty of a football fan, and other factors as well.

The next important point to understand is from where the loyalty comes and, more relevantly, what drives it. Four drivers of fans’ loyalty can be identified as the following: ‘(1) continuity and growth: pure entertainment value (action, speed and power); (2) authenticity (the acceptance of the game as ‘real’ and meaningful, with outcomes as result of a true team effort); (3) fan bonding (both to athletes and teams); and (4) the team or league's history and traditions’ (Passikoff 1997, 9).

The process that brings an individual to develop an allegiance with a specific team, in other words, how a person becomes loyal to one team, is shown in Funk's & James' (2006) research. They did that by using the Psychological Continuum Model (PCM) used by Funk and James (2001) and explaining the way from basic awareness to allegiance and the reasons for the transformation. From here one can connect fan loyalty to attitudes. One attitude that influences the level of fan loyalty to a team or a club is the level of self-monitoring; *‘past researches demonstrate that low self-monitors tend to be very loyal in general’* (Richardson & Dwyer 2003, 44).

Another way to measure the loyalty of fans is the one used by Brandes et al. (2013) as part of their research on fan size and market potential in the German Bundesliga. By distinguishing season tickets and a non-season tickets the assumption is made that fans with season tickets are more committed and therefore more loyal to the team than fans who buy match day tickets. In the author’s opinion, this approach has some important limitations, because there could be other factors besides loyalty influencing if a fan buys a seasonal ticket or not, for example, economic factors, family reasons or distance from the stadium.

In the study conducted by Abosag et al. (2012) the relationship between brand emotion and brand extension among supporters of professional football clubs were examined. As the research shows, one of the factors that influence this relationship is the reason for which someone becomes a fan of a club. So, the stronger the origin’s influence is, the greater the emotional connection that leads to higher levels of loyalty. Extending this concept, if in the research the loyalty is studied as suggested, and to that the researcher adds some more elements such as attendance and changes in level of fanhood, the analysis of the loyalty would be more complete.

Loyalty of football fans is different from customer loyalty in mainstream sectors. The levels of commitment and connection to a firm or a product are influenced by different elements. In marketing approaches to motivation, it is possible to detect factors that promote the loyalty of football fans to a club, but the satisfaction derived from a product and the level of income of the customer have little or no correlation with levels of loyalty. Another important point that marketers need to understand is that in sports, fans’ attitudes may not necessarily reflect behaviour, which is why for marketing purposes it is not enough to rely on customers loyalty (Tapp, 2004b).

**Economic Aspects of Violent Behaviour in Football**

After a review of audience level influencers, sport fan money and time spending and supporter loyalty, in this part the violence factor will be reviewed. Unlike other factors that are more directly connected to economics, violence is usually approached from a more sociological point of view. When analysing the literature about violence in sport, one can conclude that research approaches to the topic encompass different fields, such as sociology, psychology, law, sport studies, public health and journalism. Fields et al. (2007) examine hazing, brawling, and foul play in sports in existing articles with the purpose of showing that these three forms of violence should ‘be examined as interrelated examples of interpersonal violence and sports-related violence’ (Fields et al., 2007, 367).

When trying to define the concept of violence, the existing literature proposes, besides the term ‘violence’ itself, the term ‘aggression’ in a more general view and the term ‘riots’ in a more specific way or as a form of violence. ‘Riots’ were defined in two general ways, as either ‘aimless behaviour involving disturbances or turmoil’ (Darrow and Lowinger, 1968, 2) or ‘relatively spontaneous group violence contrary to traditional norms’ (Marx, 1970, 50). In a more concrete way, ‘riots’ were defined as ‘crowd violence, hostile collective action by a group of about 50 or more people who physically assault persons or property or coerce someone to perform an action’ (Bohstedt, 1994, 259). Specifically, the term ‘riots’ in relation to sports was defined by Simons and Taylor (1992) as ‘purposive destructive or injurious behaviour by partisan spectators of a sporting event that may be caused by personal, social, economic, or competitive factors’ (Simons and Taylor, 1992, 213).

The term ‘violence’ was distinguished from the term ‘aggression’ by some authors; Coakley (2001) states that violence is ‘the use of excessive physical force, which causes or has the potential to cause harm or destruction’ (Coakley, 2001, 174), while aggression is ‘verbal or physical behaviour grounded in an intent to dominate, control, or do harm to another person’ (Coakley, 2001, 175). In a similar way, Leonard (1993) has presented the difference between the two terms stating that violence involves a behavioural component, but aggression entails motivation. ‘For example, on the basis of the ‘behavioural definition’ of violence, if I accidentally slam a car door on your finger and cause injury, then I have performed a violent act. According to the ‘motivational definition’ of violence, if I intend to harm you but fail to properly negotiate the slamming of the car door, my premeditated action is still construed as violent (in intent)’ (Leonard, 1993, 157). Based on this, ‘intent introduces an aggressive dimension to violence that may or may not be present in any given violence act. The terms violence and aggression are often used interchangeably in studies of sport, which has thwarted efforts to bridges various theories. Most (but not all) episodes of fan violence involve elements of both violence and aggression’ (Ward Jr, 2002, 455).

Referring to violence in football in particular, Smith (1983) and Ward Jr (2002) proposed two possible explanations for the violence phenomenon. The first explains that the ‘centres on the perceptions fans have of what happens on the field. Although soccer may involve less on-the-field violence than other sports, soccer is a high contact event with a territorial component, and fans see aggressive facial expressions on players. Some research has found that if spectators interpret on-the-field action to be violent, they are more likely to imitate that behaviour’ (Ward Jr, 2002, 456). The other shows the importance of the socio-political environment as a variable ‘that explains differences in the frequency of fan violence across countries. In particular, the significance of race, class, and gender must be considered, as well as religious and political structures of professional sports teams’ (Ward Jr, 2002, 457). Is important to understand that fan violence research is plagued by the inconsistent application of these explanations by scholars (Coakley, 2001).

Historically speaking, violence has already appeared in sports during the Middle Ages and Renaissance, and since then, violence has been studied in the literature from different angles. Elias (1971 and 1976) demonstrates the existence of violence in ancient games and competitions. Bourdieu (1980) shows the different forms of violence that may be observed in competitive sporting events (physical violence, verbal violence, psychological violence and cheating). This has been widely researched through literature (Brohm, 1993) (Defrance, 2000). Guilbert (2004) looks at the different forms and levels of violence that appear in different sports.

More recently, the level of violence has increased both inside and outside stadiums. Some conflicts between fans are rooted in political history, while others are based on a historic sports conflict. This pertains mainly to clubs in the same city, such as Manchester United and Manchester City in England, Atletico Madrid and Real Madrid in Spain, Inter Milan and AC Milan in Italy, Fenerbahce and Galatasaray in Istanbul, Turkey, and Boca Juniors and River Plate in Buenos Aires, Argentina; these are just some of the many examples of city football rivalries. In Israel the more well-known city rivalries are those between Maccabi Tel Aviv and Hapoel Tel Aviv, and Maccabi Haifa and Hapoel Haifa. In his article ‘Soccer Fandom and Citizenship in Israel’, Sorek (2007) explains the historic conflict between the fans of Bnei Sakhnin, the biggest and most successful Arab team in Israel, and Beitar Jerusalem, which historically represents the right wing of the Israeli political map. The teams’ two fan groups bring the Israeli-Palestinian conflict into the stadium mainly in the form of violence through chants with racist and hateful content. It seems that violence has become an integral part of the football world: the problem is experienced across the globe and each country is trying to manage the issue, with some achieving more success than others. In addition, the big football governing bodies such as UEFA and FIFA have taken measures to try to minimize or eradicate the problem by penalizing the clubs involved with financial sanctions or other methods of punishment like closing stadiums. In recent years the individuals involved in violence in football have been dealt with and punished either by the club itself or by the country’s legal system, but the problem exists and there is a long way to go before it is eliminated, especially in Israel.

A study researching the case of Israeli football violence from an urban ecology standpoint demonstrates that besides the structural characteristics of the social system, which is affected by urban ecology and by the surroundings that teams operate in and that affect spectator violence, the violence level of the fans is influenced by the violence level of the players. In the same research, four sociological explanations on how violence is systematically related to both the team’s urban ecology and sports ecology are presented as possible reasons and triggers for violent behaviour: ‘First, teams representing communities of subordinate ethnic minorities are more violent than others. Second, teams competing in higher level (professional) divisions and teams at either the bottom or top of their division (high levels of competition) are more violent. Third, teams characterized by violent players are more likely to have violent spectators. Finally, the causal relation between player and spectator violence is asymmetric: players affect spectators’ violence but not vice versa’ (Semyonov & Farbstein 1989, 50). The aim of the current research is to analyse the violence factor in a similar way as was done in the research by Semyonov and Farbstein. However, the difference is that the current research seeks to test the violence factor from an economic point of view.

In difference to the last article presented, which studied the influence on violence from a specific point of view, there are studies that claim that to fully explain and understand sports crowd violence one must perform studies involving a dialogue across academic disciplines. That way it is possible to approach the issue and find the origins of violence that arises from the dynamic interplay between individual, interpersonal, situational, social environmental and social structural factors. In a more simple way one can conclude that there is no single factor that can individually explain sports crowd violence (Spaaij, 2014). Even so, in this thesis violence is researched as one more factor that affects football fan attitude. So despite the fact that in author’s opinion the right and complete way to research the origins of violence is to perform interdisciplinary research, for the purpose of the attitude research carried out here, it is sufficient to address violence as a factor itself regardless of its origins, as the aim of the study is different.

After understanding factors affecting football economics, a set of data will be presented next to better understand the Israeli football market. In particular the economic importance of this sector, the budgets the teams have, match attendance and football popularity through TV ratings data will be shown. According to the Israeli central bureau of statistics, Israel’s population size at the end of August 2016 stands at 8,571.2K, with a GDP of approximately 300,000M NIS (New Israeli Shekel) putting Israel in the 35th position in the world. In 2011 a ranking of European football leagues was published by the webpage Bleacherreport placing the Israeli Ligat Ha-Al Football league in the 18th place among the power ranking of the top 30 leagues in Europe, and FIFA placed the Israeli national team in the 79th place in the world in the ranking published on October 20 2016. The league that consists of 14 teams has a total market value of 129,65M Euros and is ranked 23th on the UEFA coefficient for the season of 2016/2017 (*http://www.transfermarkt.com/*, no date). The Market value in the season of 2014/2015 was 21,45M on the high end for Maccabi Haifa, and 4,13M on the low end for Hapoel Raanana. The total attendance in the league during the season of 2014/2015 was 1,548,337; the 5 studied teams had a combined average attendance of 57,498 spectators per match (Maccabi Tel Aviv – 12,898, Hapoel Tel Aviv – 8,270, Beitar Jerusalem – 9,500, Maccabi Haifa – 23,718 and Ironi Kiryat Shemona – 3,112) (Sports, no date). According to the Israel Football Association, in the season of 2015/2016 the TV audience ratings on watching Israeli football matches were at 9.52%; this is an increase from previous seasons that reported a 9.1% in 2014/2015 and 8.5% in 2011/2012 (Service, 2016). Last it is widely agreed in the media that football is the most popular sport in Israel, as it is in most parts of the world. After seeing from a wider perspective what Israeli football looks like, in the next part a more specific background on the five teams relevant for this research is presented, including the clubs’ history, track record and fan club groups.

**Chapter 2**

**THE IMPORTANCE OF FANS’ CONSUMPTION FOR THE ECONOMICS OF FOOTBALL CLUBS**

After understanding the process consumers go through in a purchase and how football fans’ attitude constructs are formed, in this chapter the market in which football fans act is presented. A general review of the football market and a specific review of the Israeli football market are presented, including football economics, audience levels influencers, sport fan money and time-spending habits, supporter loyalty and violence. In addition, some background on the league and the selected clubs that are part of this research will be given.

**Background on the Israeli League and the Selected Clubs**

The Israeli football league was officially established in 1931, but its beginnings date back to 1928, when the Israeli Football Association (IFA) was created. In the first season nine teams competed and the champions were the British police team. Since then, changes have been made to the league format, and today the top Israeli league competition is called Ligat Winner, or Ligat Ha-Al. Fourteen teams take part in a league system with three rounds and a total of 36 match days. The winner is the one standing at the top of the table at the end of the season. Apart from the league matches, two more cup competitions are played: the Toto Cup at the beginning of the season and the State Cup (Gvia HaMedina) played over the season in a knockout system. The league winner gets a place in the second round of qualification to the UEFA Champions League competition. The winner of the State Cup, as well as the teams finishing the league in second and third place, get a place in the second round of qualification to the UEFA Europa League.

According to different publications, Israeli teams do not realize even half of their commercial potential in relation to the local market; moreover, the teams lose money consistently and end each year with financial loses. Since the clubs operate as non-profit associations, they are not obligated to publish their financial reports, and when they do publish them, the reports are partial and ambiguous most of the time (Snir, 2013). According to data published by the government, most of the income resources come directly or indirectly from the public; 78% of the teams receive financial support from the public and the origin of the remaining 12% is unclear. The total budget of the teams in Ligat Ha-Al for the 2015/16 season stood at 538 million NIS; out of this, at least 50% came from the public. Within the 538-million budget of the teams, at least 10% came directly from public support funds from the municipalities and local councils, about 10% came from the Toto (the only legal association allowed to manage gambling in Israel), and between 15% and 20% of revenues came from the sale of tickets to the public. Up to 15% come from the sale of broadcasting rights and other funds that the director recruited and raised. About 2% come from the Ministry of Sports in the form of subsidies of this kind and others, including money for security in the stadiums (Daskal, 2017).

Incomes of the clubs besides public funds came from different sources, such as regular and seasonal tickets that generate revenues of around 100,000 NIS per match for each team. This varies according to the team’s position in the league, for example Hapoel Tel Aviv’s income from tickets stood at 2.1 million after match expenses, and Maccabi Tel Aviv’s income from tickets before expenses was 18 million, which represents the main income source of the club. Another source of income, as mentioned above, is broadcasting rights that generate between 6 and 8 million NIS annually for the clubs. Like in the rest of the world, each team has sponsors that advertise themselves through the team in exchange for money; the main sponsor of a team in the middle league table pays one million NIS, while the pay for a team such as Beitar Jerusalem can reach 4 million. More incomes may came from selling players; UEFA (when a team participates in international competitions) – such is the case for Maccabi Tel Aviv, which gained close to 6 million NIS from their participation in a UEFA tournament; another source of income for some teams are loans. If, as reported, the teams lose money every year, the owners of each club are responsible for covering the difference between the insufficient incomes and the high expenses (Digital, 2007; (Nativ, 2015); Daskal, 2015b).

The clubs chosen for this research are the ones that won a league title (championship) over the past ten years (2005–2015): Maccabi Tel Aviv FC (three championships, in the 2012/2013, 2013/2014 and 2014/2015 seasons), Maccabi Haifa FC (three championships, in 2005/2006, 2008/2009 and 2010/2011), Beitar Jerusalem FC (two championships, in 2006/2007 and 2007/2008), Hapoel Tel Aviv FC (one championship in 2009/2010), and Ironi Kiryat Shemona FC (one championship in 2011/2012). In the next part some brief background on the selected teams will be presented.

Maccabi Tel-Aviv FC was founded in 1906, originally under the name Rishon Lezion – Jaffa Society. In 1909, with the foundation of the city of Tel Aviv, the club changed its name to the current one. Over the years the club won 22 league championships and 27 cups, making Maccabi the most successful club in the country. The club is privately owned by businessman Mitchell Goldhar. The budget of the team is the highest in the league standing at over 100M NIS; with an income close to 90M, the club has a deficit of 58M. This difference is covered annually mostly by the owners and loans; this is true for all clubs in Israel (Daskal, 2015b). Maccabi's main fan club is named ‘Maccabi Fanatics’. This fan club was founded after ‘The 12 Player’ fan club was closed in 2012, and in 2013 ‘Maccabi Fanatics’ was merged with ‘Ultras Maccabi 96’.

Maccabi Haifa FC was founded in 1913 but with the start of World War I it stopped its activities until 1919, when the club reactivated its activities. In 1925, the club split into two clubs – Maccabi Haifa and Hapoel Haifa. The club has been proclaimed league champion 12 times and cup winner 9 times. The club is a privately owned by businessman Ya'akov Shahar, being one of the most stable clubs in terms of ownership. Not a lot of financial information is being published, but we know from some publications that the club’s budget stands around 80M and has a natural income of 54M (Daskal, 2015b). Haifa's main fan club is called ‘HaKofim HaYerukim’ (Green Monkeys) and it was founded in 2002. In 2010 another fan club named ‘Inferno Verde’ was founded with the purpose to give additional support to the team. In addition to these two fan clubs, Haifa has an official fan club with about 20,000 members. In some surveys performed at the beginning of the 21 century, Haifa was found to be the most supported team in Israel.

Beitar Jerusalem FC was founded in 1936 in Jerusalem. At the beginning the team was an amateur team and the club had a strong political relation to the ‘Etzel’ – an underground militia against the British rolling in Israel. In 1943 the team became professional and joined the Israeli league. Since then the club has been proclaimed league champion 6 times and cup winner 9 times. The club is privately owned by businessman Eli Tabib. Among the top Israeli clubs, Beitar has the lowest budget standing at 37M; this is probably because of the low income – for example their sponsorship is only 3M (Daskal, 2015b). Despite the fact that many years have passed, Beitar still holds the strong image of a club that is identified with the right wing on the political map. In 2005 a radical fan cell named ‘La Familia’ was created. It is known for its racist and extreme political views. Its members were accused of serious violent acts and the organization has many times been compared with the Italian mafia.

Hapoel Tel-Aviv FC was founded in 1923 as an association for sports representing the Jewish proletariat in Israel. The professional football team of the club was formed in 1926. The club has been proclaimed league champion 13 times and cup winner 17 times and has reached the best achievements among Israeli teams in Europe. Currently the club is owned by businessman and art collector Amir Gross Kabiri, after years of instability and legal disputes over ownership rights for the club. The club experienced a decrease of 25% in seasonal and regular tickets sales compared with the previous season, so the budget for the season was set to 54M, with an accumulated loss of 60M (Daskal, 2015b). The team has two main fan clubs, Raising Red (‘Adom Ole’) and Red Devils (‘Hashedim HaHadumim’).

Ironi Kiryat Shemona FC is a relatively young club founded in 2000 with the union of Hapoel Kiryat Shemona and Maccabi Kiryat Shemona that had struggled in the lower divisions for many years. Only in 2006 the team participated in the top Israeli league for the first time; since then the club has won one league championship and 3 cup titles. The club is owned by businessman Izzy Sheratzky, who has begun to invest in the club in 2000, until he became the owner and set the budget to 20M NIS for the season (Daskal, 2015b). With Kiryat Shemona being a young club, its main fans are from Kiryat Shemona City and its surroundings located in the north of Israel. The fan club name is ‘Blue Lions 07’ and they are considered one of the best crowds in Israel by the media.

**The Basics of Football Economics**

In this part the author will present first the different aspects of previous research dealing with football economics from different angles. Special attention is given to the literature on audience levels influencers, sport fan money and time-spending, and supporter loyalty, as these are the main factors used in this study. After that a part reviewing the literature on violence is presented, focusing on sport violence in general and violence in football specifically. Last, a review of data regarding the economics of the football market in Israel and that of the clubs that are part of this study is shown.

‘*Academic interest in the economics of professional team sports dates back as far as the mid-1950s. Since then, many books and journal articles have been written on the subject*’ (Dobson & Goddard, 2009, 1). There are two articles that are categorized as fundamental in the development of the field of team sports economics research. Rottenberg (1956) presents and analyses in his article ‘*a number of market problems which are interesting because of some unusual characteristics of the baseball labour market and the organization of the baseball industry*’ (Rottenberg, 1956, 242). On the other hand, Neale's (1964) article performs a comparison of the professional sports industry to a regular firm in another market. Through this comparison he presents the unique economic characteristics of professional sports entities as businesses.

In a more specific way, through the examination of the Chester Report, which shows data concerning player's wages, conditions of employment and the amounts of transfer fees paid by one club to another for professional footballers, research on the economics of football was carried out by Sloane (1969). In his article the author analyses and discusses the current form of employment, the rationale of retainment and the transfer system. It is presented and checked again empirically. In summary, the author analyses the recommendations of the report concerning the issues above and their future impact.

In more recent years, the economy and management of football clubs were widely covered in the literature, for example in articles addressing issues like connections between supporters’ emotions or changes in brands connected to a club. The study by Abosag et al. (2012) showed through the development and test of a model the conceptualization of the relationship between supporters’ emotional attachment, supporters’ brand perception and strength, and their support for brand extension in different ways. This model confirms that fans that have a strong emotional attachment to their club have a stronger perception of the club as a brand and support brand extension.

Similar to Abosag et al. (2012), Funk & James (2006) examined in their article the mediating role of attachment. According to their paper, the attachment process is the process by which an individual moves from merely liking a team (attraction) to becoming loyal to a team (allegiance). The results reflect that allegiance is the outcome of a process by which individuals develop stronger emotional reactions to, more functional knowledge about, and greater symbolic value for benefits and attributes associated with a sport team.

Blumrodt et al. (2013) examined the social responsibility aspect in professional football; more specifically, they investigated corporate social responsibility (CSR) actions in the professional European football league and their impact on clubs’ brand image. They reached the conclusion that Keller’s model of customer-based brand equity had to be reconsidered for football clubs.

Many others that analyse and study football from an economic point of view, such as for example Irwin, Sutton & McCarthy (2008), focus on the marketing aspect in sport organizations and present a view of the sport industry as a unique promotion and sales medium. An article on managing and leadership in sports is the one by Soucie (1994). The author reviews the research literature that pertains to (1) leadership influence and power, (2) leadership traits and skills, (3) leadership behaviours, (4) situational leadership and (5) charismatic and transformational leadership. The author reached the conclusion that there were no absolute truths about effective leadership. Effective sport administrators do come in different sizes, shapes and colours and will differ with each organizational context, but they are certainly visible and they certainly manifest themselves.

To understand the football market, it is important to present its evolution and economics. In the past football had over 300,000 clubs worldwide, in every small town in Europe. Many players were amateurs and some were low‐wage professionals, for example English premier league players earned just above the average English wage in the early 1980s. In 1970, money entered the game through sponsorships and broadcasting revenues. This changed the market completely. The first of the major changes in the size of the market was shirt sponsorship, the second one organized corporate sponsorship (in the 1982 world cup at $19 million), followed by stadium naming rights. The 2006 world cup successfully achieved corporate sponsorship that rose to $525 million, and in 2010 shirt sponsorship in European football stood at more than 470 million Euro. The total revenue of football clubs around the world in the year 2013 stood on $38 billion. All this growth in the market is due to the globalization in the world that also had an impact on the football market. This process gave the clubs the opportunity to first grow beyond the limits of their home city, country and continent, permitting them to reach other customers (Andrews, 2015).

**The Sport Fan Money and Time-Spending factor**

As we can understand from this quote from the paper by Dixon, ‘*to practice is to consume, not only in a monetary or utilitarian sense, but it also serves to convey a way of thinking, with agents' spending money, time and part of themselves on football*’ (Dixon 2013, 1). So we can see that consuming is a big part of football fans’ habits. In terms of money spending, it is different from that in other markets mostly because these fans have the motivation to buy in a manner that often has nothing to do with personal taste (Dixon, 2013). An important fact is that ‘*routine acts of consumption are not simply repetitive forms of behaviour that are ‘carried out mindlessly and without significance’*’ (Giddens 1984, 86). So also for the football fan every act of consumption must be rooted in some deeper explanation for this behaviour.

Together with the practice of consumption by spending money, for the football fan spending time in different ways to support the team is no less important and significant than, for example, purchasing tickets or merchandising. This is why in the literature there is a debate on the difference between the terms ‘consumers’ and ‘fans’ (Dixon, 2013). These two types of consumption (money and time spending), *‘[occur] in the home – involving the delivery of newspapers and the consumption of themed television programs and internet websites. Second, within the stadium vicinity – purchasing a drink; gambling; match-day program; and a meal deal’* (Dixon 2013, 81).

The football market is an industry that generates millions of dollars; a great part of that income comes from fans’ spending. Hard-core fans and regular supporters spend thousands of dollars a year on things related to their favourite team. The range of possible spending is wide – from tickets to a single match or season tickets, travel to an away game or local transportation or parking for a home game, to more general expenses such as drinks and food before, during or after the games, merchandise such as jerseys, hats, scarfs or any other product related to the club (Dison, 2014).

The importance of the fans to clubs is reflected in the fact that in the last years some companies have developed new and modern methods to maximize the potential income that comes from fans and is considered essential to maximize the income of the clubs generated from the fans’ spending. Modernization is a key to manage and understand fans habits; for that reason, digital and social media are a growing tool in following, gathering information, analysing and making business decisions by clubs regarding the fans (*Transforming Sports Fan Habits, Engagement Factors in the Digital Age*, no date).

Reinforcing the idea that *‘teams generate revenue through sponsorship, television deals, merchandise sales, concessions, and ticket revenue’* (Porter 2008, 93), in Porter's book ‘The Sport Enterprise: A Student's Perspective 2nd Edition’, more evidence for the importance of how to sell more tickets to generate a higher revenue per capita and of selling extra items to fans that buy tickets and come to the game, is shown.

In parallel to the money-spending habit of the sport fan, the fan also spends time on things related to the team. That is why it is important to research the sport fan’s time-spending habits. Over the course of the years and the development and modernization of the football market, fans’ ways of involvement and ways of supporting their team have gained a wider range of possibilities. Before, time was spent mostly on preparing cheering equipment and gaining knowledge through conversations (mostly face to face) or through radio or television later on. Today the possibilities of spending time on team-related matters are more diverse.

Social media have become an important tool for football clubs to create a more fluid and close relation between the fans and the team. So the clubs must invest not only in their website, but mostly into where teenagers and young adults spend their time online – social networking sites (Tyler, 2002).

Technology, social media and internet usage have gained so much importance that even the influence of still relevant newspapers and magazines is declining (Weaver, 2011). For example reports show that approximately 2 billion internet users are using social networks. For example Twitter has 328M active users. Instagram has 700M and Facebook has 2047M active users (Statista, 2017), so it is evident that social media have become an important tool for people to be in touch with each other and to be closer to their fields of interest, including sports and football (Weaver, 2011).

Another way many fans spend their time is in fantasy football games that have become popular in the last years. In those online games, the user creates a team and manages it over a season while competing against other users by collecting points depending of the performance of the football players in real life (Kelly, Lewis and Mortimer, 2012). This growing phenomenon produces some interesting data; the estimated number of players in 2017 reached 59.3 million in the USA and Canada alone, each spending on average $556 annually. Ten years ago, in 2007, the estimated number of players stood at 19.4 million. This important increase is evidence of growth in fantasy gaming. Beside the money spent on these games, players also dedicate an average of 3 days played per month.

**Influencers on the Audience Levels Factor**

When dealing with audience size, factors such as opportunity cost, quality, outcome uncertainty and supporter loyalty have been widely examined in past studies. For the purposes of this article, a different factor, fan attitudes, will be investigated to learn how these attitudes affect football audiences and vice versa. This subchapter *‘investigates factors which affect football audiences and can be influenced by the structure and regulations of the league*’ (Kuypers, 1997, 5).

The research on audience encompasses two main types of audiences. The direct audience consists of all the people who are at the stadium to watch the game directly from the pitch. The second type of audience, the indirect one, refers to the people watching the game via mass media or on the internet (Wann *et al.*, 2001). When it comes to TV spectators, ‘*[t]he beginning of audience studies can be traced to the 1920s and 1930s when the mass-culture thesis emerged*’ (Gerhardt, 2006, 126). Gerhardt (2006) uses the ATTAC model (Analysing the Television Audience’s Conversation) to better understand the level of involvement of people watching football on television. He reached the conclusion that people watching football on television wish to become part of the game and spectacle and try to accomplish that by using television as a bridge to the game itself.

Researchers initially characterized the audience as passive. With the advance of technology, from media text through books, newspapers and magazines to video games and TV, many articles have studied the influences of the content transmitted to the helpless audience, which is held captive by new forms of media like the internet. The shift from thinking about the audience as passive towards considering it active occurred thanks to new British cultural studies such as that by Hall (1980), which studied the type of audience involvement in terms of four aspects:

1. the role of encoding and decoding from the vantage point of television production;
2. the process of television production as a series of codes and signs that are constructed in order to relay specific messages;
3. the role that television production plays in encouraging a ‘preferred meaning or reading’ and the issue of misreading signs;
4. finally, he presents three types of codes – dominant or hegemonic, professional and negotiated – and shows how they affect the viewer’s connotative meaning.

Morley (1980) also studied the audience’s type of involvement from a different angle. He investigated the degree of complementarity between the codes of the program and the interpretive codes of various sociocultural groups, and the extent to which decoding takes place within the limits of the preferred manner in which the message has been initially encoded. The results of his study show that the audience decodes the messages in an active viewing manner.

Many studies focus on levels of demand for sport. In a review of the relevant literature, Borland & MacDonald (2003) suggest lessons for decision makers in both the professional sports industry and government. They claim that there is still much to be learned about demand for professional sport, and that there are no simple lessons to be drawn from the existing literature. But important messages do emerge from studies on demand for attendance with regard to the effects of uncertainty of outcome, quality of contest and quality of viewing. Dietschy (2013) looks at attendance in a comparative examination of the relationship between a Europe-dominated FIFA and the rest of the football world. The study concludes that the history of the relations between FIFA and Latin American, Asian and African football associations shows that FIFA’s construction of world football was no mere imperialistic operation. Other researchers have studied attendance using different approaches. Among them are Greenwell (2001), who examines levels of demand for sports with a conceptual framework that looks at the physical facility along with the core product and service processes as they contribute to customer satisfaction and profitability. Four main conclusions were drawn: (1) the service experience was important in predicting customer satisfaction; (2) team identification influenced the way customers perceived the physical facility and the core product; (3) customer satisfaction was an important predictor of profitability; (4) demographic differences had some influence on how customers perceive the elements of the service experience. There is also work by Giulianotti & Robertson (2004) which focuses on the effect of the globalization of football. One of the elements they looked at is the audience. Their results bring to the discussion five particular ways that might contribute to a sociological understanding of globalization:

* 1. the seriousness of football globalization is such that sociological analyses of sport must enhance empirical and theoretical understandings of globalization in general;
  2. it places the cultures of globalization at the heart of the sociology of football;
  3. the global-realist perspective interprets major cultural institutions such as football clubs as TNCs that possess high degrees of globality;
  4. commodification processes inevitably impact upon globalization cultures, threatening some communities with social exclusion from meaningful participation in the constructive relativization of their cultural identities and practices through sport;
  5. address contemporary conceptions of humankind and how, within at least one cultural sphere, the world can become ‘for itself’.

To better understand this factor, it is useful to examine data on attendance and audience. Data on occupancy rates across Europe show that the stadiums in England have a 96% occupancy, which is the highest on the continent, followed by Germany with 92% and the Netherlands with 87%. Next is Belgium with 74%, and Spain and France close with 68% and 67% respectively. Italy sits toward the bottom of the list with 55%, and Portugal comes in last with an attendance rate of 26% (Schnater, 2016). The occupancy rate in Israel is 44.5% (Daskal 2016).

This chapter reviewed the literature dealing with football economics in general and in Israel in particular, presenting data that show the economic magnitude of the football market as a leading sport in the country. More specifically, 4 factors were covered: Audience Levels Influencers, Sport Fan Money and Time-Spending, Supporter Loyalty and Violence. All of these were addressed concerning sports in general, football in particular and more specifically football in Israel. After that background on the Israeli league and the selected clubs that are part of this study was given. In this chapter it is possible to see the importance of the football market in the world and in Israel specifically from a sociological point of view, but also in its economic aspect, considering the special history of the league and clubs, the behaviour of the fans as consumers and the level of violence presented in the sport. In the next chapter a literature review of the methodology of research on sports and football is presented in the first part; in the second part, a description of the methodology used in this study is explained.

**Chapter 3**

**RESULTS and CONCLUSIONS**

In this chapter the author presents the results of the research and their interpretation; this will be the basis for the verification of the hypotheses tested in the study. Firstly, the author analyses some articles studying attitudes in general, then articles testing cognitive, affective and behavioural constructs, and finally some measuring violence in different ways. For each of those constructs and factors different approaches are presented. It is possible to see that there are major differences in some cases while in others similar methods were implemented. Special attention was given to the instrument of measurement and the number of items used for each factor. A summary of these articles is presented in tables 3.1 to 3.5, after which the author presents the method used for the purpose of this study. After all this the statistical results are presented for each of the five hypotheses, followed by a discussion of the findings. In all hypotheses the following three variables were used: the cognitive construct, the affective construct and the behavioural construct. The three were measured based on the data collected in the questionnaire – the cognitive construct with 9 questions, the affective construct with 8 and the behavioural construct with 13.

**Research Design**

**Description of the Population and Sample**

After reviewing, comparing and explaining the methodology used for this research, next a description of the relevant population and sample will be presented, and finally a comparison of the population and the sample will be made to prove the relevance of the research.

Due to the lack of a proven structure of the population of Israeli football fans, reference data were obtained from a survey performed by an Israeli economics magazine regarding Israeli sports fans in general (Daskal, 2015a). The statistics from that study show that 70% of the fans are male, the predominant age of a fan is 35, 45% of fans are between 25 and 45 years old, and 72% have an education higher than high school. Regarding religion, 46% are secular, 43% religious at some level, and 11% are in the ‘other’ category. In terms of economic status, 47% are above average, 20% are average, and 33% are below average. Despite this spread, the average amount a regular fan (not avid or fanatic) spends on team-related items (tickets, TV sports channels, merchandising, and travel expenses) stands at 1,030 NIS per year, while an avid or fanatic fan spends 2,022 NIS per year, which is almost twice as much as a regular fan. The same study shows that 82% of the regular fans attend matches at the stadium twice a year at most, while 59% of the fanatic fans attend matches at the stadium at least once every two months (Daskal, 2015a).

After understanding the population relevant to this research, next is the division of the fans by team as presented in table 3.6. Only the statistics of the teams participating in this study were included. The percentages were based on attendance to the matches. In one survey the results were as follow: 38.4% were fans of Maccabi Haifa, 21.6% fans of Maccabi Tel Aviv, 18.4% of Beitar Jerusalem, 18.2% of Hapoel Tel Aviv and 3.4% of Ironi Kiryat Shemona (Sports, no date). In another similar study published in another magazine the results were as follows: 39.7% were fans of Maccabi Haifa, 27.2% fans of Maccabi Tel Aviv, 16.9% of Beitar Jerusalem, 12.8% of Hapoel Tel Aviv and 3.4% of Ironi Kiryat Shemona (Editors, 2015). In this author’s research the percentages gathered from the questionnaires were as follows: 37.7% were fans of Maccabi Haifa, 24.1% fans of Maccabi Tel Aviv, 20% of Beitar Jerusalem, 15.9% of Hapoel Tel Aviv and 2.3% of Ironi Kiryat Shemona.

**Table 3.1. Comparison of fan division by teams in previous studies and in this study.**

|  |  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
| **Team** | **Study 1** | **Study 2** | **Combined** | **This Study** |
| Maccabi Haifa | 38.4% | 39.7% | 39.0% | 37.7% |
| Maccabi Tel Aviv | 21.6% | 27.2% | 24.4% | 24.1% |
| Beitar Jerusalem | 18.4% | 16.9% | 17.7% | 20.0% |
| Hapoel Tel Aviv | 18.2% | 12.8% | 15.5% | 15.9% |
| Ironi Kiryat Shemona | 3.4% | 3.4% | 3.4% | 2.3% |

Source: own compilation based on Sports (n.d.) and Editors (2015)

Table 3.1 shows that between studies 1 and 2 there were not a lot of differences in the breakdown of fans by team between previous research and the current research. The differences that appear between the percentages in the previous studies and the author’s study stem from the fact that in the previous studies the percentages of fans of each team were calculated by factoring in attendance, while in the author’s study the percentages were calculated from data collected in the survey with a specific question: ‘Which one is your favourite team?’.

The last thing that needed to be known was the population that was represented by the sampling of the research, and the distribution of fans across the five teams that are part of this study in previous studies and in the present thesis. The comparison between those two distributions was made. Next, the demographic profiles of the research sample are presented and compared to the population. In the sample of this research the participants answered a series of questions in the questionnaire regarding demographic and general information. From this data one can see that 93.8% of the participants were male and 6.2% female. The ages of the fans in this study were divided into three groups: 11–24, 25–40 and 40 or older. The results showed that 51.3% were between the age of 11 and 24, 42.6% between 25 and 40, and 6.1% of the people that participated in the survey were aged 40 or older. Regarding the education level, if divided into two categories, people with high school education or lower comprised 36.9% of the participants, while 63.1% had an education higher than high school. Last, the socioeconomic status of the participants was 8.9% below average, 57.1% average and 34.1% above average.

**Table 3.2. Comparison of the demographic profile of the fans in the previous study and this study.**

|  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- |
| **Factor** |  | **Previous Study** | **This Study** |
| Gender | Male | 70% | 93.8% |
| Female | 30% | 6.2% |
| Age | 11-24 | - | 51.3% |
| 25-40 | 45% | 42.6% |
| 40+ | - | 6.1% |
| Education | High school or lower | 28% | 36.9% |
| Higher than high school | 72% | 63.1% |
| Socioeconomic status | Below average | 33% | 8.9% |
| Average | 20% | 57.1% |
| Above average | 47% | 34.1% |

Source: own research

As is evident from Table 3.2, the factors of age and education were similar in the previous and the current study. 42.6% of respondents were between the ages of 25 and 40; this statistic is similar to the one in the previous study with 45% in the same age range. Also in the previous study the percentages were similar regarding the education factor, with 28% of the fans having high school education or lower, and 72% having an education higher than high school; this is relatively close to the percentages in the current study. The difference in the gender factor probably stems from the method with which each research was conducted. While in previous studies the participants were targeted to meet the desired percentages, in this author’s study this was conducted in a more random way. So this statistical difference can support the assumption that male fans are more involved and willing to participate in questionnaires dealing with football. The difference in socioeconomic status between the previous study and the current one is significant as can be seen in table 3.2. According to Statistics (2012), the data in their report regarding socioeconomic status in the population showed that 11.6% were below average, 68.3% average and 20% above average. The statistics in this author’s study were closer to the data published in the report than to the distribution in the previous study.

**Presentation of the Measurement Method**

As seen above, each construct can be measured by different factors, and each factor can be measured by different items; this will depend on the goal of the research. For the purposes of this study, the method used *‘is a combination of previous methods, employed with the hope that with this method it will be possible to achieve a more accurate and deeper understanding of what fans' attitudes are and that the measurements will reflect a more clear and realistic picture’* (Białowąs 2017, 226).

The questionnaire was designed to measure the three attitude constructs as well as six more factors and some additional demographic data. All were measured with a self-report method. As explained above, the attitude was formed and measured with the affective (emotional) construct, which itself was measured with 8 items; the cognitive construct was measured with 9 items and the behavioural construct was measured with 13 items. The other factors used in this study were measured as follows: attendance and audience were considered as connected so they were measured together with 5 items, money-spending habits with 8 items, time-spending habits with 8 items, loyalty with 4 items and some other general factors (such as family etc.) that influence fans’ attitudes were tested with 6 items. And last, the violence factor was measured with 18 items, all this in addition to 8 items that gather demographic information on the participants as well as one more question asking for the participants’ favourite team out of a list of 5 teams.

**Review of the Procedures Used**

There are two approaches to measuring attitudes: the explicit process and the implicit process. In the first, the subject’s answers come from conscious attention; the subject is aware of how the attitude is being assessed. In contrast, in the implicit process, there is no requirement of conscious attention as the subject is unaware that the attitude is being assessed (Maio & Haddock, 2010).

In this dissertation an explicit process was implemented. Two methods that were originally developed with the purpose of measuring attitudes are the Thurstone scale and the Likert scale. The Thurstone scale developed by Thurstone (1928) was created by adapting methods of psychophysical scaling to measure attitudes. And the Likert was developed Scale by Likert (1932) with a technique of summated ratings to measure attitudes.

In the first phase the questionnaire was filled out by 12 participants to test the tool and check for errors and problems. After this pilot phase and the correction of all problems reported by the participants, the questionnaire was distributed to a larger population to collect the final sample. The questionnaire used in this study was designed and written in Hebrew because the target population was football fans living in Israel. After the questionnaire was finalized, it was translated into English for the purposes of presenting this thesis.

An online survey was conducted using an online survey platform (Google Forms), and the link to the questionnaire was published on Facebook and several internet forums. A total of 1,264 responses were received, out of which 158 (12.5%) were discarded due to several errors or incomplete forms. Thus the final number of respondents was 1,106 (87.5% of all questionnaires received).

The data were collected through the questionnaire over a period of approximately four months, during the last phases of the Israeli league’s 2015/2016 season. It must be specified that because the research was planned and conducted before the end of the playoffs, it was not possible to include the league champion, Hapoel Be’er Sheva, which did not win any championship during the ten years before this study.

**Subchapter 3.2 – Factors Shaping the Attitudes Forming**

Hypothesis 1 – The way a fan becomes a fan affects the attitude of the fan more than demographic and socioeconomic factors do.

This hypothesis compares what affects the attitude of the fan more – the way of becoming one or the demographic and socioeconomic status. The three variables used and tested for this hypothesis were, first, the age of the fan (this was asked for with one open question). Second was the socioeconomic status, which was tested with one question with five options to choose from (far below average, below average, average, above average and far above average). And third was the way of becoming a team fan, which was tested with one question with eight options to choose from: ‘My Dad / my brother was a team fan’, ‘The stadium was close to my home’, ‘In my youth I played for the team’, ‘Through friends at school’, ‘Through friends at the army’, ‘Through friends at work’, ‘I connected to the team alone’ and one open option to fill in manually if none of the other options are suitable. Each of the three factors was analysed against the three constructs.

**Table 3.2.1. Pearson’s correlation between the age and the three attitude constructs.**

|  |  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
| **Factor 1** | **Factor 2** | **Significant** | **At** | **Pearson** |
| Age | Cognitive | Yes | 0.0001 | **-0.345** |
| Affective | Yes | 0.0001 | **-0.327** |
| Behaviour | Yes | 0.0001 | -0.182 |

Source: own research

As presented in Table 3.2.1, the age variable shows significant results. Using the Pearson test, the results show a moderate negative connection between age and the cognitive construct meaning the older the fan is, the weaker is his cognitive connection with the team. Also a moderate negative connection between age and the affective construct is evident, meaning the older the fan is the weaker his affective connection with the team is. And a weak negative connection between age and the behaviour construct is visible, meaning the older the fan is the weaker his behavioural connection with the team is. So it is possible to say that the older the fan is, the weaker his attitude towards the team is. According to these results the club should mainly try to strengthen the attitude of older fans by raising their cognitive and affective constructs to create a stronger attitude that will keep the fan at high levels of fanhood even when he gets older.

Seven ways of becoming a fan were included in the questionnaire and each was tested against the three constructs with the help of a t-test. The first way presented to the participants was ‘My Dad / my brother was a team fan’; following are the results for the participants that choose this option.

**Table 3.2.2. T-test for the ways of becoming a fan (‘My Dad / my brother was a team fan’) and the three attitude constructs.**

|  |  |  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
| **Factor 1** | **Construct** | **Mean for ‘no’** | **Means for ‘yes’** | **Difference** | **T-test significance** |
| My Dad / my brother was a team fan | Cognitive | 3.5486 | 3.8310 | 0.2824 | 0.0001 |
| Affective | 3.8712 | **4.1255** | 0.2543 | 0.0001 |
| Behaviour | 2.7168 | 2.9633 | 0.2465 | 0.0001 |

Source: own research

The analysis shows significant results for the three constructs. For the cognitive construct, the results show a stronger connection for those who answered with this option of becoming a fan than for those who answered with another option. For the affective construct, the results show a stronger connection for those who answered with this option of becoming a fan than for those who answered with another option. And for the behaviour construct, the results show a stronger connection for those who answered with this option of becoming a fan than for those who answered with another option (for details see Table 3.2.2). The conclusion is that people that become fans because ‘My Dad / my brother was a team fan’ have a stronger cognitive, affective and behavioural attitude than people that become fans in a different way.

**Table 3.2.3. T-test for the ways of becoming a fan (‘Through friends at school’) and the three attitude constructs.**

|  |  |  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
| **Factor 1** | **Construct** | **Mean for ‘no’** | **Means for ‘yes’** | **Difference** | **T-test significance** |
| Through friends at school | Cognitive | 3.7594 | 3.5260 | 0.2334 | 0.0020 |
| Affective | **4.0685** | 3.8190 | 0.2495 | 0.0001 |
| Behaviour | 2.9068 | 2.6714 | 0.2354 | 0.0001 |

Source: own research

The next option that was significant is ‘Through friends at school’. This option was significant for the cognitive, affective and behaviour constructs. For the cognitive construct the results show a weaker connection for those who answered with this option of becoming a fan than for those who answered with another option. For the affective construct the results show a weaker connection for those who answered with this option of becoming a fan than for those who answered with another option. For the behaviour construct the results show a weaker connection for those who answered with this option of becoming a fan than for those who answered with another option (see details in Table 3.2.3). The conclusion is that people that become fans through friends at school have a weaker cognitive, affective and behavioural attitude than people that become fans in a different way.

**Table 3.2.4. T-test for the ways of becoming a fan (‘In my youth I played for the team’) and the three attitude constructs.**

|  |  |  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
| **Factor 1** | **Construct** | **Mean for ‘no’** | **Means for ‘yes’** | **Difference** | **T-test significance** |
| In my youth I played for the team | Cognitive |  |  |  | 0.485 |
| Affective |  |  |  | 0.345 |
| Behaviour | 2.8392 | 3.1593 | 0.3201 | 0.001 |

Source: own research

The option of ‘In my youth I played for the team’ was only significant for the behaviour construct. For those who answered with this option of becoming a fan the results show a stronger connection than for those who answered with another option (see details in Table 3.2.4). The cognitive and affective constructs did not show significant results at 0.485 and 0.345, respectively. The conclusion is that people that become fans because they played for the team in their youth have a stronger behavioural attitude than people that became fans in a different way.

Out of the other four options, ‘The stadium was close to my home’ was not significant with cognitive 0.476, affective 0.484, behaviour 0.085. ‘Through friends at the army’ was not significant with the cognitive construct at 0.851, the affective construct at 0.978 and the behaviour construct at 0.418. ‘Through friends at work’ was not significant with the cognitive construct at 0.836, the affective construct at 0.742 and the behaviour construct at 0.082. And ‘I connected to the team alone’ was not significant with the cognitive construct at 0.64, the affective construct at 0.741 and the behaviour construct at 0.159; so all of them did not show significant differences.

In light of the results presented above it is clear that out of all the different ways of becoming a fan, the way of ‘My Dad / my brother was a team fan’ has the strongest influence on the cognitive and affective construct, while the option ‘In my youth I played for the team’ has the strongest influence on the behavioural construct.

The socioeconomic factor was tested with Spearman's rank correlation test and did not show any significant results for the three constructs (cognitive at 0.057, affective at 0.125, behaviour at 0.801). So based on this there is no connection between socioeconomic status and football fan attitudes.

From the results on the three variables measured (age, ways of becoming a fan and socioeconomic status) against the three constructs, it is clear that the variable of ways of becoming a fan has the strongest influence on the three constructs, more than age or socioeconomic status. According to the results this variable has a stronger influence on the attitude than the other two. Based on these conclusions, the hypothesis ‘The way a fan becomes a fan affects the attitude of the fan more than demographic and socioeconomic factors do’ has been proven correct.

The results presented in Hypothesis 1 support in a way the conclusion presented by Funk & James (2006), stating that the features affecting the development of fanhood are sufficient to develop a connection. From this one can deduce that the development of fanhood, in other words the way to become a fan, is a strong influencer on the attitude developed. In this thesis the author confirms this idea by showing that the way of becoming a fan has more influence on the attitude than demographic and socioeconomic factors do.

The results expand the results of Trail and James (2001) and Wann (1995), which show that the development of fanhood for a team depends on some essential features. Funk's and James' (2006) results suggesting that those features are ones related to enhancing self-esteem, experiencing fond past memories and following a favourite object are supported by the results of this hypothesis, which indicate that the variable of ways of becoming a fan tested here has the strongest influence on the three constructs; the influence is stronger than that of age or socioeconomic status, as proven in the first hypothesis. Those same results also match the conclusion of Funk and Pastore (2000), which states that the process of attachment to a team has a strong influence on attitude. The studies by Bartholomew and Horowitz (1991) and Hazan et al. (1987) demonstrate that attachment is created during infancy and the results of this study also support this idea.

According to the above analysis, marketers in the football market should emphasise their efforts in maintaining the level of fanhood of older fans by increasing their attitude constructs. It should be more important to create the attitude at young age, more specifically, to crate that connection to the club through the fathers and brothers. Another way should be by generating opportunities for young people to be a part of the club by playing in it; this will create a connection to the team and club later on in life.

**Subchapter 3.3 - Aspects of Football Fans’ Time and Money Spending**

Hypothesis 2 – There is a relation between the attitude of the fan and his habits of spending time and money on team-related things.

This hypothesis verifies the connection of fans’ attitude with time and money-spending habits. The variables tested were money-spending habits, including on what the fans spend their money. The other variable is time-spending habits, and the last variable are the reasons for stopping to attend matches. Each of the factors was analysed against the three constructs.

**Table 3.3.1. Pearson’s correlation between the attitude constructs and money-spending habits.**

|  |  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
| **Factor 1** | **Factor 2** | **Significant** | **At** | **Pearson’s chi-squared** |
| Money-spending habits | Cognitive | Yes | 0.0001 | 0.578 |
| Affective | Yes | 0.0001 | 0.577 |
| Behaviour | Yes | 0.0001 | **0.890** |

Source: own research

The analysis shows significant results for the three constructs. Using Pearson’s test the results show a moderate positive connection between money-spending habits and the cognitive construct. The results also show a moderate positive connection between the money-spending habit variable and the affective construct, and a strong positive connection was reached between the money-spending habit variable and the behaviour construct (see details in Table 3.3.1). In light of these results, it is possible to say that the stronger the attitude is, the more money the fan will spend on things related to the team. More specifically, the connection between the money-spending habits factor and the behaviour construct is stronger than the connections with the cognitive or affective constructs. For the clubs to influence the fans’ money-spending habits and increase club income, they should approach the fan attitude through the behavioural construct.

**Table 3.3.2. Pearson’s correlation between the attitude constructs and time-spending habits.**

|  |  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
| **Factor 1** | **Factor 2** | **Significant** | **At** | **Pearson’s chi squared** |
| Time  Spending  habits | Cognitive | Yes | 0.0001 | 0.697 |
| Affective | Yes | 0.0001 | 0.673 |
| Behaviour | Yes | 0.0001 | **0.932** |

Source: own research

The time-spending habit variable shows significant results for the three constructs. When using Pearson’s test, the results show a strong positive connection between the time-spending habit and the cognitive construct. The results also show a strong positive connection between the time-spending habit variable and the affective construct, and a very strong positive connection between the time-spending habit and the behaviour construct (see details in Table 3.3.2). These results make it possible to say that the stronger the attitude is, the more time the fan will spend doing things related to the team. Like for the money-spending habits factor, for with the time-spending habits the behavioural construct has a stronger influence. If the club aims to raise the involvement of the fan with the team, it should approach the fan attitude also through the cognitive and affective constructs, but mainly target the behavioural construct part of his attitude.

In the next part the attitude is tested against different types of money spending. Five different types of money spending were tested: spending on tickets (seasonal or single), food and drinks at the stadium, merchandise of the team, paid TV channels for watching the games and traveling cost to the games. All were compared to the three constructs using the Spearman test, and all show results with significant connections at 0.0001.

**Table 3.3.3. Spearman's rank correlation coefficient between the attitude constructs and the different types of money-spending habits.**

|  |  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
| **Factor 1** | **Factor 2** | **Significant** | **At** | **Spearman’s rho** |
| Spending habits related to buying tickets | Cognitive | Yes | 0.0001 | 0.195 |
| Affective | Yes | 0.0001 | 0.227 |
| Behaviour | Yes | 0.0001 | **0.335** |
| Spending habits related to buying food and drinks at the stadium habits | Cognitive | Yes | 0.0001 | 0.207 |
| Affective | Yes | 0.0001 | 0.196 |
| Behaviour | Yes | 0.0001 | **0.373** |
| Spending habits related to buying merchandise | Cognitive | Yes | 0.0001 | 0.399 |
| Affective | Yes | 0.0001 | 0.399 |
| Behaviour | Yes | 0.0001 | **0.473** |
| Spending habits related to the buying of paid TV channels for watching the games | Cognitive | Yes | 0.0001 | 0.153 |
| Affective | Yes | 0.0001 | 0.133 |
| Behaviour | Yes | 0.0001 | 0.198 |
| Spending habits related to traveling costs to the games | Cognitive | Yes | 0.0001 | 0.265 |
| Affective | Yes | 0.0001 | 0.285 |
| Behaviour | Yes | 0.0001 | **0.364** |

Source: own research

The analysis shows significant results for the different types of money spending. The tickets buying spending habits variable shows a weak positive connection to the cognitive, affective and behavioural constructs. This reveals that the stronger the attitude is, the more money the fan will spend on tickets, although all connections were weak. The food and drinks buying at the stadium spending habits show a weak positive connection to the cognitive, affective and behavioural constructs. So the stronger the attitude is, more money the fan will spend on food and drinks at the stadium; also in this case the connection was weak. The merchandise buying spending habits show a moderate positive connection to the cognitive, affective, and behavioural constructs. This means that the stronger the attitude is, the more money the fan will spend on team merchandise products; in this case the results show a moderate connection, so the influence of the attitude on this type of spending is higher than for the previous two types. The buying of paid TV channels for watching the games spending habit shows a weak positive connection to the cognitive, affective and behaviour constructs. So the stronger the attitude is, the more money the fan will spend on paid TV channels for watching the games. The traveling costs to the games spending habits show a weak positive connection to the cognitive, affective and behaviour constructs, meaning that the stronger the attitude is, the more money the fan will spend on traveling expenses to matches. In light of the above results (see details in Table 3.3.3), it is possible to say that in general the stronger the attitude is, the more money the fan will spend on things related to the team, especially when referring to the behavioural construct. In all types except spending related to merchandise product, where the connection was moderate, the connections were weak. If so, the clubs can influence the merchandise spending habits by raising the attitude of the fan especially through the behaviour construct.

**Table 3.3.4. T-test for the attitude constructs and the motives that will cause the fan to stop attending the stadium.**

|  |  |  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
| **Factor 1** | **Construct** | **Mean for ‘no’** | **Means for ‘yes’** | **Difference** | **T-test significance** |
| In my youth I played for the team | Cognitive | 3.8491 | 3.3993 | 0.4498 | 0.0001 |
| Affective | **4.1490** | 3.7199 | 0.4291 | 0.0001 |
| Behaviour | 2.9417 | 2.6748 | 0.2669 | 0.0001 |
| The Level of the football match | Cognitive | 3.8597 | 3.4427 | 0.4170 | 0.0001 |
| Affective | **4.1615** | 3.7569 | 0.4046 | 0.0001 |
| Behaviour | 2.9572 | 2.6834 | 0.2738 | 0.0001 |
| High ticket price | Behaviour | 2.9219 | 2.8004 | 0.1215 | 0.0140 |

Source: own research

Concerning the question about reasons that may cause fans to hesitate whether to buy seasonal tickets and regularly attend team games and comparing it to the three constructs, the research tested the relation between the attitude of the fan and the motives that will cause him to stop attending the stadium. The analysis was done with a t-test and the results were as follows. The option of ‘violence’ was significant for the three constructs; the connection with the cognitive, affective and behavioural constructs for those fans who chose this option as a reason to stop attending the stadium shows weaker results than for those for whom this is not a reason to stop attending matches (see details in Table 3.3.4). The interpretation is that the level of violence will affect the decision to attend a match less strongly in a fan with a stronger attitude compared to one with a weaker attitude.

The second option, the level of the football match, was also significant for the three constructs. The connection to the cognitive, affective and behavioural constructs for the fans who chose this option as a reason to stop attending the stadium shows weaker results than for the fans for whom this was not a reason to stop attending matches (see details in Table 3.3.4). The conclusion is that the fans with a stronger attitude are less affected by the level of the football match than fans with a weaker attitude.

The third option regarding reasons to stop attending are high ticket prices; for this option significant results were obtained only for the behavioural construct. For the fans who chose this option as a reason to stop attending the stadium, it shows weaker results than for those for whom this is not a reason to stop attending matches (see details in Table 3.3.4). The meaning of this is that the fans whose behavioural construct of the attitude is stronger are more affected by ticket prices than fans with a weaker attitude. The other two options, lack of public transport to the stadium and lack of parking places at the stadium, did not give significant results.

This hypothesis checked the influence the different attitude constructs have on money and time-spending habits. When comparing money-spending habits with time-spending habits, one can see that the connection between time-spending habits and the attitude of the fan is stronger than the connection between money-spending habits and the attitude of the fans. Moreover, the results also show that the stronger the attitude is, the more money and time the fan will spend on team-related things. In addition, the research reflects that the behavioural construct has more influence than the cognitive and affective constructs. Yet another conclusion that the research shows is that violence and a low level of a football match will not cause fans with a strong attitude to stop going to matches.

The conclusions of this study were similar to some presented in previous research. For instance, Dixon (2013) claims that the experience of football fans is related to consumption; this is also because of the wider variety of consumption possible in the stadiums. Assuming that experiences and attitude are related, it is possible to deduce that if consumption affects the experiences as Dixon claims, spending habits have an influence on attitude. Greenwell (2001) reaches, as part of his study, the conclusion that fan spending does not change according to the level of customer satisfaction but is connected to the economic status of the fan. In contrast, this study shows that the behaviour construct has a bigger impact on spending. In addition, the conclusion that time spending has a bigger influence on attitude than money spending, in a way expands on the conclusion by Dixon (2013) regarding the importance of the internet for fans’ social interaction. This is also related to the conclusion regarding the high levels of influence of time spending, in this case the use of the internet, on extending the interaction between fans that is part of the behaviour construct of fan attitude.

The relation between the attitude of the fan and his habits of spending time and money on team-related things was investigated in the second hypothesis, which proves that the connection between time-spending habits and the attitude of the fan is stronger than the connection between money-spending habits and the attitude of the fans. Moreover, the stronger the attitude is, the more money and time the fan will spend on team-related things; the conclusions of this study are similar to some conclusions presented in previous research such as Dixon (2013) and Greenwell (2001). The results support their conclusions; in general, they state that being a football fan always involves a form of consumption, and the experiences of being a fan are more dependent on consumption as history advances. Other results show that customer satisfaction was an important predictor of profitability; if one assumes that customer satisfaction is part of the attitude and profitability depends among other things on fan spending habits, then it is safe to conclude that as customer satisfaction positively affects profitability, fans’ spending habits are positively affected by the fans’ attitude.

**Subchapter 3.4 - The Impact of Attitude on Match Attendance**

Hypothesis 2a – A more positive attitude towards the team leads to higher attendance.

This hypothesis compares attitude towards the team and attendance; more specifically, it tests the influence of the attitude of the fan on the levels of attendance. The prediction of the hypothesis and the author is that a more positive attitude of the fan will lead him to attend more matches. For this purpose the variables tested were attendance measured with six questions, ticket-buying habits measured with six questions, and how violence influences attendance measured with one question. Each of the three variables was analysed against the three constructs.

**Table 3.4.1. Pearson’s correlation between the attitude construct and attendance.**

|  |  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
| **Factor 1** | **Factor 2** | **Significant** | **At** | **Pearson’s chi squared** |
| Attendance | Cognitive | Yes | 0.0001 | 0.469 |
| Affective | Yes | 0.0001 | 0.478 |
| Behaviour | Yes | 0.0001 | **0.771** |

Source: own research

The analysis shows significant results for the attendance factor for all three constructs. When using Pearson’s test, the results show a moderate positive connection between attendance and the cognitive construct. Also a moderate positive connection was evident between attendance and the affective construct, and a strong positive connection was evident between attendance and the behaviour construct (see details in Table 3.4.1). It is possible to say that the stronger the attitude is, the higher the attendance is, and that behaviour has a very strong influence, stronger than the affective or cognitive parts of the attitude.

**Table 3.4.2. Spearman's rank correlation coefficient between the attitude constructs and ticket-buying habits.**

|  |  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
| **Factor 1** | **Factor 2** | **Significant** | **At** | **Spearman’s rho** |
| Ticket-buying habits by levels | Cognitive | No | 0.5380 |  |
| Affective | No | 0.1880 |  |
| Behaviour | Yes | 0.0001 | 0.154 |
| Number of individual tickets bought per season | Cognitive | Yes | 0.0001 | 0.395 |
| Affective | Yes | 0.0001 | 0.396 |
| Behaviour | Yes | 0.0001 | **0.521** |

Source: own research

The ticket-buying habits were tested in two aspects, ticket-buying habits by levels (the quality of the sitting place) and the number of individual tickets bought per season; both items were tested with the Spearman test and compared to the three constructs. According to the results in the first aspect only the behaviour was significant with a weak positive connection between the level of tickets purchased and the fans’ behaviour attitude. The second aspect shows significance for all three constructs with a moderate connection (see details in Table 3.4.2). The behaviour construct has more influence on the number of single tickets bought for matches per season than do the cognitive and affective construct. But the results also show that the stronger the attitude is, the higher the number of single tickets bought for matches per season is. Moreover, the attitude has a stronger influence on the number of individual tickets bought per season than on the habits concerning the level of tickets bought.

**Table 3.4.3. T-test of violence and attendance factors.**

|  |  |  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
| **Factor 1** | **Construct** | **Mean for ‘no’** | **Means for ‘yes’** | **Difference** | **T-test significance** |
| Would this type of violence cause you not to attend more matches? | Cognitive | 3.8317 | 3.2187 | **0.6130** | 0.0001 |
| Affective | **4.1299** | 3.5581 | 0.5718 | 0.0001 |
| Behaviour | 2.9365 | 2.5460 | 0.3905 | 0.0001 |

Source: own research

By asking a question about the types of violence that can influence the decision to attend the stadium and comparing it to the three constructs, the author checks for each construct whether what the fan considers violence will cause him to stop attending matches. The results were significant for all three constructs; the analysis was done with T-test. The cognitive construct shows a stronger connection for those who answered ‘no’ (meaning they will continue attending matches despite the violence) than for those who answered ‘yes’, which is to say that this type of violence will cause the fan not to attend matches. Like the cognitive construct, the affective one shows a stronger connection for those who answered ‘no’ than for those who answered ‘yes’. In the behaviour it also shows a stronger connection for those who answered ‘no’ than for those who answered ‘yes’ (see details in Table 3.4.3). The data prove that what the fan considers violence will not cause him to stop going to matches. And more than that, those fans that will continue to attend matches despite the violence have a stronger attitude than the fans that violence will cause to stop attending.

From all the results presented above for the three variables used in this hypothesis that were compared to the attitude construct, the author reached the conclusion that the behaviour construct had a stronger influence on attendance than the cognitive and affective constructs did. The fans with a stronger attitude will continue to buy tickets and attend matches even if there is presence of violence. In summary, a stronger attitude toward the team will lead to higher attendance, fans will buy more individual tickets during a season if they have a stronger attitude, and what a fan considers violence will not stop him from continuing to attend matches even if there is such violence. This is why this hypothesis has been proven true.

Contrary to the conclusions reached by Giulianotti & Robertson (2004), which state that the presence of violence has a negative influence on attendance, meaning that the violence factor causes attendance to decrease, in this study it is shown that even in the presence of violence, when the attitude of the fan is strong, he will continue attending despite the violence.

The conclusion reached by the author shows that a strong attitude toward the team will lead to higher attendance; specifically, the behaviour construct has a stronger influence on attendance than the cognitive and affective constructs. This hypothesis and results expand and show a more general angle on part of the research performed by Borland and MacDonald (2003) and T. C. Greenwell (2001), which shows factors that affect attendance such as quality of viewing, ticket prices, transport cost, TV broadcasts and customer satisfaction including service experience, team identification and demographics. Some of these factors are similar to the ones used in this research and in both cases the results show that the factors affect attendance; in these two other studies the factors used are part of the attitude of the fan, while in this author’s study the influence of the attitude itself on attendance is tested. On the other hand, the conclusion drawn by this author stands in contrast to the conclusion reached by Giulianotti & Robertson (2004); while in their study it is shown that violence has a negative impact on attendance, in the current research the results show that violence will not cause the fans to stop attending matches. The difference in results can be for different reasons, such as differences in the population tested, the approach of the researchers or the aim of the study.

From the conclusions reached in the analysis of this hypothesis it will be recommended to the clubs to focus their marketing efforts on the behavioural construct; this way they target the fan in a more efficient way. So they should rather approach the fan in a cognitive or affective way; for example in advertisements, they should try to influence him through the behavioural construct, to cause the fan to take actions, for example in club activities. Moreover, to overcome the violence factor, the club should raise the fans’ attitude so they continue to attend despite the presence of violence.

**Subchapter 3.5 – The Impact of Loyalty on Money spending**

Hypothesis 3 – The higher the level of fan loyalty to the club, the more he will spend on team-related things.

This hypothesis studies the connection between fans’ loyalty to the team and money-spending habits. The variables measured were money-spending habits, including what fans spend on, and reasons to stop attending the matches. For measuring loyalty the variables used were years of fanhood, level of fanhood, change in fanhood over the years, and the meaning of the team for the fan.

**Table 3.5.1. One-way analysis of the means of loyalty and money-spending habits.**

|  |  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
| **Definition** | **Factor 2** | **Significant** | **At** | **One-way** |
| The team is my life | Money spending | Yes | Anova 0.0001 | **3.3353** |
| Something nice to identify with | Yes | Anova 0.0002 | 2.3128 |
| A fun way to spend my time | Yes | Anova 0.0003 | 2.4079 |
| A social and family formation activity | Yes | Anova 0.0004 | 2.8953 |

Source: own research

When the variable of money-spending habits was compared to the four factor variables used for measuring loyalty, only the level of fanhood and the meaning of the team for the fan showed significant results. The variable of the meaning of the team for the fan was tested against money-spending habits with a one-way test and the results show that fanhood meaning affects the money spending of a fan. A fan that defines the team as his life spends more money than other fans. The fan that defines the team as something nice to identify with spends less. Between them are the fans that define the team as a fun way to spend time or a social and family formation activity (see details in Table 3.5.1). Using Spearman’s test, the level of fanhood shows a positive connection of 0.529 to money-spending habits, meaning the higher the level of fanhood is, the more money the fan will spend on things related to the team.

**Table 3.5.2. Spearman's rank correlation coefficient between the loyalty and ticket-buying habits.**

|  |  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
| **Factor 1** | **Factor 2** | **Significant** | **At** | **Spearman’s rho** |
| Years of fanhood | Level\* | Yes | 0.0001 | 0.157 |
| Quantity | No | 0.2690 |  |
| Level of fanhood | Level | Yes | 0.0001 | 0.128 |
| Quantity | Yes | 0.0001 | 0.407 |
| Changes in fanhood | Level | No | 0.8760 |  |
| Quantity | No | 0.8770 |  |

Source: own research

\*‘Level’ refers to the level of the tickets and quantity refers to the number of tickets bought during a season.

Loyalty was compared to the ticket-buying habits (level of the tickets, and number of tickets bought during a season) with the three items ‘years of fanhood’, ‘level of fanhood’, and ‘changes in fanhood over the years’. While changes in fanhood over the years did not show significant results, years of fanhood showed a weak positive connection to the level of the tickets, and the level of fanhood showed significant results for both: a weak positive connection for the level of tickets, and a moderate positive connection for the quantity of tickets (see details in Table 3.5.2). This shows that the higher the level of fanhood is, the higher the level of the seasonal ticket bought by the fan will be. But a stronger connection is that the higher the level of fanhood is, the more tickets the fan will buy for individual matches.

**Table 3.5.3. Pearson’s correlation between the meaning of the team for the fan and the level of tickets bought.**

|  |  |  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
| **Definition** | **Seasonal tickets to all high-level seats** | **Seasonal tickets to all low-level seats** | **Seasonal tickets to European competition games only** | **Individual game tickets** | **I don't go to games** |
| The team is my life | 165 | 7 | 81 | 243 | 12 |
| 32.5% | 1.4% | 15.9% | **47.8%** | **2.4%** |
| Something nice to identify with | 151 | 3 | 68 | 68 | 41 |
| **45.6%** | 0.9% | 20.5% | 20.5% | 12.4% |
| A fun way to spend my time | 37 | 2 | 13 | 19 | 13 |
| **44.0%** | 2.4% | 15.5% | 22.6% | 15.5% |
| A social and family formation activity | 68 | 0 | 50 | 54 | 7 |
| 38.0% | 0.0% | 27.9% | 30.2% | 3.9% |

Pearson’s chi-squared = 0.0001, Cramer's V = 0.0001

Source: own research

The variable ‘meaning of the team for the fan’ (how he defines his fanhood) was compared to the level of tickets bought. This showed that fans defining the team as their life buy mainly tickets for individual matches (47.8%) and there are almost no fans who don't go to matches (2.4%). On the other hand, fans that define their fanhood as a fun way to spend their time or something nice to identify with buy seasonal tickets for high level seats (44% and 45.6%) and part of them don't go to matches. And those defining fanhood as a social and family formation activity are split quite similarly across buying seasonal tickets to high-level seats, seasonal tickets to European competition games only and individual games tickets (see details in Table 3.5.3).

**Table 3.5.4. Pearson’s correlation between the meaning of the team for the fan and the quantity of tickets bought.**

|  |  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
| **Definition** | **1-5** | **6-10** | **11-15** | **16+** |
| The team is my life | 42 | 49 | 33 | 41 |
| 25.5% | 29.7% | 20.0% | 24.8% |
| Something nice to identify with | 93 | 42 | 12 | 4 |
| **61.6%** | 27.8% | 7.9% | 2.6% |
| Is a fun way to spend my time | 22 | 7 | 5 | 3 |
| **59.5%** | 18.9% | 13.5% | 8.1% |
| Is a social and family formation activity | 34 | 20 | 10 | 4 |
| **50.0%** | 29.4% | 14.7% | 5.9% |

Pearson’s chi-square = 0.0001, Cramer's V = 0.0001

Source: own research

The variable ‘meaning of the team for the fan’ (how he defines his fanhood) was compared to the quantity of tickets bought. This showed that as the definition reflects, the lower the level of loyalty of the fan, the fewer tickets he buys for matches (see details in Table 3.5.4).

In the next part the loyalty was tested against different types of money spending, meaning five different options of money spending: spending on tickets (seasonal or single), food and drinks at the stadium, team merchandise, paid TV channels for watching the games and traveling costs to the games. All were compared to the three items forming the loyalty, years of fanhood, level of fanhood, and changes in fanhood over the years.

**Table 3.5.5. Spearman's rank correlation coefficient between the loyalty of the fan and various types of spending.**

|  |  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
| **Factor 1** | **Factor 2** | **Significant** | **At** | **Spearman’s rho** |
| Spending habits related to buying tickets | Years of fanhood | Yes | 0.0001 | 0.120 |
| Level of fanhood | Yes | 0.0001 | **0.387** |
| Changes in fanhood | No | 0.7850 |  |
| Spending habits related to buying food and drinks at the stadium | Years of fanhood | No | 0.4260 |  |
| Level of fanhood | Yes | 0.0001 | **0.219** |
| Changes in fanhood | No | 0.4560 |  |
| Spending habits related to buying merchandise | Years of fanhood | No | 0.3730 |  |
| Level of fanhood | Yes | 0.0001 | **0.373** |
| Changes in fanhood | No | 0.5150 |  |
| Spending habits related to the buying of paid TV channel for watching the games | Years of fanhood | No | 0.4260 |  |
| Level of fanhood | Yes | 0.0001 | 0.147 |
| Changes in fanhood | No | 0.2200 |  |
| Spending habits related to traveling costs to the games | Years of fanhood | Yes | 0.0001 | 0.111 |
| Level of fanhood | Yes | 0.0001 | **0.385** |
| Changes in fanhood | No | 0.8280 |  |

Source: own research

The analysis showed that the spending habits related to buying tickets has a weak positive connection with the years of fanhood, meaning that the more veteran the fan is, the more money he will spend on tickets. Also a weak positive connection to the level of fanhood was shown (see details in Table 3.5.5), meaning that the higher the level of fanhood, the more money the fan spends on tickets. There were no significant results for changes in fanhood over the years.

The spending habits related to the buying of food and drinks at the stadium show a weak positive connection with the level of fanhood, meaning that the higher the level of fanhood is, the more money the fan spends on food and drinks at the stadium. There were no significant results for the years of fanhood or changes in fanhood over the years (see details in Table 3.5.5).

The results also showed a weak positive connection between the spending habits related to the buying of merchandise and the level of fanhood (see details in Table 3.5.5); this means that the higher the level of fanhood is, the more money the fan spends on team merchandise. There were no significant results for the years of fanhood or changes in fanhood over the years.

The spending habits related to the buying of paid TV channels for watching the games show a weak positive connection with the level of fanhood, meaning that the higher the level of fanhood is, the more money the fan spends on paid TV channels for watching the games. There were no significant results for the years of fanhood or changes in fanhood over the years (see details in Table 3.5.5).

The last type of spending habits, those related to traveling costs to the games, showed a weak positive connection with the years of fanhood, meaning that the more veteran the fan is, the more money he spends on traveling costs to the games. A moderate positive connection with the level of fanhood was found (see details in Table 3.5.5), meaning that the higher the level of fanhood is, the more money the fan spends on traveling costs to the games. There were no significant results for the changes in fanhood over the years.

As the results show, when observing the three variables used, years of fanhood, level of fanhood and changes in fanhood, only the results for the level of fanhood show a connection to the different types of spending, although in most cases it is a moderate connection. One conclusion is that the seniority of the fan and changes experienced in the levels of fanhood over the years do not affect spending habits, whereas the level of fanhood does have an influence on spending habits.

**Table 3.5.6. Pearson’s correlation between the meaning of the team for the fan and the amount spent on tickets.**

|  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
| **Definition** | **0** | **1-250** | **251-500** | **501-750** | **751-1000** | **1001+** |
| The team is my life | 25 | 51 | 56 | 95 | 110 | 164 |
| 5.0% | 10.2% | 11.2% | 19.0% | **22.0%** | **32.7%** |
| Something nice to identify with | 63 | 69 | 46 | 46 | 51 | 54 |
| **19.1%** | **21.0%** | 14.0% | 14.0% | 15.5% | 16.4% |
| A fun way to spend my time | 23 | 14 | 10 | 12 | 14 | 9 |
| **28.0%** | 17.1% | 12.2% | 14.6% | 17.1% | 11.0% |
| A social and family formation activity | 19 | 18 | 29 | 30 | 28 | 55 |
| 10.6% | 10.1% | 16.2% | 16.8% | 15.6% | 30.7% |

Pearson’s chi-squared = 0.0001, Cramer’s V = = 0.0001

Source: own research

As presented in Table 3.5.6, the variable ‘meaning of the team for the fan’ (how he defines his fanhood) was compared to the amount spent on tickets. This showed that as the definition reflects, the amount of money spent on tickets decreases with a lower level of loyalty.

**Table 3.5.7. Pearson’s correlation between the meaning of the team for the fan and the amount spent on food and drinks at the stadium.**

|  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
| **Definition** | **0** | **1-250** | **251-500** | **501-750** | **751-1000** | **1001+** |
| The team is my life | 99 | 283 | 72 | 19 | 11 | 14 |
| 19.9% | **56.8%** | 14.5% | 3.8% | 2.2% | 2.8% |
| Something nice to identify with | 122 | 169 | 24 | 5 | 4 | 1 |
| **37.5%** | **52.0%** | 7.4% | 1.5% | 1.2% | 0.3% |
| A fun way to spend my time | 29 | 46 | 4 | 1 | 2 | 1 |
| **34.9%** | **55.4%** | 4.8% | 1.2% | 2.4% | 1.2% |
| A social and family formation activity | 37 | 104 | 26 | 4 | 3 | 3 |
| 20.9% | **58.8%** | 14.7% | 2.3% | 1.7% | 1.7% |

Pearson’s chi-squared = 0.0001, Cramer’s V = = 0.0001

Source: own research

It is possible to observe from Table 3.5.7 that the variable of meaning of the team for the fan (how he defines his fanhood) was compared to the amount spent on food and drinks at the stadium. This showed that the amount of money spent on food and drinks at the stadium is low to non-existent at all levels of defining fanhood.

**Table 3.5.8. Pearson’s correlation between the meaning of the team for the fan and the amount spent on merchandise.**

|  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
| **Definition** | **0** | **1-250** | **251-500** | **501-750** | **751-1000** | **1001+** |
| The team is my life | 28 | 207 | 171 | 56 | 21 | 19 |
| 5.6% | **41.2%** | **34.1%** | **11.2%** | 4.2% | 3.8% |
| Something nice to identify with | 96 | 176 | 38 | 8 | 6 | 2 |
| **29.4%** | **54.0%** | 11.7% | 2.5% | 1.8% | 0.6% |
| A fun way to spend my time | 29 | 41 | 11 | 0 | 2 | 0 |
| **34.9%** | **49.4%** | 13.3% | 0.0% | 2.4% | 0.0% |
| A social and family formation activity | 22 | 101 | 44 | 6 | 3 | 3 |
| 12.3% | **56.4%** | **24.6%** | 3.4% | 1.7% | 1.7% |

Pearson’s chi-squared = 0.0001, Cramer’s V = = 0.0001

Source: own research

The variable ‘meaning of the team for the fan’ (how he defines his fanhood) was compared to the amount spent on team merchandise (see details in Table 3.5.8). This showed that as the definition reflects, the amount of money spent on team merchandise decreases with a lower level of loyalty,.

**Table 3.5.9. Pearson’s correlation between the meaning of the team for the fan and the amount spent on paid TV channels.**

|  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
| **Definition** | **0** | **1-250** | **251-500** | **501-750** | **751-1000** | **1001+** |
| The team is my life | 108 | 194 | 77 | 49 | 31 | 40 |
| 21.6% | 38.9% | 15.4% | 9.8% | 6.2% | 8.0% |
| Something nice to identify with | 133 | 105 | 33 | 37 | 13 | 7 |
| **40.5%** | 32.0% | 10.1% | 11.3% | 4.0% | 2.1% |
| A fun way to spend my time | 38 | 28 | 8 | 4 | 4 | 0 |
| **46.3%** | 34.1% | 9.8% | 4.9% | 4.9% | 0.0% |
| A social and family formation activity | 70 | 45 | 25 | 21 | 8 | 9 |
| **39.3%** | 25.3% | 14.0% | 11.8% | 4.5% | 5.1% |

Pearson’s chi-squared = 0.0001, Cramer’s V = = 0.0001

Source: own research

The analysis also shows, as presented in Table 3.5.9, that the amount of money spent on paid TV channels for watching games decreases, as the definition reflects, with a lower level of loyalty; moreover, a substantial part of the fans on all levels of defining fanhood does not spend at all. This stems from the comparison of the variable ‘meaning of the team for the fan’ (how he defines his fanhood) to the amount spent on paid TV channels for watching games (see details in Table 3.5.9).

**Table 3.5.10. Pearson’s correlation between the meaning of the team for the fan and the amount spent on traveling costs to the games.**

|  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
| **Definition** | **0** | **1-250** | **251-500** | **501-750** | **751-1000** | **1001+** |
| The team is my life | 42 | 133 | 103 | 79 | 55 | 91 |
| 8.3% | 26.4% | 20.5% | 15.7% | 10.9% | 18.1% |
| Something nice to identify with | 75 | 127 | 62 | 30 | 16 | 17 |
| 22.9% | 38.8% | 19.0% | 9.2% | 4.9% | 5.2% |
| Is a fun way to spend my time | 19 | 37 | 15 | 7 | 2 | 3 |
| 22.9% | 44.6% | 18.1% | 8.4% | 2.4% | 3.6% |
| Is a social and family formation activity | 21 | 58 | 37 | 28 | 13 | 21 |
| 11.8% | 32.6% | 20.8% | 15.7% | 7.3% | 11.8% |

Pearson’s chi-squared = 0.0001, Cramer’s V = = 0.0001

Source: own research

The variable ‘meaning of the team for the fan’ (how he defines his fanhood) was compared to the amount spent on traveling costs to the games. This showed that the amount of money spent on traveling costs to games decreases as the definition reflects a lower level of loyalty; moreover, a substantial part does not spend a significant amount on all levels of the fanhood definition (see details in Table 3.5.10).

**Table 3.5.11. T-test for the years of fanhood and motives to stop attending matches.**

|  |  |  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
| **Factor 1** | **Construct** | **Mean for ‘no’** | **Mean for ‘yes’** | **Difference** | **T-test significance** |
| Lack of public transport to the stadium | Years of fanhood | **20.42** | 17.25 | **3.17** | 0.0001 |
| Lack of parking spaces at the stadium | Years of fanhood | 18.87 | **20.41** | 1.54 | 0.0250 |
| Violence | Years of fanhood | 17.89 | **22.50** | **4.61** | 0.0001 |

Source: own research

The analysis showed that when testing the influence of years of fanhood on the motives to stop attending matches, significant results were achieved for the lack of public transport to the stadium as a reason, with lower values for those who did choose this reason than for those who did not. This shows that a more veteran fan is less affected by lack of public transport to the stadium when deciding to go to a match than a less veteran fan. Significant results were also achieved for lack of parking spaces at the stadium as a reason, with higher values for those who did choose this reason than for those who did not. This shows that a more veteran fan is more affected by lack of parking spaces at the stadium when deciding to go to a match than a less veteran fan. And last, significant results were achieved for violence as a reason, with higher values for those how did choose this reason than for those who did not. This shows that a more veteran fan is more affected by violence than a less veteran fan when deciding to go to a match. For reasons pertaining to high ticket prices and the level of the football match the results were not significant (see details in Table 3.5.11).

**Table 3.5.12. Pearson’s correlation between the level of fanhood and motives to stop attending matches.**

|  |  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
| **Level of fanhood** | **Violence** | | **The level of the football match** | |
|  | No | Yes | No | Yes |
| Avid fan | 6 | 16 | 5 | 17 |
| 27.3% | **72.7%** | 22.7% | **77.3%** |
| Significant | 49 | 60 | 47 | 62 |
| 45.0% | **55.0%** | 43.1% | **56.9%** |
| Normal | 282 | 136 | 250 | 168 |
| **67.5%** | 32.5% | **59.8%** | 40.2% |
| Low | 439 | 116 | 419 | 136 |
| **79.1%** | 20.9% | **75.5%** | 24.5% |

Pearson’s chi-squared = 0.0001, Cramer’s V = 0.0001

Source: own research

The connection between the level of fanhood and the motives to stop attending matches show significant results for the violence factor. The analysis proves that the higher the level of fanhood is, the more the level of violence affects the decision to go to a match. Violence affects fans with a lower level of fanhood less. Also regarding the level of the football match the results were significant and mean that the higher the level of fanhood is, the more the level of the football match affects his/her decision to go to a match. The level of the football match affects fans with a lower level of fanhood less (see details in Table 3.5.12). For the reasons pertaining to high ticket prices, lack of public transport to the stadium and lack of parking spaces at the stadium, the results were not significant.

**Table 3.5.13. Connection between changes in the level of fanhood and motives to stop attending matches.**

|  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
| **Changes in level of fanhood** | **Violence** | | **Lack of public transport to the stadium** | | **The level of the football match** | |
|  | No | Yes | No | Yes | No | Yes |
| Every year the same level | 292 | 129 | 284 | 137 | 286 | 135 |
| **69.4%** | 30.6% | 67.5% | 32.5% | **67.9%** | 32.1% |
| Sympathy weakened over the years | 31 | 42 | 52 | 21 | 32 | 41 |
| 42.5% | **57.5%** | 71.2% | 28.8% | 43.8% | **56.2%** |
| Sympathy strengthened over the years | 341 | 95 | 265 | 171 | 319 | 117 |
| **78.2%** | 21.8% | 60.8% | 39.2% | **73.2%** | 26.8% |
| Sometimes more and sometimes less | 113 | 63 | 100 | 76 | 86 | 90 |
| **64.2%** | 35.8% | 56.8% | 43.2% | 48.9% | **51.1%** |

Source: own research

As presented in Table 3.5.13, when testing the motives to stop attending matches in relation to the changes in fanhood over the years, significant results were achieved for the lack of public transport to the stadium. This shows that a lack of public transport to the stadium affects fans that change the level of fanhood over the years in a similar way. The violence variable reaches results that show that the level of violence does not affect fans whose level of fanhood does not change over the years. Fans whose level of fanhood strengthened over the years and those whose level changes in different directions will continue to go to matches despite the violence. And those fans whose level of fanhood weakens over the years are more affected by violence and it causes them not to go to matches. Regarding the level of the football match, the results were significant and mean that the level of the football match does not affect fans whose level of fanhood does not change over the years. Fans whose level of fanhood strengthened over the years will continue to go to matches despite the level of the football match. Fans whose level of fanhood weakens or changes in different directions over the years are more affected by the level of the football match and it causes them not to go to matches. For the reasons pertaining to high ticket prices and lack of parking spaces at the stadium the results were not significant.

**Table 3.5.14. Connection between definition of fanhood and motives to stop attending matches.**

|  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
| **Definition of fanhood** | **Violence** | | **High ticket prices** | | **The level of the football match** | |
|  | No | Yes | No | Yes | No | Yes |
| The team is my life | 413 | 95 | 283 | 225 | 382 | 126 |
| **81.3%** | 18.7% | **55.7%** | 44.3% | **75.2%** | 24.8% |
| Something nice to identify with | 195 | 136 | 150 | 181 | 186 | 145 |
| 58.9% | 41.1% | 45.3% | **54.7%** | 56.2% | 43.8% |
| A fun way to spend my time | 45 | 39 | 36 | 48 | 45 | 39 |
| 53.6% | 46.4% | 42.9% | **57.1%** | 53.6% | 46.4% |
| A social and family formation activity | 121 | 58 | 93 | 86 | 107 | 72 |
| 67.6% | 32.4% | **52.0%** | 48.0% | 59.8% | 40.2% |

Source: own research

The last aspects tested for this hypothesis were the motives to stop attending matches in relation to the definition of the fan's fanhood; significant results were achieved for the reason pertaining to high ticket prices. This shows that high ticket prices do not affect fans that define the team as their life or as a social and family formation activity and they will continue going to matches despite ticket prices. Fans that define the team as something nice to identify with or a fun way to spend time will stop going due to high ticket prices. The level of violence does not affect the fans and they will continue going to matches; this holds mainly for those fans that define the team as their life. Regarding the level of the football match, the results were significant and mean that the level of the football match does not affect the fans and they will continue going to matches; this holds mainly for those fans that define the team as their life. For the reasons of lack of public transport to the stadium, and lack of parking spaces at the stadium the results were not significant (see details in Table 3.5.14).

Based on the results and conclusions presented above, the hypothesis 'The higher the level of a fan’s loyalty to the club, the more he will spend on team-related things' was verified. The three variables ‘years of fanhood’, ‘level of fanhood’ and ‘changes in fanhood’ that represent the level of loyalty of the fan show that, for example, a fan that defines the team as his life spends more money than other fans, and also that fanhood meaning affects the money spending of a fan. Another example is that the higher the level of fanhood is, the more tickets for individual matches the fan will buy. Yet another example is that the lower the level of loyalty of the fan is, the fewer tickets he buys for matches. Based on these conclusions, a more loyal fan will spend more on team-related things. Besides the conclusion that directly stems from the hypothesis, some other insights were reached. As in the previous hypothesis, also in this one it is clear that the behaviour construct influences the attitude more than the affective and cognitive constructs do. Another interesting result for the author is that the more veteran fan is, the less he is affected by lack of public transport and more by lack of parking spaces at the stadium and violence. Surprisingly, the results support the claim that violence affects fans with a lower level of fanhood less.

The conclusions reached in this study support the conclusion made by Neal (2000), who stated that loyalty had a positive connection to the repetition of the purchase of the same brand by the consumer. In addition, he reached a conclusion supported by these research results, which is that football fans have a very high level of loyalty to the team, which leads to consumption and money spending regardless of the levels of success of the team. This is due to the fact that the factors affecting a fan’s loyalty to his team are different from those affecting any other consumer in other markets. In contrast, the results by Richardson & Dwyer (2003) show that consumption is connected to the levels of team success and that it is no indication of loyalty levels, meaning that team success has an influence on spending habits, but that loyalty does not necessarily have that same effect.

The results show that a more loyal fan will spend more on team-related things. Richardson and Dwyer (2003) show that football fans are very consistent over the years regarding their loyalty to the team they support; in contrast to the author’s research, they conclude that at times when the team is less successful the fans spend less money, but they add that this fact does not indicate that fan loyalty to the team decreases; so in a way they claim that loyalty is not affected by the team’s level of success, but that the level of team success affects spending habits; this is in contrast to the conclusions reached in this research. On the other hand, the conclusions reached in this study support the conclusion made by Neal (2000) that a fan is a customer with a very strong sense of loyalty, which implies that loyalty and spending habits have a positive connection.

**Subchapter 3.6 - Additional Factors Influencing Fans’ Attitudes**

Hypothesis 4 – Violence is influenced by the emotional connection to the club, the level of fanhood and the definition of fanhood by the fan.

This hypothesis studies the connection of fans’ fanhood level and affective connection to the team to the probability of violence. The factors tested were level of fanhood, definition of fanhood, the affective construct and violence.

The first thing in the process of reaching a verification for this hypothesis was to study the connection between what the fan considers violence and the emotional connection of the fan to the team. This was measured by the level of fanhood (with Spearman’s test), the definition of fanhood (with Spearman’s test) and the affective construct (with Pearson’s test). Out of the eight definitions of violence, seven show significant results; only ‘curses from the stands towards the coach or the players of your team’ did not show significant results.

**Table 3.6.1. Correlation between ‘curses from the stands towards the coach or the players of the opposing team’ as a definition of violence to the emotional connection to the club, the level of fanhood and the definition of fanhood by the fan.**

|  |  |  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
| **Factor 1** | **Factor 2** | **Test** | **Significant** | **At** | **Connection** |
| Curses from the stands towards the coach or the players of the opposing team | Level of fanhood | Spearman’s | Yes | 0.0001 | -0.181 |
| Definition of fanhood | Spearman’s | Yes | 0.0001 | 0.128 |
| Affective | Pearson’s | Yes | 0.0001 | -0.135 |

Source: own research

As presented in Table 3.6.1, the relation of the definition ‘Curses from the stands towards the coach or the players of the opposing team’ to the level of fanhood showed a weak negative connection, meaning that the higher the level of fanhood is, the less violent the fan considers curses from the stands towards the coach or the players of the opposing team. The definition compared with the fan’s definition of fanhood shows a weak positive connection, meaning that the more moderate the definition of fanhood is, the more violent the fan considers curses from the stands towards the coach or the players of the opposing team. The definition compared with the affective construct shows a weak negative connection, meaning that the higher the affective construct is, the less violent the fan considers curses from the stands towards the coach or the players of the opposing team. In summary, it is clear that even the connection of this type of violence to the three factors exists, and there is a difference in direction regarding the influence; the connection is weak in all three cases.

**Table 3.6.2. Correlation between ‘participation in a fight between fan groups inside the stadium’ as a definition of violence and the emotional connection to the club, the level of fanhood and the definition of fanhood by the fan.**

|  |  |  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
| **Factor 1** | **Factor 2** | **Test** | **Significant** | **At** | **Connection** |
| Participation in a fight between fan groups inside the stadium | Level of fanhood | Spearman’s | Yes | 0.0001 | -0.210 |
| Definition of fanhood | Spearman’s | Yes | 0.0001 | 0.227 |
| Affective | Pearson’s | Yes | 0.0001 | -0.185 |

Source: own research

The relation of the definition ‘Participation in a fight between fan groups inside the stadium’ to the level of fanhood showed a weak negative connection, meaning that the higher the level of fanhood is, the less violent the fan considers participation in a fight between fan groups inside the stadium. The definition compared with the fan’s definition of fanhood shows a weak positive connection, meaning that the more moderate the definition of fanhood is, the more violent the fan considers participation in a fight between fan groups inside the stadium. The definition compared with the affective construct shows a weak negative connection, meaning that the higher the affective construct is, the less violent the fan considers participation in a fight between fan groups inside the stadium (see details in Table 3.6.2). Even the connection of this type of violence to the three factors exists, and there is a difference in direction regarding the influence; the connection is weak in all three cases.

**Table 3.6.3. Correlation between ‘participation in a fight between fan groups outside the stadium’ as a definition of violence and the emotional connection to the club, the level of fanhood and the definition of fanhood by the fan.**

|  |  |  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
| **Factor 1** | **Factor 2** | **Test** | **Significant** | **At** | **Connection** |
| Participation in a fight between fan groups outside the stadium | Level of fanhood | Spearman’s | Yes | 0.0001 | -0.220 |
| Definition of fanhood | Spearman’s | Yes | 0.0001 | 0.215 |
| Affective | Pearson’s | Yes | 0.0001 | -0.211 |

Source: own research

Like for the previous type of violence, testing the relation between the definition ‘Participation in a fight between fan groups outside the stadium’ and the level of fanhood revealed a weak negative connection, meaning that the higher the level of fanhood is, the less violent the fan considers participation in a fight between fan groups outside the stadium. The definition compared with the fan’s definition of fanhood shows a weak positive connection, meaning that the more moderate the definition of fanhood is, the more violent the fan considers participation in a fight between fan groups outside the stadium. The definition compared with the affective construct shows a weak negative connection, meaning that the higher the affective construct is, the less violent the fan considers participation in a fight between fan groups outside the stadium (see details in Table 3.6.3). From these results it is clear that even a connection of this type of violence to the three factors exists, and there is a difference in direction regarding the influence; the connection is weak in all three cases.

**Table 3.6.4. Correlation between ‘throwing to object of a weight that might hurt somebody into the pitch’ as a definition of violence and the emotional connection to the club, the level of fanhood and the definition of fanhood by the fan.**

|  |  |  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
| **Factor 1** | **Factor 2** | **Test** | **Significant** | **At** | **Connection** |
| Throwing an object of a weight that might hurt somebody into the pitch | Level of fanhood | Spearman’s | Yes | 0.0001 | -0.152 |
| Definition of fanhood | Spearman’s | Yes | 0.0001 | 0.136 |
| Affective | Pearson’s | Yes | 0.0001 | -0.133 |

Source: own research

Testing the relation between the definition ‘throwing an object of a weight that might hurt somebody into the pitch’ and the level of fanhood obtained results which showed a weak negative connection, meaning that the higher the level of fanhood is, the less violent the fan considers throwing an object of a weight that might hurt somebody into the pitch. The definition compared with the fan’s definition of fanhood shows a weak positive connection, meaning that the more moderate the definition of fanhood is, the more violent the fan considers throwing an object of a weight that might hurt somebody into the pitch. The definition compared with the affective construct shows a weak negative connection, meaning that the higher the affective construct is, the less violent the fan considers throwing an object of a weight that might hurt somebody into the pitch (see details in Table 3.6.4). A connection of this type of violence with the three factors exists, and there is a difference in direction regarding the influence; the connection is weak in all three cases.

**Table 3.6.5. Correlation between ‘lighting flares in the stands’ as a definition of violence and the emotional connection to the club, the level of fanhood and the definition of fanhood by the fan.**

|  |  |  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
| **Factor 1** | **Factor 2** | **Test** | **Significant** | **At** | **Connection** |
| Lighting flares in the stands | Level of fanhood | Spearman’s | Yes | 0.0001 | -0.262 |
| Definition of fanhood | Spearman’s | Yes | 0.0001 | 0.157 |
| Affective | Pearson’s | Yes | 0.0001 | -0.197 |

Source: own research

As presented in Table 3.6.5, the relation of the definition ‘lighting flares in the stands’ to the level of fanhood showed a weak negative connection, meaning that the higher the level of fanhood is, the less violent the fan considers lighting flares in the stands. The definition compared with the fan’s definition of fanhood shows a weak positive connection, meaning that the more moderate the definition of fanhood is, the more violent the fan considers lighting flares in the stands. The definition compared with the affective construct shows a weak negative connection, meaning that the higher the affective construct is, the less violent the fan considers lighting flares in the stands. In summary, it is clear that even a connection of this type of violence to the three factors exist, and there is a difference in direction regarding the influence; the connection is weak in all three cases.

**Table 3.6.6. Correlation between ‘raising posters with content offending some players or the opposing team’ as a definition of violence and the emotional connection to the club, the level of fanhood and the definition of fanhood by the fan.**

|  |  |  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
| **Factor 1** | **Factor 2** | **Test** | **Significant** | **At** | **Connection** |
| Raising posters with content offending some players or the opposing team | Level of fanhood | Spearman’s | Yes | 0.0001 | -0.211 |
| Definition of fanhood | Spearman’s | Yes | 0.0001 | 0.174 |
| Affective | Pearson’s | Yes | 0.0001 | -0.159 |

Source: own research

The analysis shows significant a relationship between the acceptance of violent behaviour and the fanhood level. Two out of three relations are negative; one is positive. The higher the level of fanhood is, the less violent the fan considers raising posters with content offending some players or the opposing team;  the more moderate the definition of fanhood is, the more violent the fan considers raising posters with content offending some players or the opposing team; and finally, the higher the affective construct is, the less violent the fan considers raising posters with content offending some players or the opposing team (see details in Table 3.6.6).

**Table 3.6.7. Correlation between ‘vandalism at the stadium’ as a definition of violence and the emotional connection to the club, the level of fanhood and the definition of fanhood by the fan.**

|  |  |  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
| **Factor 1** | **Factor 2** | **Test** | **Significant** | **At** | **Connection** |
| Vandalism at the stadium | Level of fanhood | Spearman’s | Yes | 0.0001 | -0.132 |
| Definition of fanhood | Spearman’s | Yes | 0.0001 | 0.125 |
| Affective | Pearson’s | Yes | 0.0001 | -0.124 |

Source: own research

The last type of violence tested, the relation of the definition ‘vandalism at the stadium’ to the level of fanhood, showed a weak negative connection, meaning that the higher the level of fanhood is, the less violent the fan considers vandalism at the stadium. The definition compared with the fan’s definition of fanhood shows a weak positive connection, meaning that the more moderate the definition of fanhood is, the more violent the fan considers vandalism at the stadium. The definition compared with the affective construct shows a weak negative connection, meaning that the higher the affective construct is, the less violent the fan considers vandalism at the stadium (see details in Table 3.6.7). Like in all the other definitions of violence, also in this case it is clear that a connection even to this type of violence to the three factors exist, and there is a difference in direction regarding the influence; the connection is weak in all three cases.

The analysis proves that, on the one hand, the higher the level of fanhood and the affective connection is, the less violent the fan considers acts of a violent nature. And on the other hand, the more moderate the definition of fanhood is, the more violent the fan considers acts of violent nature. These conclusions were drawn primary because of the consistency in the results for all definitions that gave meaningful results. A possible explanation for this conclusion is that the level of fanhood and the affective construct can be considered internal factors. As such, they could be more emotional for the fan, whereas the definition of fanhood is more rational than emotional, and this causes the fan to consider the same type of violence more violent. The explanation could be that violence directed towards some players or towards the opposing team is motivated by hate towards the opponent, and this is considered by fans as normal and acceptable behaviour or even as a part of being a fan.

Next, the connection between the affective level and the item asking if the fan has witnessed any type of violence was tested with a t-test. The results were 4.0526 for those who had been witnesses and 3.8060 for those who had not. So fans with a stronger affective connection experienced and witnessed more violence of some type than fans with a weaker affective connection. This can be understood according to the results in subchapter 3.3; as presented there (Table 3.3.1), fans with higher affective levels attend more matches, and because of a more frequent arrival to matches the possibilities of being exposed to violence naturally increase.

**Table 3.6.8. T-test for the connection between the affective construct and the types of violence experienced by the fan.**

|  |  |  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
| **Factor 1** | **Construct** | **Mean for ‘no’** | **Means for ‘yes’** | **Difference** | **T-test significance** |
| Participation in a fight between fan groups inside the stadium | Affective | 3.9582 | 4.1258 | **0.1676** | 0.0020 |
| Participation in a fight between fan groups outside the stadium | Affective | 3.9076 | 4.1726 | **0.2650** | 0.0001 |
| Lighting flares in the stands | Affective | 3.9510 | 4.0673 | 0.1163 | 0.0310 |
| Raising posters with content offending some players or the opposing team | Affective | 3.9644 | 4.0738 | 0.1094 | 0.0380 |
| Vandalism at the stadium | Affective | 3.9706 | 4.0776 | 0.1070 | 0.0420 |

Source: own research

A more specific analysis of the connection between the affective level and whether the fan has experienced or witnessed different types of violence is presented in Table 3.6.8. Fans who answered “yes” to the statement concerning ‘participation in a fight between fan groups inside the stadium’, ‘participation in a fight between fan groups outside the stadium’, ‘lighting flares in the stands’, ‘raising posters with content offending some players or the opposing team’ and ‘vandalism at the stadium’, meaning they were exposed to this type of violence, show a stronger connection than those who answer “no”. These results mean that fans with a stronger affective connection experienced and witnessed more of those types of violence than fans with a weaker affective connection. The results were not significant for ‘curses from the stands towards the coach or the players of the opposing team’, ‘curses from the stands towards the coach or the players of your team’ and ‘Throwing an object of a weight that might hurt somebody into the pitch’. Examining the results testing the connection of the types of violence experienced by a fan to his affective connection to the club, it is clear and consistent for all types of violence with significant results that fans with a stronger affective connection were more exposed to and witnessed more violence; these results did not give surprising conclusions. Moreover, there were no significant differences between the different types of violence; the gap between who answered “yes” and who answered “no” was similar for all types and ranged between 0.107 and 0.265 (see details in Table 3.6.8).

**Table 3.6.9. Connection between the level of fanhood and the types of violence experienced by the fan.**

|  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
| **Vandalism at the stadium** | Yes | 5 | 22.7% | 42 | 38.5% | 183 | **43.8%** | 294 | **53.0%** |
| No | 17 | **77.3%** | 67 | **61.5%** | 235 | 56.2% | 261 | 47.0% |
| **Raising posters with content offending some players or the opposing team** | Yes | 7 | 31.8% | 41 | 37.6% | 199 | **47.6%** | 327 | **58.9%** |
| No | 15 | **68.2%** | 68 | **62.4%** | 219 | 52.4% | 228 | 41.1% |
| **Lighting flares in the stands** | Yes | 8 | 36.4% | 52 | 47.7% | 235 | **56.2%** | 372 | **67.0%** |
| No | 14 | **63.6%** | 57 | **52.3%** | 183 | 43.8% | 183 | 33.0% |
| **Throwing an object of a weight that might hurt somebody into the pitch** | Yes | 8 | 36.4% | 40 | 36.7% | 194 | 46.4% | 294 | **53.0%** |
| No | 14 | **63.6%** | 69 | **63.3%** | 224 | 53.6% | 261 | 47.0% |
| **Participation in a fight between fan groups outside the stadium** | Yes | 6 | 27.3% | 30 | 27.5% | 154 | 36.8% | 284 | **51.2%** |
| No | 16 | **72.7%** | 79 | **72.5%** | 264 | 63.2% | 271 | 48.8% |
| **Participation in a fight between fan groups inside the stadium** | Yes | 5 | 22.7% | 30 | 27.5% | 139 | 33.3% | 242 | 43.6% |
| No | 17 | **77.3%** | 79 | **72.5%** | 279 | 66.7% | 313 | 56.4% |
| **Curses from the stands towards the coach or the players of the opposing team** | Yes | 13 | **59.1%** | 74 | **67.9%** | 323 | **77.3%** | 432 | **77.8%** |
| No | 9 | 40.9% | 35 | 32.1% | 95 | 22.7% | 123 | 22.2% |
| **Level of fanhood** |  | Avid fan | | Significant | | Normal | | Low | |

Source: own research

When testing whether the fan has witnessed violence in general and a specific type of violence in relation to the level of fanhood, significant results were achieved for the type involving ‘curses from the stands towards the coach or the players of the opposing team’; the results show that the weaker the level of fanhood is, the more curses from the stands towards the coach or the players of the opposing team the fan experiences and witnesses. The results for the type involving ‘participation in a fight between fan groups inside the stadium’ show that the weaker the level of fanhood is, the more participation in a fight between fan groups inside the stadium the fan experiences and witnesses. The results for the type involving ‘participation in a fight between fan groups outside the stadium’ show that the weaker the level of fanhood is, the more participation in a fight between fan groups outside the stadium the fan experiences and witnesses. The results for the type involving ‘throwing an object of a weight that might hurt somebody into the pitch’ show that the weaker the level of fanhood is, the more often the fan experiences and witnesses the throwing an object of a weight that might hurt somebody into the pitch. The results for the type involving ‘lighting flares in the stands’ show that the weaker the level of fanhood is, the more lighting flares in the stands the fan experiences and witnesses. The results for the type involving ‘Raising posters with offensive content to some players or towards the opposing team’ show that the weaker the level of fanhood is, the more often the fan experiences and witnesses raising posters with content offending some players or the opposing team. And last, the results for ‘vandalism at the stadium’ show that the weaker the level of fanhood is, the more vandalism at the stadium the fan experiences and witnesses. For the type involving ‘curses from the stands towards the coach or the players of your team’ the results were not significant. As presented in Table 4.6.9, as the level of fanhood decreases, the percentages of fans that answered “yes” to the question of whether they have been exposed to or witnessed that specific type of violence increases. This means that fans with a higher level of fanhood are less exposed to violence, and vice versa, that fans with a lower level of fanhood are more exposed to and witness more violence. One reason for this phenomenon may be the influence of the definition of what a fan considers a violent act; as previously shown, as the level of fanhood decreases, the definition of what is considered violence becomes stricter, meaning that more acts are considered and perceived by the fan as violence.

**Table 3.6.10. Connection between the definition of the fanhood by the fan and the types of violence experienced by the fan.**

|  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
| **Definition of fanhood** | **Participation in a fight between fan groups inside the stadium** | | **Participation in a fight between fan groups outside the stadium** | | **Lighting flares in the stands** | |
|  | No | Yes | No | Yes | No | Yes |
| The team is my life | 295 | 213 | 259 | 249 | 173 | 335 |
| 58.1% | **41.9%** | 51.0% | **49.0%** | 34.1% | **65.9%** |
| Something nice to identify with | 222 | 109 | 220 | 111 | 156 | 175 |
| 67.1% | 32.9% | 66.5% | 33.5% | 47.1% | 52.9% |
| A fun way to spend my time | 57 | 27 | 51 | 33 | 36 | 48 |
| 67.9% | 32.1% | 60.7% | 39.3% | 42.9% | 57.1% |
| A social and family formation activity | 111 | 68 | 99 | 80 | 70 | 109 |
| 62.0% | **38.0%** | 55.3% | **44.7%** | 39.1% | 60.9% |

Source: own research

This part tested the connection between the definitions of the fan's fanhood and whether the fans have witnessed violence in general and a specific type of violence in particular. As presented in Table 3.6.10, significant results were obtained for the type involving ‘participation in a fight between fan groups inside the stadium’. This shows that a fan that defines the team as his life or as a social and family formation activity testifies to having experienced and witnessed participation in a fight between fan groups inside the stadium more often than a fan that defines his fanhood as something nice to identify with or a fun way to spend time. The type involving ‘participation in a fight between fan groups outside the stadium’ was significant and shows that a fan that defines the team as his life or as a social and family formation activity testifies to having experienced and witnessed participation in a fight between fan groups outside the stadium more than a fan that defines his fanhood as something nice to identify with or a fun way to spend time. Also the type involving ‘lighting flares in the stands’ has significant results, which shows that a fan that defines the team as his life testifies to having experienced and witnessed lighting flares in the stands more often than a fan that defines his fanhood as a social and family formation activity or something nice to identify with. Those fans that define it as a fun way to spend their time testify to having experienced and witnessed lighting flares in the stands, but having done so less often than other fans. For the other options the results were not significant. Based on these results and conclusions, the author deduced that fans that defined the team as their life had witnessed or experienced more violence than other fans. Fans who define their fanhood as something nice to identify with or a fun way to spend time were less exposed to violence, and fans who define their fanhood as a social and family formation activity were in between the other two groups.

Given the results from this research, it is possible to say that the hypothesis ‘Violence as experienced or witnessed is influenced by the emotional connection to the club, the level of fanhood and the definition of fanhood by the fan’ is verified. The three factors used – the level of fanhood, the definition of fanhood and the affective connection of the fan to the club – show that they are connected to the violence experienced or witnessed by the club. Moreover, the results prove an influence of some level of each of the three factors on the violence factor. More specifically, when the level of fanhood is lower, exposure to violence is higher. The definition of fanhood also presents an influence on the violence factor, as shown in the previous part; and last, the affective connection shows an influence on violence factor. Out of all types of violence tested, only three were significant in connection to the factors – ‘participation in a fight between fan groups inside the stadium’, ‘participation in a fight between fan groups outside the stadium’ and ‘lighting flares in the stands’. This may lead us to the conclusion that these three types of violence are considered more severe than others by the fans.

These conclusions support the results by Fields et al. (2007) that show that some types of violence are perceived differently when they occur at a sport event than when they are seen in other environments. A few years earlier, Guilbert (2004) also concluded that because of the legitimisation of violence in football, verbal violence was not noted, even though it existed. This thesis shows that three specific factors (emotional connection to the club, level of fanhood and the definition of fanhood by the fan) have an influence on violence as experienced or witnessed. These factors are and should be included in the factors presented by Fields et al. (2007) and Spaaij (2014) in the analysis aiming to understand the violence phenomenon in football.

This last hypothesis studied fan attitude from a different angle, and tested the influence of the emotional connection to the club, the level of fanhood and the definition of fanhood by the fan on the violence factor. The results prove an influence of some level of each of the three factors on the violence factor. The results by Fields et al. (2007) present a set of five factors that have an impact on violence; the three factors from the current research can be included as part of these five factors; the emotional connection to the club as well as the level of fanhood and the definition of fanhood by the fan can be seen as part of the individual factor. So the results support Fields et al. (2007), proving that individual factors have an impact on violence. In contrast, the research shows the impact of one single factor from Fields et al. (2007) and this is in contrast to what Spaaij (2014) states supporting Fields et al., which is that in order to explain violence one should analyse all five factors together. One possible analysis of the results that could explain the fans’ levels of sensitivity to violence is the fact that the society and reality of the country exhibiting high levels of violence minimises the perceived gravity of violence surrounding football; this is supported by Fields et al. (2007), who state that in most cases a specific type of violence that occurs in a sport-related context (for example a brawl between fans) is seen as legitimate and accepted behaviour, while the same type of violence in a non-sport atmosphere is unacceptable and even criminal. This issue is also supported by Guilbert (2004); because of the presence of different levels of violence around football, the types which are considered less violent are not even noted.

**Subchapter 3.7 – The Impact of Attitudes on Behaviour**

Previous articles have researched sport fans and analysed the data they collected in different ways; one of the differences stems from the method of segmentation. An article studying fan satisfaction used three variables as a means of segmentation: the number of games attended during the season, the type of ticket purchased (a full-season ticket holder, a mini-package holder or a single-game ticket) and behavioural intent (Kennett, Sneath and Henson, 2001). Other articles such as the article by Funk and Pastore (2000) used a loyalty scale consisting of five behavioural and five attitudinal dimensions to segment sport fans, and supports that various loyalty segments are influenced by different factors. Yet another article based the segmentation on brand association networks and used the four different segments of ‘passionate fans’, ‘celebrities’ admirers’, ‘UEFA Soccer followers’ and ‘show-business lovers’ (Bouzdine-chameeva *et al.*, 2015).

Two articles defined the stages of loyalty in a similar way using four and five similar stages of loyalty as the method of segmentation. Funk and James (2006) used the psychological continuum model to define four stages of loyalty: awareness, attraction, attachment, and allegiance. And Wilkins (2012) used five stages: awareness, situational involvement, attraction, enduring involvement and identification. Inspired by this idea, in this next part the researcher presents the calculated levels of the three variables loyalty, time spending and money spending that represent the three dimensions of emotion, engagement and finance, respectively. The segmentation was done in such a way that the variables were each divided into four levels representing the different stages of fanhood: awareness, attraction, attachment and identification. This idea was based on a combination of the two articles mentioned above in order to set the loyalty level. This scale consists of four stages: awareness, attraction, attachment, and identification. These are defined in an ascending order; for example, a fan at the attachment stage is more loyal than a fan at the awareness stage.

**Table 3.7.1. Loyalty level frequencies.**

|  |  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
| **Loyalty levels** | **Range** | **Frequency** | **Percentage** | **Cumulative percentage** |
| Awareness | 0-30 | 10 | 0.9% | 0.9% |
| Attraction | 31-60 | 132 | 12.0% | 12.9% |
| Attachment | 61-90 | 459 | 41.7% | 54.6% |
| Identification | 91+ | 499 | 45.4% | 100.0% |

Source: own research

The measurement of loyalty for this part of the research was performed with four questions. Two questions checked the level of fanhood, first asking about the current level of fanhood and then about meaning of the team for the fan. The next question used asked about years of fanhood, and the fourth question checked changes in fanhood over the years. For all questions, the answers were rated according to importance, so an answer reflecting a higher degree of loyalty received a higher value. The question asking about the current level of fanhood was used to set the reference value. The other three questions added to that base depending on the answer using the method described below. At the end, one number was obtained and this number represented compact compressed knowledge about the loyalty.

The author has decided on a continuous scale for the calculation, which allows for more statistical procedures. The results will help compare the loyalty with the other two dimensions of time spending and money spending, and will determine at which stage of loyalty the fan is; awareness will be assigned values between 0 and 30, attraction will be assigned values between 31 and 60, attachment will be assigned values between 61 and 90, and identification will be assigned values over 91. This range was defined for statistical convenience, so the whole range was divided into equal segments of 30 points for each stage of loyalty; this part is an innovation expanding on the basic idea that was based on the segmentation in the articles presented above.

The results show that most of the participants were at higher levels of loyalty: 41.7% of the fans were in the phase of attachment, while 45.4% were at the highest level – identification. Few fans were in the early stages of fanhood. The author’s expectation was to obtain more balanced results in which the intermediate levels attraction and attachment would be the dominant levels. This may be because fans who agree to participate in the survey are fans with high loyalty levels, but it might also mean that it is important for fans to perceive themselves as loyal fans. This data, together with the other variables, can help understand the connection between the emotional dimension and the engagement and financial dimensions in fans with high levels of loyalty.

**Table 3.7.2. Time-spending level frequencies.**

|  |  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
| **Time-spending levels** | **Range** | **Frequency** | **Percentage** | **Cumulative Percentage** |
| Awareness | 0-160 | 120 | 11.2% | 11.2% |
| Attraction | 161-320 | 708 | 66.1% | 77.3% |
| Attachment | 321-480 | 227 | 21.2% | 98.5% |
| Identification | 481+ | 16 | 1.5% | 100.0% |

Source: own research

The variable ‘time spending’ was calculated for this part of the research using eight statements; the statements are part of a question designed to rate the behaviour of the fan. The respondent answered using a scale ranging from ‘very low’ to ‘very high’, with ‘low’, ‘moderate’ and ‘high’ between them rated each statement. Each statement was rated according to the respondent’s answers and level of importance. A higher the number means more time spent by the fan. The statements themselves were ranked by level importance and separated into two groups. Four were ranked with a higher level of influence, including the statements: ‘I watch every game of my team on TV (when I'm not going to the stadium)’, ‘I am active in a club's fan club, I try to go watch the team training (at least at the main sessions)’ and ‘I go to conferences and formal galas of the club (presentation of new coach or players, start of a new season etc.)’. The other four were ‘I write and respond on the team's Facebook page’, ‘I follow the team on social networks’, ‘I prepare equipment and accessories of encouragement (signs, costumes etc.)’ and ‘I follow my team on sports media’. As in the case of the calculation of loyalty, also in the measurement of fans’ time spending at the end a single number reflecting the variable was obtained.

The author expected that the higher the level of the fanhood the higher the level of time spending would be. However, it is clear from the results that this is not the case; rather, the fans that spend the greatest amount of time on team-related activities are fans at the attraction stage; this was reflected by 66.1% of the respondents. This fact could mean that in order to reach a more advanced stage of fanhood the fan dedicates more time to team-related activities at the early stages, mainly at the attraction stage. Probably spending this time helps the fan to form a stronger fanhood bond.

**Table 3.7.3. Money-spending level frequencies.**

|  |  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
| **Money-spending levels** | **Range** | **Frequency** | **Percentage** | **Cumulative Percentage** |
| Awareness | 0-215 | 95 | 9.0% | 9.0% |
| Attraction | 216-430 | 259 | 24.6% | 33.6% |
| Attachment | 431-645 | 373 | 35.4% | 69.0% |
| Identification | 646+ | 327 | 31.0% | 100.0% |

Source: own research

Like the loyalty and time-spending variables, also the money-spending variable was measured separately for this part of the research. The calculation of the variable was carried out with three questions. The first consisted of five statements assessing the fan behaviour. The statements were divided into three levels according to their level of influence on money-spending habits. The fan answered all statements with ratings ranging between ‘very low’ and ‘very much’, just such as in the case of the time-spending habits, and each level was ranked differently to reflect the importance of the statement to the fan. ‘I travel to every away game of the team in the country’ was at the highest level with higher values. The statements ‘I come to every home game of the team’ and ‘I travel to at least one game of the season overseas to see my team (seasons in which the team plays in international competitions)’ were rated at an intermediate level. In addition, the last two statements ‘I buy food and beverages at the stadium during the game’ and ‘I buy products associated with the team (scarf, shirt, etc.)’, representing less money spent, were ranked at the low end. The second question used was a question asking the fan which type of tickets he buys by selecting the option that best suited his choices over the past few years. Each answer received the appropriate value according to the level of spending by the fan. This way, the answer ‘seasonal tickets to all high-level seats’, which reflects the highest possible expense, received a higher value. The answers ‘seasonal tickets to all low-level seats’ and ‘seasonal tickets to European competition games’ received an intermediate value. The answer ‘Individual game tickets’ received a lower value, and the answer ‘I do not go to games’ received the value of zero, as it represents no expenses. The third and last question used asked the fan to rate the amount of money spent on different aspects. Each level of spending received an appropriate value according to the amount; the more the fan spends, the higher was the value assigned. At the end, all values were summarised to obtain the value representing the money-spending variable.

Higher levels of money spending are present in the latest stages of fanhood. It is clear from the results that in the early stages fans spend less money; at the awareness stage only 9% of fans do, while at the last 2 stages, attachment and identification, 66.4% of the participants are present. When the three variables are compared, it is possible to observe a similar tendency between loyalty and money-spending habits, in other words, between the emotional and financial dimension. In both cases, the majority of fans are at the advanced stages of fanhood, either attachment or identification; this corroborate the idea that to strengthen money-spending habits, it is necessary to bring the fan to those stages of fanhood. Moreover, to achieve this, it is important that the fan’s time-spending habits remain high at the stage of attraction. It is notable from the results regarding the three variables that the awareness level was significantly lower than the attraction and attachment levels. It was not expected to be so significantly lower; probably in the general population the awareness segment is larger. This can be explained by the fact that the questionnaire was addressed to fans in general, but even though it was circulated widely, the majority of participants that agreed to fill in the questionnaire were past the awareness stage because they were more involved fans.

Following the abovementioned results, the author presents a model for predicting each of the three variables – loyalty, time spending and money spending – using the cognitive, affective and behaviour levels as predictors. This was done with the help of a regression model designed for this purpose.

Behaviour was measured with 13 statements regarding fan behaviour; each statement was rated by participants according to their individual behaviour. The statements were divided into three groups according to their level of importance. On the highest level were the statements ‘I travel to every away game of the team in the country’, ‘I travel to at least one game of the season overseas to see my team (seasons in which the team plays in international competitions)’, ‘I am active in a club's fan club’, ‘I try to go watch the team training (at least at the main sessions)’ and ‘I go to conferences and formal galas of the club (presentation of new coach or players, start of a new season etc.)’; these statements received the highest score. Following them, in the second group were the statements ‘I come to every home game of the team’, ‘I buy products associated with the team (scarf, shirt etc.)’, ‘I prepare equipment and accessories of encouragement (signs, costumes etc.)’, and ‘I follow my team over the sports media’. The last group with the lowest score included the statements ‘I watch every game of my team on TV (when I'm not going to the stadium)’, ‘I buy food and beverages at the stadium during the game’, ‘I write and respond on the team's Facebook page’ and ‘I follow the team on social networks’. All values were summarised to obtain the value for the behaviour factor.

The Affective factor was measured with the help of two questions dealing with level and meaning of fanhood; each answer received a value according to the level of importance. In addition, the participants rated five statements dealing with fan feelings and emotions. As in the case of behaviour, also these statements were divided into two groups; in the group with higher values were ‘I feel part of something big and important’ and ‘I feel that the group gives me a self-identity’, while in the other there were ‘I feel that I have the support and sympathy of the fans group’, ‘Things associated with the team make me excited’, and ‘I feel satisfaction and enjoyment’.

The third factor, the cognitive one, was measured by questions asking how long the participants have been fans, and whether there have been changes in their level of fanhood. In addition, here each answer received a value according to the importance. In addition, two groups of three statements each helped complete the measurement of the cognitive factor. The first group with higher values included ‘I can lead and influence a group of people’, ‘My identity is influenced by the sympathy to the team’, and ‘The team helps me to disconnect from everyday reality’. In the second group with lower values the following statements were included: ‘I actually am part of a larger and consolidated social group’, ‘It is important for me to learn and gain knowledge about the team’, and ‘I feel more confident’. As with the behaviour and affective factors, also here the values of the answers were summarized to get the affective value.

**Table 3.7.4. Summary of the regression model for loyalty.**

|  |  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
| **Model** | **R** | **R-squared** | **Adjusted R-squared** | **Std. error of the estimate** |
|  | .610a | 0.372 | 0.37 | 15.94933 |

a Predictors: (Constant), BEHAVIOUR, COGNITIVE, AFFECTIVE

Source: own research

**Table 3.7.5. ANOVA of the regression model for loyalty.**

|  |  |  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
| **Model** | **Sum of squares** | **Df** | **Mean square** | **F** | **Sig.** |
| Regression | 152492.134 | 3 | 50830.711 | 199.821 | .000b |
| Residual | 257688.192 | 1013 | 254.381 |  |  |
| Total | 410180.327 | 1016 |  |  |  |

a Dependent variable: LOYALTY

b Predictors: (Constant), BEHAVIOUR, COGNITIVE, AFFECTIVE

Source: own research

The first of the three models tests the use the three constructs to predict loyalty. A multiple linear regression model was calculated to predict fans’ loyalty based on their cognitive, affective and behaviour levels. A significant regression equation was found (F(3,1013)=199.821, p < .000), with an R² of 0.372. Participants’ predicted loyalty is equal to 34.335 + 0.016 (BEHAVIOUR) + 0.074 (AFFECTIVE) + 0.022 (COGNITIVE).

**Table 3.7.6. Coefficients of the regression model for loyalty.**

|  |  |  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
| **Model** | **Unstandardized coefficients** |  | **Standardized coefficients** | **T** | **Sig.** |
|  | **B** | **Std. error** | **Beta** |  |  |
| (Constant) | 34.335 | 2.090 |  | 16.428 | 0.000 |
| COGNITIVE | 0.022 | 0.008 | 0.143 | 2.632 | 0.009 |
| AFFECTIVE | 0.074 | 0.011 | 0.366 | 6.751 | 0.000 |
| BEHAVIOUR | 0.016 | 0.004 | 0.146 | 4.091 | 0.000 |

a Dependent variable: LOYALTY

Source: own research

The model results show that fans’ loyalty increased by 0.022 for each increase in the cognitive construct, by 0.074 for each increase in the affective construct and by 0.016 for each increase in the behaviour construct. All three constructs – cognitive, affective and behaviour – were predictors of loyalty. The affective factor is a better predictor of loyalty than the cognitive and behaviour factors, which show a weaker influence. Based on these results, if a club aims to strengthen fans’ loyalty, the focus should be put on the affective part of their attitude.

**Table 3.7.7. Model summary of the regression model for time spending.**

|  |  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
| **Model** | **R** | **R-squared** | **Adjusted R-squared** | **Std. error of the estimate** |
|  | 0932a | 0.869 | 0.869 | 43.61457 |

a Predictors: (Constant), BEHAVIOUR, COGNITIVE

Source: own research

**Table 3.7.8. ANOVA of the regression model for time spending.**

|  |  |  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
| **Model** | **Sum of squares** | **Df** | **Mean Square** | **F** | **Sig.** |
| Regression | 13029628.680 | 2 | 6514814.34 | 3424.829 | 0000b |
| Residual | 1959297.224 | 1030 | 1902.23 |  |  |
| Total | 14988925.910 | 1032 |  |  |  |

a Dependent variable: TIME SPENDING

b Predictors: (Constant), BEHAVIOUR, COGNITIVE

Source: own research

For predicting the time-spending habits, a second model that uses a multiple linear regression model was calculated to predict fans’ time spending based on their cognitive and behaviour levels. A significant regression equation was found (F(2,1030)=3424.829, p < .000), with an R² of 0.869. Participants’ predicted time spending is equal to -14.103 + 0.585 (BEHAVIOUR) + 0.073 (COGNITIVE).

**Table 3.7.9. Coefficients of the regression model for time spending.**

|  |  |  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
| **Model** | **Unstandardized coefficients** |  | **Standardized coefficients** | **t** | **Sig.** |
|  | **B** | **Std. error** | **Beta** |  |  |
| (Constant) | -14.103 | 5.103 |  | -2.764 | 0.006 |
| COGNITIVE | 0.073 | 0.014 | 0.080 | 5.082 | 0.000 |
| BEHAVIOUR | 0.585 | 0.010 | 0.875 | 55.761 | 0.000 |

a Dependent variable: TIME SPENDING

Source: own research

Fans’ time spending increased by 0.073 for each increase in the cognitive construct and by 0.585 for each increase in the behaviour construct. Both cognitive and behaviour constructs were predictors of time spending, but while the behaviour performed as a very good predictor of fans’ time spending, the cognitive factor was a weaker predictor. Moreover, the results for the behaviour construct as a predictor are so dramatically higher than those for the cognitive construct that if the goal is to predict fans’ time-spending habits, only behaviour should be used as a predictor.

**Table 3.7.10. Model summary of the regression model for money spending.**

|  |  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
| **Model** | **R** | **R-squared** | **Adjusted R-squared** | **Std. error of the estimate** |
|  | .752a | 0.565 | 0.564 | 109.73497 |

a Predictors: (Constant), BEHAVIOUR

Source: own research

**Table 3.7.11. ANOVA of the regression model for money spending.**

|  |  |  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
| **Model** | **Sum of squares** | **Df** | **Mean Square** | **F** | **Sig.** |
| Regression | 15956405.00 | 1 | 15956405.000 | 1325.089 | .000b |
| Residual | 12294640.75 | 1021 | 12041.764 |  |  |
| Total | 28251045.75 | 1022 |  |  |  |

a Dependent variable: MONEY SPENDING

b Predictors: (Constant), BEHAVIOUR

Source: own research

The last of the three models tests the prediction of fans’ money-spending habits through a linear regression model based on their behaviour level. A significant regression equation was found (F(1,1021)=1325.089, p < .000), with an R² of 0.565. Participants’ predicted money spending is equal to -0.006 + 0.699 (BEHAVIOUR).

**Table 3.7.12. Coefficients of the regression model for money spending.**

|  |  |  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
| **Model** | **Unstandardized coefficients** |  | **Standardized coefficients** | **t** | **Sig.** |
|  | **B** | **Std. error** | **Beta** |  |  |
| (Constant) | -0.006 | 11.275 |  | -0.001 | 1 |
| BEHAVIOUR | 0.699 | 0.019 | 0.752 | 36.402 | 0 |

a Dependent variable: MONEY SPENDING

Source: own research

Behaviour was a significant predictor of money spending.

Comparing the three models it is safe to say that the behaviour factor is a strong predictor for fans’ time and money spending. While the affective factor is a relatively good predictor of fan loyalty, the cognitive factor is a relatively good predictor of fan time spending, but it still does not perform as well as behaviour. From among the three models above, the second one, which is analysing time spending, has the highest quality with an accuracy of 86.9%, followed by the model analysing money spending with an accuracy of 56.5%, and with the first model predicting loyalty exhibiting a much lower quality with an accuracy of 37.2%.

According to the results obtained from the three models suggested by the author, if a club is interested in predicting its fans’ time spending, the second model shows high levels of accuracy in predicting such time spending using as predictors the cognitive and behaviour constructs. Based on this, the club can increase the cognitive and behavioural connection and in consequence increase the time a fan spends on things related to the team, for example preparing for a match with cheering equipment, being with other fans or following the team on social media and in the press.

The second model that may be used by clubs, mainly by the marketing and sales departments, concerns the prediction of money-spending habits of the fans, even though the model show less accuracy than the previous one presented, which predicts time-spending habits. This model uses behaviour to predict money-spending habits and can be used to aid in the prediction of better ways of increasing income by addressing the fans’ behaviour in a more suitable way and influencing such a behaviour to affect the money-spending habits of the fan.

The third model shows poorer results regarding fitness and accuracy, so in this case, it is more difficult to implement the prediction of loyalty with the help of the affective construct. However, from the results in other parts of the research (Subchapter 3.2) it is possible to see that loyalty is usually stable over the years, and is formed at a young age, most frequently by the influence of a parent or sibling.

**Chapter 4**

**SUMMARY**

For many football is more than a sport. This thesis investigated the attitude of football fans in Israel and aspects related to fan consumption, loyalty and violence. An investigation was conducted in which the three constructs that inform the attitude (cognitive, affective and behavioural) were analysed, as was their relation to the factors of fans’ spending habits, attendance, loyalty and violence. This was done with a quantitative study performed based on data collected from a survey conducted with a questionnaire designed specifically for the purposes of the research. The questionnaire was designed especially for the purposes of this research; 1,106 respondents answered the questionnaire and in a usable way. Based on those answers the analysis was performed according to the five hypotheses which were formulated for the purpose of this study, each to understand the different relations studied.

Several notable results were achieved. Consistently in the results, regardless of the compared factor or variable, the behavioural construct had more influence than the cognitive and affective constructs; for example one result shows that the behaviour construct has a stronger influence on attendance than the cognitive and affective constructs do. Comparing factors that influence the attitude of the fans shows that the way of becoming a fan has a stronger influence than age or socioeconomic status. A quite expected result shows that a stronger attitude leads to the fan spending more money and time on team-related things. Two related conclusions were achieved from that part of the research revealing, first, that the connection between time-spending habits and the attitude of the fan is stronger than the connection between money-spending habits and the attitude of the fan; second, that a more loyal fan will spend more on team-related things. A more surprising result was that violence affects fans with a lower level of fanhood less; the author would expect that a fan with a strong attitude would be less affected by violence because he is more used to it. Another result proved that violence and the low level of s football match would not cause the fans with a strong attitude to stop going to matches. It was expected that these two different factors would not affect fans with a strong attitude, but this maybe shows the uniqueness of this market where the product, the football match, is not good and the customer, the fan, continues to consume. Finally, it is worth mentioning that from the last part of the research, meaning the analysis of different regression models, the behaviour factor is a strong predictor for fans’ time and money spending.

From all the results and conclusions obtained from this research, some ideas for marketers in the football market can be drawn. The marketers in the football market should emphasize their efforts in maintaining the level of fanhood of older fans by increasing their attitude constructs. It should be even more important to create the attitude at young age, more specifically, to create that connection to the club through the fathers and brothers. Another way should be by generating opportunities for young people to be a part of the club by playing in it; this will create a connection to the team and club later on in life. In addition it is recommended for the clubs to focus their marketing efforts on the behavioural construct; this way they target the fan in a more efficient way. So they should rather approach the fan from a cognitive or affective way; for example in advertisements, they should try to influence him through the behavioural construct – to cause the fan to take actions, for example in club activities. Moreover, to overcome the violence factor, the club should raise the fans’ attitude so they continue to attend despite the presence of violence.

In this thesis, the author dealt with a part of the football market, and in a specific country. This research can be continued and developed in different directions. From the author’s point of view some directions should be combining the marketing discipline with the sociological one and investigating the attitude of the fan through a combination of both areas. A different direction of future research is to try to reach a formula to get a number for each construct and for the attitude; this formula would include the different factors influencing the attitude. Another idea is to study ways to eradicate or minimize violence in football by using fan attitude as an element for achieving this goal.

**APPENDICES**

**Questionnaire**

1. Following are the names of known Israeli Premier League football teams. Which one is your favourite team?
   1. Maccabi Tel Aviv
   2. Hapoel Tel Aviv
   3. Maccabi Haifa
   4. Beitar Jerusalem
   5. Kiryat Shemona
2. For how many years have you been a fan of the team? \_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_
3. What is your level of fanhood of your team today:
   1. Avid Fan
   2. Significant
   3. Normal
   4. Low
4. Have you been at the same level of fanhood for all the years that you’ve been a fan of the team?
   1. Yes, every year the same level
   2. No, sympathy weakened over the years
   3. No, sympathy strengthened over the years
   4. No, sometimes more and sometimes less
5. In general, how would you define what the team means to you?
   1. The team is my life
   2. This team is something nice to identify with
   3. This team is a fun way to spend my time
   4. The team is a social and family formation activity
6. Following are a number of standard ways to become a ‘team fan’. Specify the ways that caused you to become a team fan.
   1. My Dad / my brother was a team fan
   2. The stadium was close to my home
   3. In my youth I played for the team
   4. Through friends at school
   5. Through friends at the army
   6. Through friends at work
   7. I connected to the team alone
   8. Other \_\_\_\_\_\_\_
7. In the following table there are phrases related to your behaviour as a supporter of the football team you are a fan of. Mark the extent to which these sentences are correct for you:

|  |  |  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
|  | Always | Frequently | Sometimes | Rarely | Never |
| I come to every home game of the team |  |  |  |  |  |
| I travel to every away game of the team in the country |  |  |  |  |  |
| I watch every game of my team on TV (when I’m not going to the stadium) |  |  |  |  |  |
| I buy food and beverages at the stadium during the game |  |  |  |  |  |
| I buy products associated with the team (scarf, shirt, etc.) |  |  |  |  |  |
| I write and respond on the team’s Facebook page |  |  |  |  |  |
| I follow the team on social networks |  |  |  |  |  |
| I travel overseas to at least one game of the season to see my team (seasons in which the team plays in international competitions) |  |  |  |  |  |
| I am active in a club’s fan club |  |  |  |  |  |
| I try to go watch the team training (at least at the main sessions) |  |  |  |  |  |
| I go to conferences and formal galas of the club (presentation of new coach or players, start of a new season etc.) |  |  |  |  |  |
| I prepare equipment and accessories of encouragement (signs, costumes etc.) |  |  |  |  |  |
| I follow my team over the sports media |  |  |  |  |  |

1. In the following table there are phrases related to your feelings and emotions as a supporter of the football team you are a fan of. Mark the extent to which these sentences are correct for you:

|  |  |  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
| As a team fan… | Always | Frequently | Sometimes | Rarely | Never |
| I feel part of something big and important |  |  |  |  |  |
| I feel that the group gives me self-identity |  |  |  |  |  |
| I am actually part of a larger and consolidated social group |  |  |  |  |  |
| I can lead and influence a group of people |  |  |  |  |  |
| I feel that I have the support and sympathy of the fan group |  |  |  |  |  |
| It is important for me to learn and gain knowledge about the team |  |  |  |  |  |
| My identity is influenced by sympathy for the team |  |  |  |  |  |
| Things associated with the team make me excited |  |  |  |  |  |
| I feel more confident |  |  |  |  |  |
| I feel satisfaction and enjoyment |  |  |  |  |  |
| I hate the rival teams |  |  |  |  |  |
| The team helps me to disconnect from everyday reality |  |  |  |  |  |

1. Here are various options for the way of purchasing of tickets for your team. Select the option that you used in the past few years:
   1. Seasonal tickets to all high-level seats
   2. Seasonal tickets to all low-level seats
   3. Seasonal tickets to European competition games only
   4. I don't go to games
   5. Individual game tickets

If you answered E, how many games do you buy tickets for during a season?

* 1. 1–5
  2. 6–10
  3. 11–15
  4. 16+

1. Following are different types of money expenses that football fans spend on things related to their favourite team (including gifts for others). Think about your spending during a typical season and mark for each type the extent of your spending.

|  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
|  | Yearly spending | | | | | |
|  | Not at all | Less than 250 | 251–500 | 501–750 | 751–1000 | More than 1001 |
| Tickets / seasonal ticket |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| Food and drinks at the stadium |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| Merchandise related to the team (i.e. scarf, shirt, flags, decorations) |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| Paid TV channels for watching the games |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| Traveling cost to the games (transportation) |  |  |  |  |  |  |

1. Following are a number of possible reasons that may cause many fans to hesitate whether to buy seasonal tickets and regularly attend team games. Mark the reasons that might influence your decision (you may mark more than one):
2. Lack of public transport to the stadium
3. Lack of parking spaces at the stadium
4. Ticket prices are too high in your opinion
5. Violence
6. The level of the football match
7. Here are a number of well-known behaviours of football fans around the world. Grade the violence level of these behaviours:

|  |  |  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
|  | Violence level | | | | |
|  | Very high | high | Medium | Low | Very low |
| Curses from the stands towards the coach or the players of the opposing team |  |  |  |  |  |
| Curses from the stands towards the coach or the players of your team |  |  |  |  |  |
| Participation in a fight between fan groups inside the stadium |  |  |  |  |  |
| Participation in a fight between fan groups outside the stadium |  |  |  |  |  |
| Throwing an object with a weight that might hurt somebody into the pitch |  |  |  |  |  |
| Lighting flares in the stands |  |  |  |  |  |
| Raising posters with content offending some players or the opposing team |  |  |  |  |  |
| Vandalism at the stadium |  |  |  |  |  |

1. Have you witnessed any type of violence when you were present at a match?
2. Yes
3. No

If you answered ‘yes’, check the behaviour that you witnessed:

|  |  |
| --- | --- |
| Curses from the stands towards the coach or the players of the opposing team |  |
| Curses from the stands towards the coach or the players of your team |  |
| Participation in a fight between fan groups inside the stadium |  |
| Participation in a fight between fan groups outside the stadium |  |
| Throwing an object with a weight that might hurt somebody into the pitch |  |
| Lighting flares in the stands |  |
| Raising posters with content offending some players or the opposing team |  |
| Vandalism at the stadium |  |

1. Would this type of violence cause you not to attend more matches?
2. Yes
3. No

General info:

1. Age
2. Gender
3. Male
4. Female
5. Current residential area (choose from among 10 options)
6. Childhood residential area (choose from among 10 options)
7. Occupation \_\_\_\_\_\_
8. Education level (choose from among 5 options)
9. Marital status
   1. Single
   2. Married
   3. Divorced
   4. Widowed
10. Socioeconomic status
11. Far below average
12. Below average
13. Average
14. Above average
15. Far above average

**REFERENCES**

Abosag, I., Roper, S. and Hind, D. (2012a) ‘Examining the relationship between brand emotion and brand extension among supporters of professional football clubs’, *European Journal of Marketing*, 46(9), pp. 1233–1251. doi: 10.1108/03090561211247810.

Abosag, I., Roper, S. and Hind, D. (2012b) ‘Examining the relationship between brand emotion and brand extension among supporters of professional football clubs’, *European Journal of Marketing*, 46(9), pp. 1233–1251. doi: 10.1108/03090561211247810.

Ajzen, I. and Fishbein, M. (1977) ‘Attitude-behaviour relations: A theoretical analysis and review of empirical research.’, *Psychological Bulletin*, 84(5), pp. 888–918. doi: 10.1037/0033-2909.84.5.888.

Ajzen, I. and Fishbein, M. (1980) *Understanding attitudes and predicting social behaviour*, *EnglewoodCliffs NY Prentice Hall*. doi: Z.

Anderson, D. (1979) ‘Sport spectatorship: Appropriation of an identity or appraisal of self’, *Review of Sport and Leisure*, 4(2), pp. 115–127.

Andrews, M. (2015) *Being Special: The Rise of Super Clubs in European Football*.

Atkinson, J. W. (1957) ‘Motivational determinants of risk-taking behaviour.’, *Psychological Review*. US: American Psychological Association, 64(6, Pt.1), pp. 359–372. doi: 10.1037/h0043445.

Bahk, C. M. (2000) ‘Sex differences in sport spectator involvement.’, *Perceptual and motor skills*, 91(1), pp. 79–83. doi: 10.2466/pms.2000.91.1.79.

Bainbridge Frymier, A. and Nadler, M. K. (2017) ‘The Relationship between Attitudes and Achieveme’, in *Persuasion: Integrating Theory, Research, and Practice*. 4th edn. Kendall Hunt, pp. 42–58. Available at: http://aquila.usm.edu/cgi/viewcontent.cgi?article=1162&context=honors\_theses.

Bandura, a (1971) ‘Social learning theory’, *General learning corporation*. New York, p. 46.

Bartholomew, K. and Horowitz, L. M. (1991) ‘Attachment Styles Among Young Adults: A Test of a Four-Category Model’, *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 61(2). doi: 0022-3514.61.2.226.

Belk, R. W. and Costa, J. A. (1998) ‘The Mountain Man Myth : A Contemporary Consuming Fantasy’, *Journal of Consumer Research*, 25(3), pp. 218–240. doi: 10.1086/209536.

Belk, R. W. and Tumbat, G. (2005) ‘The Cult of Macintosh’, *Consumption Markets & Culture*, 8(3), pp. 205–217. doi: 10.1080/10253860500160403.

Bello, L. (2008) *Consumer Behaviour*. Victoria Island, Lagos: National Open University of Nigeria 2008.

Bettman, J. R. and Sujan, M. (1987) ‘Effects of Framing on Evaluation of Comparable and Noncomparable Alternatives by Expert and Novice Consumers’, *Journal of Consumer Research*, 14(2), p. 141. doi: 10.1086/209102.

Bialowas, S. A. (2017) *Theoretical and Empirical Aspects of Economics Management and Finance*. Edited by S. A. Białowąs. Doctoral Seminars in English, Poznań University of Economics and Business.

Biscaia, R. *et al.* (2013) ‘Sport sponsorship: The relationship between team loyalty, sponsorship awareness, attitude toward the sponsor, and purchase intentions’, *Journal of Sport Management*, 27(4), pp. 288–302. Available at: http://www.scopus.com/inward/record.url?eid=2-s2.0-84881523291&partnerID=tZOtx3y1.

Blumrodt, J., Desbordes, M. and Bodin, D. (2013) ‘Professional football clubs and corporate social responsibility’, *Sport, Business and Management: An International Journal*, 3(3), pp. 205–225. doi: 10.1108/SBM-04-2011-0050.

Bohstedt, J. (1994) ‘The dynamics of riots: Escalation and diffusion/contagion’, *The dynamics of aggression: Biological and social processes in dyads and groups*. Erlbaum Hillsdale, NJ, pp. 257–306.

Borland, J. and MacDonald, R. (2003) ‘Demand for sport’, *Oxford Review of Economic Policy*, 19(4), pp. 478–503. Available at: http://oxrep.oxfordjournals.org/content/19/4/478.short (Accessed: 7 November 2014).

Bourdieu, P. (1980) ‘Questions de sociologie’, pp. 642–647. Available at: http://library.wur.nl/WebQuery/clc/188139 (Accessed: 14 January 2015).

Boyle, R. and Haynes, R. (2000) *Power Play: Sport, the Media and Popular Culture*. Longman. Available at: https://books.google.co.il/books?id=XfyBAAAAMAAJ.

Brandes, L., Franck, E. and Theiler, P. (2013) ‘The group size and loyalty of football fans: a two-stage estimation procedure to compare customer potentials across teams’, *Journal of the Royal Statistical Society: Series A (Statistics in Society)*, 176(2), pp. 347–369. doi: 10.1111/j.1467-985X.2011.01033.x.

Branscombe, N. R. and Wann, D. L. (1991) ‘The Positive Social and Self Concept Consequences of Sports Team Identification’, *Journal of Sport & Social Issues*, 15(2), pp. 115–127. doi: 10.1177/019372359101500202.

Bray, J. P. (2008) *Consumer Behaviour Theory: Approaches and Models*. Available at: http://eprints.bournemouth.ac.uk/10107/4/licence.txt.

Breckler, S.-J. and Berman, J.-S. (1991) ‘Affective responses to attitude objects: Measurement and validation’, *Journal of Social Behaviour and Personality*, 6(3), pp. 529–544.

Breckler, S. J. (1984) ‘Empirical validation of affect, behaviour, and cognition as distinct components of attitude.’, *Journal of personality and social psychology*, 47(6), pp. 1191–1205. doi: 10.1037/0022-3514.47.6.1191.

Breckler, S. J. and Wiggins, E. C. (1989) ‘Affect versus evaluation in the structure of attitudes’, *Journal of Experimental Social Psychology*, 25(3), pp. 253–271. doi: 10.1016/0022-1031(89)90022-X.

Breckler, S. J. and Wiggins, E. C. (1991) ‘Cognitive responses in persuasion: Affective and evaluative determinants’, *Journal of Experimental Social Psychology*, 27(2), pp. 180–200. doi: 10.1016/0022-1031(91)90021-W.

Brohm, J. M. (1993) *Les Meutes sportives*. Paris: L’Harmattan.

Buisson, F. (2013) *Prospect Theory and consumer behaviour: Goals and Tradeoffs*. 13030. Paris. Available at: http://ideas.repec.org/p/mse/cesdoc/13030.html.

Burridge, K. and Connell, L. (1983) *A new protein of adhesion plaques and ruffling membranes.*, *Journal of Cell Biology*. Free Press. doi: 10.1083/jcb.97.2.359.

Cacioppo, J. T., Gardner, W. L. and Berntson, G. G. (1997) ‘Beyond Bipolar Conceptualizations and Measures: The Case of Attitudes and Evaluative Space’, *Personality and Social Psychology Review*, 1(1), p. 3. doi: 10.1207/s15327957pspr0101.

Capella, M. E. (2002) ‘Measuring Sports Fans’ Involvement: The Fan Behaviour Questionnaire’, *Souther Business Review*, pp. 30–36.

Chowdhury, S. K. and Salam, M. (2017) ‘Predicting Attitude Based on Cognitive , Affective and Conative Components : An Online Shopping Perspective’, *Stanford Journal of Business Studies*, (December 2015).

Clarke, J. (1978) ‘Football and working class fans: tradition and change’, *Football hooliganism: The wider context*. Available at: https://scholar.google.co.il/scholar?hl=en&q=Football+and+working+class+fans%3A+Tradition+and+change+clarke+1978&btnG=&as\_sdt=1%2C5&as\_sdtp=#0 (Accessed: 6 January 2016).

Coakley, J. (1998) *Sport in Society: Issues and Controversies.*, *Contemporary Sociology*. Ne: Irwin/McGraw-Hill (Health P.E. Series). doi: 10.2307/2064947.

Coakley, J. (2001) *Sport in Society: Issues and Controversies*.

Darrow, C. and Lowinger, P. (1968) ‘The Detroit uprising: A psychological study’, in Masserman, J. (ed.) *The dynamics of dissent: Science and psychoanalysis*. New York: Grune and Stratton.

Daskal, O. (2015a) *כלכליסט: סקר הספורט הגדול*, *Calcalist*. Available at: http://www.calcalist.co.il/sport/articles/0,7340,L-3662969,00.html.

Daskal, O. (2015b) *מה לומדים מדו’חות הקבוצות הגדולות של ליגת העל?*, *Calcalist*. Available at: http://www.calcalist.co.il/sport/articles/0,7340,L-3669151,00.html.

Daskal, O. (2017) *כדורגל ישראלי חי על כסף ציבורי*, *Calcalist*. Available at: https://www.calcalist.co.il/sport/articles/0,7340,L-3721224,00.html.

Daskalopoulou, I. (2008) ‘Fairness perceptions and observed consumer behaviour: Results of a partial observability model’, *Journal of Socio-Economics*, 37(1), pp. 31–44. doi: 10.1016/j.socec.2006.12.024.

Defrance, J. (2000) *Sociologie du sport*. Paris: La Decouverte. Available at: http://scholar.google.com/scholar?hl=en&btnG=Search&q=intitle:Sociologie+du+sport#0 (Accessed: 14 January 2015).

Dietschy, P. (2013a) ‘Making football global? FIFA, Europe, and the non-European football world, 1912–74’, *Journal of Global History*, 8(02), pp. 279–298. doi: 10.1017/S1740022813000223.

Dietschy, P. (2013b) ‘Making football global? FIFA, Europe, and the non-European football world, 1912–74’, *Journal of Global History*, 8(02), pp. 279–298. doi: 10.1017/S1740022813000223.

Dietz-Uhler, B. and Murrell, A. (1999) ‘Examining fan reactions to game outcomes: a longitudinal study of social identity’, *Journal of sport behaviour*. Journal of Sport Behaviour, 22(1), pp. 15–27. doi: 10.4319/lo.2013.58.2.0489.

Digital, T. (2007) *הכדורגל הישראלי הוא עסק רע: מבט על ההכנסות וההוצאות של קבוצה מגלה מיד כי מדובר בעסק שקשה להרוויח ממנו*, *The Marker*. Available at: https://www.themarker.com/markets/1.456278.

Dison, S. (2014) *How Much Does the Average Sports Fan Spend Annually?*, *Allpro Sports*. Available at: http://oxstones.com/how-much-does-the-average-sports-fan-spend-annually/ (Accessed: 7 October 2015).

Dixon, M. K. (2013) *Consuming Football in Late Modern Life*. Ashgate Publishing, Ltd. Available at: https://books.google.com/books?id=g9Srisl3tWUC&pgis=1 (Accessed: 7 October 2015).

Dobson, S. and Goddard, J. (2004) *Economics of football*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press; 2 edition (March 28, 2011). doi: 10.1017/CBO9780511973864.

Eagly, A. H. and Chaiken, S. (1993) *The Psychology of Attitudes*. illustrate. Harcourt Brace Jovanovich College Publishers. Available at: https://books.google.co.il/books?id=oPYMAQAAMAAJ.

Eagly, A. H. and Chaiken, S. (2007) ‘The Advantages of an Inclusive Definition of Attitude’, *Social Cognition*, 25(5), pp. 582–602. doi: 10.1521/soco.2007.25.5.582.

Editors, O. (2015) *לאיזו קבוצה בליגת העל הקהל הכי נאמן?*, *one.co.il*. Available at: http://www.one.co.il/Article/14-15/1,1,31,0/252663.html.

Eisler, P. (1997) ‘When your team takes a tumble, Guys go awry over losing’, *USA Today*.

Elias, N. (1971) ‘The Genesis of Sport as a Sociological Problem’, in *The Civilizing Process: Sociogenetic and Psychogenetic Investigations*. Available at: http://books.google.com/books?hl=en&lr=&id=TqyCioQFv6cC&oi=fnd&pg=PA102&dq=The+Genesis+of+Sport+as+a+Sociological+Problem’&ots=vI1HUDyi7t&sig=Jec0G0EfIzYOOcgfoJvAq-jKb2A (Accessed: 14 January 2015).

Elias, N. (1976) ‘Sport et violence’, *Actes de la recherche en sciences sociales*, 2(6), pp. 2–21. doi: 10.3406/arss.1976.3481.

Fazio, R. H. (1995) ‘Attitudes as object-evaluation associations: Determinants, consequences, and correlates of attitude accessibility.’, in *Attitude strength: Antecedents and consequences.*, pp. 247–282. Available at: http://www.redi-bw.de/db/ebsco.php/search.ebscohost.com/login.aspx%3Fdirect%3Dtrue%26db%3Dpsyh%26AN%3D1995-98997-010%26site%3Dehost-live.

Fazio, R. H. (2007) ‘Attitudes as Object–Evaluation Associations of Varying Strength’, *Social Cognition*, 25(5), pp. 603–637. doi: 10.1521/soco.2007.25.5.603.

Fields, S. K., Collins, C. L. and Comstock, R. D. (2007) ‘Conflict on the courts: a review of sports-related violence literature.’, *Trauma, violence & abuse*, 8(4), pp. 359–369. doi: 10.1177/1524838007307293.

Fisher, R. and Wakefield, K. (1998) ‘Factors leading to group identification: A field study of winners and losers’, *Psychology and Marketing*, 15(1), pp. 23–40. doi: 10.1002/(SICI)1520-6793(199801)15:1<23::AID-MAR3>3.3.CO;2-W.

Fløtnes, T. G. (2011) *Factors of success for Norwegian top football clubs*.

Funk, D. C. (1998) *Fan loyalty: The structure and stability of an individual’s loyalty toward an athletic team*. Available at: http://search.proquest.com.libraryproxy.griffith.edu.au/?url=http://search.proquest.com/docview/304441925?accountid=14543.

Funk, D. C. and James, J. D. (2006) ‘Consumer loyalty: The meaning of attachment in the development of sport team allegiance’, *Journal of Sport Management*, pp. 189–217. Available at: http://scholar.google.com/scholar?hl=en&btnG=Search&q=intitle:Consumer+Loyalty:+The+Meaning+of+Attachment+in+the+Development+of+Sport+Team+Allegiance#0 (Accessed: 2 November 2014).

Funk, D. C. and Pastore, D. E. (2000) ‘Equating Attitudes To Allegiance: The Usefulness Of Selected Attitudinal Information In Segmenting Loyalty To Professional Sports Teams’, *Sports Marketing Quarterly*, 9(4), pp. 175–184.

Funk, D. and James, J. (2001) ‘The psychological continuum model: A conceptual framework for understanding an individual’s psychological connection to sport’, *Sport Management Review*, (1978), pp. 119–150. Available at: http://www.sciencedirect.com/science/article/pii/S1441352301700721 (Accessed: 18 December 2014).

Gantz, W. and Wenner, L. (1995) ‘Fanship and the television sport viewing expereince’, *Sociology of sport journal*, 12(1), pp. 56–74.

Gerhardt, C. (2006) ‘Moving Closer to the Audience : Watching Football on Televisión’, *Revista Alicantina de Estudios Inglese*, 19, pp. 125–148.

Gibson, H. (2002) ‘‘ We ’ re Gators . . . Not Just Gator Fans ‘: Serious Leisure and University of Florida Football’, 34(4), pp. 397–425.

Giddens, A. (1984) *The Constitution of Society: Outline of the Theory of Structuration*. University of California Press (Outline of the Theory of Structuration). Available at: https://books.google.co.il/books?id=x2bf4g9Z6ZwC.

van Giesen, R. I. *et al.* (2015) ‘Affect and Cognition in Attitude Formation toward Familiar and Unfamiliar Attitude Objects’, *PLOS ONE*. Edited by P. Allen, 10(10), p. e0141790. doi: 10.1371/journal.pone.0141790.

Gilly, M. C. and Gelb, B. D. (1982) ‘Post-Purchase Consumer Processes and the Complaining Consumer’, *Journal of Consumer Research*. Oxford University Press, 9(3), pp. 323–328. doi: 10.2307/2488627.

Giulianotti, R. and Robertson, R. (2004) ‘The globalization of football: a study in the glocalization of the ‘serious life’.’, *The British journal of sociology*, 55(4), pp. 545–568. doi: 10.1111/j.1468-4446.2004.00037.x.

Glasman, L. R. and Albarracín, D. (2006) ‘Forming attitudes that predict future behaviour: A meta-analysis of the attitude-behaviour relation.’, *Psychological Bulletin*, 132(5), pp. 778–822. doi: 10.1037/0033-2909.132.5.778.

Gorn, G. J. (1982) ‘The Effects of Music in Advertising on Choice Behaviour: A Classical Conditioning Approach’, *Journal of Marketing*. American Marketing Association, 46(1), pp. 94–101. doi: 10.2307/1251163.

Greenwell, T. (2001) *The influence of spectator sports facilities on customer satisfaction and profitability*. Available at: http://scholar.google.com/scholar?hl=en&btnG=Search&q=intitle:THE+INFLUENCE+OF+SPECTATOR+SPORTS+FACILITIES+ON+CUSTOMER+SATISFACTION+AND+PROFITABILITY#0 (Accessed: 2 November 2014).

Greenwell, T. C. (2001) ‘The influence of spectator sports facilities on customer satisfaction and profitability’. Available at: http://scholar.google.com/scholar?hl=en&btnG=Search&q=intitle:THE+INFLUENCE+OF+SPECTATOR+SPORTS+FACILITIES+ON+CUSTOMER+SATISFACTION+AND+PROFITABILITY#0.

Guilbert, S. (2004) ‘Sport and Violence A Typological Analysis’, *International review for the sociology of sport*, 1, pp. 45–55. Available at: http://irs.sagepub.com/content/39/1/45.short (Accessed: 8 January 2015).

Hall, S. (1980) ‘Encoding/decoding’, *Culture, Media, Language*, pp. 128–138.

Hazan, C. *et al.* (1987) ‘Romantic Love Conceptualized as an Attachment Process’, *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 52(3), pp. 511–524.

Hird, J. (2010) ‘20+ mind-blowing social media statistics revisited’. Econsultancy. Available at: https://econsultancy.com/blog/5324-20+-mind-blowing-social-media-statistics-revisited.

Hirt, E. R. *et al.* (1992) ‘Costs and benefits of allegiance: Changes in fans’ self-ascribed competencies after team victory versus defeat.’, *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*. American Psychological Association, 63(5), pp. 724–738. doi: 10.1037/0022-3514.63.5.724.

Holbrook, M. B. and O’Shaughnessy, J. (1988) ‘On the Scientific Status of Consumer Research and the Need for an Interpretive Approach to Studying Consumption Behaviour’, *Journal of Consumer Research*. Oxford University Press, 15(3), p. 398. doi: 10.1086/209178.

*http://www.transfermarkt.com/* (no date). Available at: http://www.transfermarkt.com/ligat-ha-al/startseite/wettbewerb/ISR1.

Irwin, R. L., Sutton, W. A. and McCarthy, L. M. (2008) *Sport Promotion and Sales Management*. Human Kinetics. Available at: http://books.google.com/books?id=hQEH81Y-5RgC&pgis=1 (Accessed: 29 September 2014).

Jacobson, B. (2003) ‘The social psychology of the creation of a sports fan identity: A theoretical review of the literature’, *Athletic Insight*, 5(2), pp. 1–14. Available at: https://www.athleticinsight.com/Vol5Iss2/FanPDF.pdf.

Jeddi, S. *et al.* (2013) ‘Consumer behaviour and Consumer buying decision process’, *International Journal of Business and Behavoral Science*, 3(5), pp. 20–23.

Johnston, D. (2009) ‘Consumer Loyalty Amongst Sport Fans’, *Pureaudk*, 44(571). Available at: http://papers.ssrn.com/sol3/papers.cfm?abstract\_id=1718355.

Jones, I. (1997) ‘The origin and maintenance of sports fan identification: a response to Wann et al.(1996)’, *Perceptual and Motor Skills*, 85, pp. 257–258.

Joseph, C. (2015) *Customer and Consumer Definitions*, *Chron.com*. Available at: http://smallbusiness.chron.com/customer-consumer-definitions-5048.html (Accessed: 20 September 2015).

Kardes, F., Cronley, M. and Cline, T. (2010) *Consumer Behaviour*. Cengage Learning. doi: 10.1002/cb.84.

Kassarjian, H. H. (1971) ‘Personality and Consumer Behaviour: A Review’, *Journal of Marketing Research*. American Marketing Association, 8(4), pp. 409–418. doi: 10.2307/3150229.

Katz, D. (1960) ‘The functional approach to the study of attitudes’, *Public opinion quarterly*, 24, pp. 163–204. Available at: http://poq.oxfordjournals.org/content/24/2/163.short (Accessed: 2 December 2014).

Kelly, K., Lewis, R. and Mortimer, T. (2012) ‘In Football We Trust?’, *… Journal of Business and Social Science*, 3(8), pp. 243–255. Available at: http://www.ijbssnet.com/journals/Vol\_3\_No\_8\_Special\_Issue\_April\_2012/28.pdf (Accessed: 7 July 2014).

Kerr, J. H. *et al.* (2005) ‘Emotional dynamics of soccer fans at winning and losing games’, *Personality and Individual Differences*, 38, pp. 1855–1866. doi: 10.1016/j.paid.2004.10.002.

Kotler, P., Armstrong, G. and Armstrong, G. M. (1989) *Principles of marketing*. Prentice Hall (The Prentice Hall series in marketing). Available at: https://books.google.co.il/books?id=MHekOSvZRmIC.

Kuypers, T. (1997) *The beautiful game? an econometric study of audiences, gambling and efficiency in English football*. Available at: http://discovery.ucl.ac.uk/1317538/.

Lantos, G. P. (2015) *Consumer Behaviour in Action: Real-life Applications for Marketing Managers*. Taylor & Francis. Available at: https://books.google.co.il/books?id=NnNsBgAAQBAJ.

LaPiere, R. (1934) ‘The functional approach to the study of attitudes’, *Social forces*, 13, pp. 230–237. Available at: http://www.jstor.org/stable/2570339 (Accessed: 2 December 2014).

Larson, C. (2009) *Persuasion: Reception and Responsibility*. Cengage Learning. Available at: https://books.google.co.il/books?id=iZQC6pn2jHgC.

Laverie, D. A. and Arnett, D. B. (2000) ‘Factors affecting fan attendance: The influence of identity salience and satisfaction’, *Journal of Leisure Research*, 32(2), pp. 225–246. doi: Article.

Leck, J. D. and Saunders, D. M. (1992) ‘Hirschman’s loyalty: Attitude or behaviour?’, *Employee Responsibilities and Rights Journal*, 5(3), pp. 219–230. doi: 10.1007/BF01385049.

Leonard, W. M. (1993) *A sociological perspective of sport*. 4th edn. New York : Maxwell Macmillan International, ©1993.

Lichtenstein, D. R., Ridgway, N. M. and Netemeyer, R. G. (1993) ‘Price Perceptions and Consumer Shopping Behaviour: A Field Study’, *Journal of Marketing Research*, 30(2), pp. 234–245. doi: 10.2307/3172830.

Likert, R. (1932) ‘A technique for the measurement of attitudes.’, *Archives of Psychology*, 22 140, p. 55.

Lukic, D. (2009) *Emotional Appeals in Social Marketing*, *Aarhus School of Business*. Available at: http://theses.asb.dk/projekter/fbspretrieve/7341/Emotional\_appeals\_in\_social\_marketing.pdf.

Madrigal, R. (1995) ‘Cognitive and affective determinants of fan satisfaction with sporting attendance’, *Journal of Leisure Research*. Routledge, 27(3), p. 205. doi: Article.

Mahony, D. F., Madrigal, R. and Howard, D. (2000) ‘Using the Psychological Commitment to Team ( PCT ) Scale to Segment Sport Consumers Based on Loyalty’, *Sport Marketing Quarterly*, 9(1), pp. 15–25. Available at: http://thesportjournal.org/article/tag/psychological-commitment/.

Mahony, D. F. and Moorman, A. M. (1999) ‘The Impact of Fan Attitudes on Intentions to Watch Professional Basketball Teams on Television’, *Sport Management Review*, 2(1), pp. 43–66. doi: 10.1016/S1441-3523(99)70089-6.

Maio, G. R. and Haddock, G. (2010) *The psychology of attitudes and attitude change*, *Most*. SAGE Publications. doi: 10.4135/9781446214299.

Maio, G. R. and Haddock, G. (2010) *The Psychology of Attitudes and Attitude Change (Sage Social Psychology Program)*, *Most*. In SAGE Social Psychology Program.London : Sage Publications, Ltd. 2009. doi: 10.4135/9781446214299.

Marsden, D. and Littler, D. (1999) ‘A Dialectical Approach to Consumer Research : Beyond Positivism and Postmodernism’, *European Advances in Consumer Research*, 4(1999), pp. 341–346.

Marx, G. T. (1970) ‘Issueless riots’, *The Annals of the American Academy of Political and Social Science*. Sage Publications Sage CA: Thousand Oaks, CA, 391(1), pp. 21–33.

Maslow, A. H. (1963) ‘The Need to know and the Fear of Knowing’, *The Journal of General Psychology*. Routledge, 68(1), pp. 111–125. doi: 10.1080/00221309.1963.9920516.

McLeod, S. A. (2009) ‘Attitudes and behaviour’, *Simply psychology*. Available at: http://www.simplypsychology.org/attitudes.html (Accessed: 2 December 2014).

Mohammed, M. (2007) ‘Post-Purchase Dissonance : The Wisdom of the ’ Repeat ’ Purchases’, *Journal of Global Business Issues*, 1(Summer 2007), pp. 183–193.

Montazeri, B. *et al.* (2013) ‘The Impact of Attitude on Consumer Behaviour’, *Universal Journal of Management and Social Sciences*, 3(3), pp. 72–77.

Morley, D. (1980) *The ‘Nationwide’ Audience: Structure and Decoding*. London. Available at: http://www.ling.ohio-state.edu/~cclopper/nsp/index.html.

Morris, S. C. (2007) ‘The Causes of Violence and the Effects of Violence On Community and Individual Health’. Yale Section of Emergency Medicine, p. 74.

Murray, K. B. (1991) ‘A Test of Services Marketing Theory: Consumer Information Acquisition Activities’, *Journal of Marketing*. American Marketing Association, 55(1), pp. 10–25. doi: 10.2307/1252200.

Mustonen, A. (1996) ‘Predictors Riotous of Sports Behaviour Spectators ’ in Finland Proclivity for and Canada’, *Science*, 21(4), pp. 519–525.

Nash, R. (2000) ‘The sociology of English football in the 1990s: Fandom, business and future Research’, *Football Studies*. Available at: http://library.la84.org/SportsLibrary/FootballStudies/2000/FS0301f.pdf (Accessed: 6 January 2016).

Nativ, Y. (2015) *כמה מרוויחים מועדוני הכדורגל על כרטיס למשחק?*, *Calcalist*. Available at: https://www.calcalist.co.il/local/articles/0,7340,L-3648949,00.html.

Neal, W. D. (2000) ‘For most customers , loyalty isn’t an attitude’, *Marketing News*, p. 7.

Neale, W. C. (1964) ‘The Peculiar Economics of Professional Sports: A Contribution to the Theory of the Firm in Sporting Competition and in Market Competition’, *The Quarterly Journal of Economics*, 78(1), pp. 1–14. doi: 10.2307/1880543.

Oliver, R. L. and Bearden, W. O. (1985) ‘Disconfirmation processes and consumer evaluations in product usage’, *Journal of Business Research*, 13(3), pp. 235–246. doi: 10.1016/0148-2963(85)90029-3.

Olsen, S. O. (2007) ‘Repurchase loyalty: The role of involvement and satisfaction’, *Psychology and Marketing*, 24(4), pp. 315–341. doi: 10.1002/mar.20163.

Park, C. W., Macinnis, D. J. and Priester, J. R. (2006) ‘Beyond Attitudes: Attachment and Consumer Behaviour’, *Seoul National Journal*, 12(2), pp. 3–36.

Passikoff, R. (1997) ‘Pro sports needs to manage fan loyalty’, *Brandweek*, p. 1997.

Perloff, R. M. (2003) *The Dynamics of Persuasion: Communication and Attitudes in the 21st Century*. Lawrence Erlbaum Associates (Communication textbook series: General communication theory and methodology). Available at: https://books.google.co.il/books?id=pytBF-QVw6wC.

Perugini, M. (2005) ‘Predictive models of implicit and explicit attitudes’, *British Journal of Social Psychology*, 44(1), pp. 29–45. doi: 10.1348/014466604X23491.

Petty, R. E., Briñol, P. and DeMarree, K. G. (2007) ‘The Meta–Cognitive Model (MCM) of Attitudes: Implications for Attitude Measurement, Change, and Strength’, *Social Cognition*, 25(5), pp. 657–686. doi: 10.1521/soco.2007.25.5.657.

Petty, R. E. and Cacioppo, J. T. (1981) *Attitudes and persuasion--classic and contemporary approaches*. Available at: https://books.google.co.il/books/about/Attitudes\_and\_Persuasion\_classic\_and\_Con.html?id=3GYeAQAAIAAJ&pgis=1 (Accessed: 9 August 2015).

Petty, R. E. and Krosnick, J. A. (1995) ‘Attitude strength: An overview’, in *Attitude Strength: Antecedents and Consequences*. Psychology Press, pp. 1–24. Available at: https://books.google.com/books?hl=en&lr=&id=taWYAgAAQBAJ&pgis=1 (Accessed: 9 August 2015).

Pooley, J. (1978) *The sport fan: A social psychology of misbehaviour*, *Sociology of sport monograph series*. Canadian Association for Health, Physical Education and Recreation (CAHPER sociology of sport monograph series). Available at: https://books.google.co.il/books?id=akwbywAACAAJ.

Porter, C. D. (2008) *The Sport Enterprise: A Student’s Perspective 2nd Edition*. Lulu.com. Available at: https://books.google.com/books?id=ftg8AgAAQBAJ&pgis=1 (Accessed: 7 October 2015).

Pritchard, M. P., Havitz, M. E. and Howard, D. R. (1999) ‘Analyzing the commitment-loyalty link in service contexts’, *Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science*, 27(3), pp. 333–348. doi: 10.1177/0092070399273004.

Quick, S. (2000) ‘Contemporary sport consumers: Some implications of linking fan typology with key spectator variables’, *Sport Marketing Quarterly*. Available at: https://scholar.google.co.il/scholar?q=Contemporary+sport+consumers%3A+Some+implications+of+linking+fan+typology+with+key+spectator+variables&btnG=&hl=en&as\_sdt=0%2C5&as\_ylo=2000&as\_yhi=2000#0 (Accessed: 6 January 2016).

Richardson, B. and Dwyer, E. (2003) ‘Football supporters and football team brands: a study in consumer brand loyalty’, *Irish Marketing Review*. Available at: http://arrow.dit.ie/cgi/viewcontent.cgi?article=1021&context=jouimriss#page=47 (Accessed: 29 July 2014).

Richins, M. L. and Dawson, S. (1992) ‘A Consumer Values Orientation for Materialism and Its Measurement: Scale Development and Validation’, *Journal of Consumer Research*, 19(3), p. 303. doi: 10.1086/209304.

Riley, M. W. *et al.* (1954) *Communication and Persuasion: Psychological Studies of Opinion Change.*, *American Sociological Review*. doi: 10.2307/2087772.

Rosenberg, M. L. and Mercy, J. A. (1991) ‘Assaultive Violence’, in *Violence in America : A Public Health Approach*. New York: Oxford University Press, pp. 15–50.

Rottenber, S. (1956) ‘ The Baseball Player’s Labor Market.’, *The Journal of Political Economy*, 64(3 (jun)), pp. 242–258.

Schnater, B. (2016) *Surveying fans to increase satisfaction and engagement*, *Fan Onderzoek Eredivisie*.

Schwarz, N. (2007) ‘Attitude Construction: Evaluation in Context’, *Social Cognition*, 25(5), pp. 638–656. doi: 10.1521/soco.2007.25.5.638.

Semyonov, M. and Farbstein, M. (1989) ‘Ecology of Sports Violence: The Case of Israeli Soccer’, *Sociology of sport journal*, 6, pp. 50–59.

Service, C. (2016) *ליגת העל: יותר צופים במגרשים, יותר רייטינג*, *Calcalist*. Available at: http://www.calcalist.co.il/sport/articles/0,7340,L-3691161,00.html.

Shank, M. D. and Beasley, F. M. (1998) ‘Fan or fanatic: Refining a measure of sports involvement’, *Journal of Sport Behaviour*, 21(4), p. 435. Available at: http://ezproxy.library.capella.edu/login?url=http://search.ebscohost.com.library.capella.edu/login.aspx?direct=true&db=aph&AN=1321206&site=ehost-live&scope=site.

Simons, Y. and Taylor, J. (1992) ‘A psychosocial model of fan violence in sports.’, *International Journal of Sport Psychology*. Edizioni Luigi Pozzi.

Simonson, M. and Maushak, N. (1995) ‘Instructional technology and attitude change’, *Instructional Technology: Past, Present, & Future*, pp. 984–1016. Available at: http://scholar.google.com/scholar?hl=en&btnG=Search&q=intitle:Instructional+technology+and+attitude+change#0.

Skinner, B. (1938) *The Behaviour of Organisms: An experimental analysis*, *The Psychological Record*. Oxford, England: Appleton-Century. Available at: http://opensiuc.lib.siu.edu/tpr/vol47/iss4/5/.

Sloane, P. J. (1969) ‘The labour market in professional football’, *British Journal of Industrial Relations*, 7, pp. 181–200. Available at: http://onlinelibrary.wiley.com/doi/10.1111/j.1467-8543.1969.tb00560.x/abstract.

Smith, G. J. (1988) ‘The noble sports fan’, *Journal of Sport & Social Issues*, 12(1), pp. 54–65. doi: 10.1177/019372358801200105.

Smith, M. D. (1983) ‘Violence and sport.’, *Violence and sport.* Butterworths.

Snir, A. (2013) *כדורגל יכול להיות רווחי*, *Calcalist*. Available at: https://www.calcalist.co.il/sport/articles/0,7340,L-3616809,00.html.

Sorek, T. (2007) ‘Soccer Fandom and Citizenship in Israel’, *Middle East Report*. Available at: http://ns2.merip.org/mer/mer245/soccer-fandom-citizenship-israel (Accessed: 6 November 2014).

Soucie, D. (1994) ‘Effective managerial leadership in sport organizations.’, *Journal of Sport Management*. Available at: http://www.cabdirect.org/abstracts/19941803161.html (Accessed: 7 July 2014).

Spaaij, R. (2014) ‘Sports crowd violence: An interdisciplinary synthesis’, *Aggression and Violent Behaviour*. Elsevier Ltd, 19(2), pp. 146–155. doi: 10.1016/j.avb.2014.02.002.

Spinrad, W. *et al.* (1981) ‘The function of spectator sports.’, *Handbook of social science of sport.* Champaign, Illinois: Stipes Publishing Company, pp. 355–365.

Sports, W. (no date) *ממוצע קהל ביתי*, *Walla.co.il*. Available at: http://sports.walla.co.il/stats?leagueId=2133&stat=18.

Statista (2017) *Most famous social network sites worldwide as of August 2017, ranked by number of active users (in millions)*, *The Statistic Portal*.

Statistics, C. B. of (2012) *Society in Israel no. 5*. Jerusalem. Available at: http://www.cbs.gov.il/reader/newhodaot/hodaa\_template.html?hodaa=201223241.

Sumida, K., Fujimoto, J. and Sakata, M. (2014) ‘Differentiating attitudes: team loyalty and attitude towards spectating behaviour’, *Sport, Business and Management: An International Journal*, 4(2), pp. 109–124. doi: 10.1108/SBM-02-2011-0024.

Tanner, J. F. J. and Raymond, M. A. (2012) ‘Consumer Behaviour: How People Make Buying Decisions’, in *Marketing Principles*, pp. 65–103. Available at: http://www.saylor.org/site/wp-content/uploads/2013/02/BUS203-PoM-Ch3.pdf.

Tapp, A. (2004a) ‘The loyalty of football fans - we’ll support you evermore?’, *Journal of Database Marketing & Customer Strategy Management*, 11(3), p. 203. doi: 10.1057/palgrave.dbm.3240221.

Tapp, A. (2004b) ‘The loyalty of football fans - we’ll support you evermore?’, *Journal of Database Marketing & Customer Strategy Management*, 11, pp. 203–215. doi: 10.1057/palgrave.dbm.3240221.

Tennyson, R. D. and Rasch, M. (1988) ‘Linking cognitive learning theory to instructional prescriptions’, *Instructional Science*, 17(4), pp. 369–385. doi: 10.1007/BF00056222.

Thurstone, L. L. (1928) ‘Attitudes Can Be Measured’, *American Journal of Sociology*. The University of Chicago Press, 33(4), pp. 529–554. doi: 10.2307/2765691.

Toledo-Pereyra, L. H. (2006) ‘Loyalty’, *Journal of Investigative Surgery*, 19(5), pp. 275–277. doi: 10.1080/08941930600950953.

Trail, G. T. and James, J. D. (2001) ‘The Motivation Scale for Sport Consumption: Assessment of the Scale’s Psychometric Properties’, *Journal of Sport Behaviour*, 24(1).

*Transforming Sports Fan Habits, Engagement Factors in the Digital Age* (no date) *Sportscaster Magazine*. Available at: http://www.sportscastermagazine.ca/products/transforming-sports-fan-habits-engagement-factors-in-the-digital-age/ (Accessed: 7 October 2015).

Trendel, O. and Werle, C. O. C. (2016) ‘Distinguishing the affective and cognitive bases of implicit attitudes to improve prediction of food choices’, *Appetite*, 104, pp. 33–43. doi: 10.1016/j.appet.2015.10.005.

Tyler, T. R. (2002) ‘Is the Internet Changing Social Life? It Seems the More Things Change, the More They Stay the Same’, *Journal of Social Issues*, 58(1), pp. 195–205. doi: 10.1111/1540-4560.00256.

Wakefield, K. L. and Sloan, H. J. (1995) ‘The effect of team loyalty and selected stadium factors on spectator attendance’, *Journal of Sport Management*, 9, pp. 153–172. doi: 10.1123/jsm.9.2.153.

Wann, D. L. (1995) ‘Preliminary validation of the sport fan motivation scale.’, *Journal of Sport and Social Issues*, 19(4), pp. 377–396.

Wann, D. L. *et al.* (2001) *Sport fans: The psychology and social impact of spectators.*, *Journal of Sport & Tourism*. doi: 10.1080/14775080701654788.

Wann, D. L. and Branscombe, N. R. (1993) ‘Sports fans: measuring degree of identification with their team’, *International Journal of Sport Psychology*. Edizioni Luigi Pozzi, 24(1), pp. 1–17. doi: 10.4319/lo.2013.58.2.0489.

Wann, D. L. and Branscombe, N. R. (1995) ‘Influence of identification with a sports team on objective knowledge and subjective beliefs.’, *International Journal of Sport Psychology*, 26(4), pp. 551–567.

Wann, D. L., Schrader, M. P. and Wilson, A. M. (1999) ‘Sport fan motivation: Questionnaire validation, comparisons by sport, and relationship to athletic motivation’, *Journal of Sport Behaviour*, 22(1), pp. 114–139. doi: Article.

Ward Jr, R. E. (2002) ‘Fan violence: Social problem or moral panic?’, *Aggression and Violent Behaviour*, 7, pp. 453–475. doi: http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/S1359-1789(01)00075-1.

Weaver, K. (2011) *Connecting fans and sports more intensively through social media*, *Cutting-edge Technologies in Higher Education*. Emerald. doi: 10.1108/S2044-9968(2011)0000002013.

Weinstein, A. G. (1972) ‘Predicting Behaviour From Attitudes’, *Public Opinion Quarterly*, 36(3), p. 355. doi: 10.1086/268017.

Westbrook, R. a and Reilly, M. D. (1983) ‘Value-Percept Disparity : an Alternative to the Disconfirmation of Expectations Theory of Consumer Satisfaction’, *Advances in Consumer Research*, 10(10), pp. 256–261. Available at: http://www.acrwebsite.org/search/view-conference-proceedings.aspx?Id=6120 (Accessed: 18 August 2015).

Wilson, E. J. and Sherrell, D. L. (1993) ‘Source effects in communication and persuasion research: A meta-analysis of effect size’, *Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science*, 21(2), pp. 101–112. doi: 10.1007/BF02894421.

Yakup, D., Mucahit, C. and Reyhan, O. (2011) ‘The Impact of Cultural Factors on the Consumer Buying Behaviours Examined through An Impirical Study’, *International Journal of Business and Social Science*, 2(5), pp. 109–114.

Yoon, C. *et al.* (2005) ‘Cognition, persuasion and decision making in older consumers’, *Marketing Letters*, 16(3–4), pp. 429–441. doi: 10.1007/s11002-005-5903-3.

Zanna, M. P. and Rempel, J. K. (1988) ‘Attitudes: A new look at an old concept.’, in *The social psychology of knowledge*, pp. 315–334.

Zielinski, J. and Robertson, T. (1982) ‘Consumer Behaviour Theory: Excesses and Limitations’, *Advances in Consumer Research*, 9(1982), pp. 8–12. Available at: http://www.acrwebsite.org/volumes/display.asp?id=5891.

Znaniecki, F. and Thomas, W. I. (1958) *The Polish Peasant in Europe and America, Vol. 1*. Boston: New York : Alfred A. Knopf. Available at: https://login.e.bibl.liu.se/login?url=https://search.ebscohost.com/login.aspx?direct=true&db=edsasp&AN=edsasp.ASPS10023929.SOTH&lang=sv&site=eds-live%5Cnhttp://www.aspresolver.com/aspresolver.asp?SOTH%5Cnhttp://s10023929%5Cnhttp://parent.

רובין, ד. and Robin, D. (2004) ‘Whose team is it? On the conflicts between teams’ owners and teams’ groupies in Israel/של מי הקבוצה? על יחסי קונפליקט בין בעלי קבוצות לאוהדים בכדורגל הישראלי‎’, *סוגיות חברתיות בישראל, 2009‎*. Available at: http://www.jstor.org/stable/23389178 (Accessed: 30 December 2014).